A NEW

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND COMMERCIAL

GRAMMAR:

AND

PRESENT STATE

OF THE

SEVERAL KINGDOMS OF THE WORLD.

CONTAINING

I. The Figures, Motions, and Diſtances of the Planets, according to the lateſt Obſervations.
II. A general View of the Earth conſidered as a Planet; with ſeveral uſeful Geographical Definitions and Problems.
III. The grand Diviſions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Iſlands.
IV. The Situation and Extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, and Colonies.
V. Their Climate, Air, Soil, vegetable Productions, Metals, Minerals, Curioſities, Seas, Rivers, &c.
VI. The Birds and Beaſts peculiar to each Country.
VII. Obſervations on the Changes that have been any where obſerved upon the Face of Nature, ſince the moſt early Periods of Hiſtory.
VIII. The Hiſtory and Origin of Nations; their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, and Taxes.
IX. The Genius, Manners, Cuſtoms, and Habits of the People.
X. Their Language, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.
XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Ruins, and artificial Curioſities.
XII. The Longitude, Latitude Bearings, and Diſtances of principal Places from London.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

I. A GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX, with the names of Places alphabetically arranged. II. A TABLE of the COINS of all Nations, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY. III. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of remarkable Events from the Creation to the preſent Time.

BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Eſq.

TO WHICH HAVE BEEN ADDED

The late Diſcoveries of Dr. HERSCHELL, and other eminent ASTRONOMERS.

ILLUSTRATED WITH

A CORRECT SET OF MAPS.

THE FIFTEENTH EDITION, CORRECTED,

AND GREATLY ENLARGED.

MONTROSE:

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PREFACE.

THE general approbation which the public have for ſo long a period ſhewn to GUTHRIE'S GEOGRAPHICAL GRAMMAR, ſuperſedes the neceſſity of expatiating upon its excellence and utility. It will only be neceſſary to give ſome account of the additions and improvements which this edition has received.

No pains have been ſpared to render the Geographical part both amuſing and inſtructing, to give a lively delineation of the manners of diſtant nations, and to exhibit thoſe variations which different climates, different education, and different purſuits muſt ſtamp upon the human mind; in executing this difficult taſk, we have conſulted the accounts of the lateſt travellers from whom either uſeful or entertaining information could be drawn. The many valuable publications which have been given to the world relative to India have been carefully inveſtigated, and every thing either uſeful or amuſing has been extracted. The Geography of that extenſive country has been much improved by Major Rennel, of whoſe labours we have not failed to profit; Major Dirom's narrative of the campaign in the Peninſula, which terminated the war with Tippoo Sultan in 1792; Maurice's Indian Antiquities, the work of a man of the firſt genius, and of the firſt abilities, has furniſhed us with valuable information, beſides other books which have been occaſionally conſulted in the geographical account of Aſia. Very conſiderable improvements and additions have been made in the hiſtory of the iſlands which lie ſcattered in the Indian Ocean; many of which had hitherto remained either totally unexplored, or very little known; partly defended by the tempeſtuous ocean which ſurrounded them, and partly by the inhoſpitable and ferocious manners of the natives. Concerning theſe we have been able to collect much valuable information, relative to their productions, to the wonderful phenomena which nature has diſplayed in theſe ſolitary receſſes, and to the manners of their ſavage inhabitants. For moſt of theſe particulars we are indebted to the Aſiatic reſearches. What little information could be collected concerning Africa has been carefully attended to. The travels of the enterpriſing Vaillant and the journey of Col. Paterſon have been examined with attention, and many particulars have been extracted, which tend to exhibit a true portrait of the manners of its inhabitants. In our journey through the barren deſerts of Arabia we have been much aſſiſted by the ingenious Mr. Bruce, from whoſe valuable work we have extracted many particulars not to be found in any other edition. Our account of Egypt is much improved, and a more enlarged account is given of the magnificent ruins of the temples, domes, and triumphal pillars, which remind the claſſic traveller of the grandeur of this once renowned country. In the geographical account of America, we have followed Mr. Morſe, who viſited the ſeveral States in the Union, and has greatly improved the geography of that country.

The moſt aſtoniſhing and awful events, which have taken place in the world for ſome years back, have rendered it abſolutely neceſſary to make very great additions to the hiſtorical part of this edition. The difficulty of this taſk has been moreover greatly increaſed by the diverſity of opi-

nions

nions to which these events have given rise, and the violence and animosity with which each party have defended the cause they have espoused. Though the fury of that flame which the French Revolution has excited may perhaps have somewhat abated, yet we are sensible we tread upon dangerous ground; *ignes suppositos cineri doloso.* But, however much we may wish to be unbiassed by factious views, we cannot imitate the example of those, who, assuming an appearance of great candour, pretend, that they are of no party, and view the struggles of both with frigid indifference. The history of the period we allude to has excited in our breast a more lively interest, and we chearfully avow that we have warmly espoused the sentiments of the illustrious author of *Reflections on the French Revolution*, around whose grave honours will continue to thicken, and laurels to bloom, while genius, wisdom, erudition, and integrity, command the admiration of mankind; whose name will be inscribed in the lasting roll of immortality, while his feeble opponents will be at rest in the "family vault of all the Capulets."

It has been our particular study to give such a comprehensive history of that period, as our narrow limits would permit; and it is hoped, that such as have neither leisure nor opportunity to read the more minute histories of these transactions, will here be enabled to obtain such a satisfactory view of a very calamitous portion of the history of their own times, as will prevent them from being the dupes of artful falsehood or insidious misrepresentation.

The history of England is continued to the battle of the Nile, and concludes with a circumstantial account of that memorable victory and its probable influence on the powers of Europe; the history of France has also been greatly enlarged; it contains an account of all the awful events which have recently taken place in that country: the narrative is compiled from the writings of those who have had the best opportunities of information, and whose respectable characters render their veracity unimpeachable. Particular attention has been paid to that part of the history which relates to the fate of the unfortunate Lewis and his family—his cruel imprisonment, his protracted sufferings, and ignominious death. The account of his last affecting interview with his family is taken from the journal of Clery, his valet de chambre, who was a witness of the melancholy scene, which he so affectingly describes. The histories of Ireland, Spain, Germany, Prussia, Russia, Italy, &c. are all greatly enlarged and improved.—In the history of Egypt, some account is given of the invasion of that country by the French, and passages are extracted from the letters of Buonaparte, describing the situation of the French army.—The maps are executed in the best manner, and it is hoped, will do no discredit to the work.

To conclude, the publishers flatter themselves that this new edition of GUTHRIE'S GEOGRAPHICAL GRAMMAR considerably enlarged beyond any former one, will be found to be the best hitherto published.

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INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

Of Astronomical Geography.

SECT. I.

Of the Planets, the Comets, the Fixed Stars, and the different Systems of the Universe.

THE science of Geography cannot be completely understood without considering the earth as a planet, or as a body moving round another at a considerable distance from it. But the science which treats of the planets, and other heavenly bodies, is called Astronomy. Hence the necessity of beginning this work with an account of the heavenly bodies. Of these the most conspicuous is that glorious luminary the Sun, the fountain of light and heat to the several planets which move round it; and which, together with the sun, compose what astronomers have called the Solar System. The way, or path, in which the planets move round the sun, is called their Orbit; and it is now fully proved by astronomers, that there are seven planets which move round the sun, each in its own orbit. The names of these, according to their nearness to the centre, or middle point of the sun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus. The two first, because they move within the orbit of the earth (being nearer the sun) are called *inferior* planets, or, perhaps more properly, *interior* or *inner* planets; the four last, moving without the orbit of the earth, are called *superior*, or, perhaps more properly, *exterior* or *outer* planets. If we can form a notion of the manner in which any one of these planets, suppose our earth, moves round the sun, we can easily conceive the manner in which all the rest do it. We shall only therefore particularly consider the motion of the earth, or planet on which we live, leaving that of the others to be collected from a table, which we shall set down with such explications as may render it intelligible to the meanest capacity.

The earth upon which we live was long considered as one large extensive plane, of no remarkable thickness; and the regions below it were supposed to be the habitations of spirits. The heavens, in which the sun, moon, and stars appeared to move daily from east to west, were conceived to be at no great distance from it, and to be only designed for the use or ornament of our earth: several reasons, however, occurred, which rendered this opinion improbable; it is needless to mention them, because we have now a sufficient proof of the figure of the earth, from the voyages of many navigators, who have actually sailed round it: as from that of Magellan's ship, which was the first that surrounded the globe, sailing east from a port

in Europe in 1519, and returning to the ſame after a voyage of 1124 days, without apparently altering his direction, any more than a fly would appear to do in moving round a ball of wax.

The roundneſs of the earth being thoroughly eſtabliſhed, a way was thereby naturally opened for the diſcovery of its motion. For while it was conſidered as a plane, mankind had an obſcure notion of its being ſupported, like a ſcaffolding, on pillars, though they could not tell what ſupported theſe. But the figure of a globe is much better adapted to motion. This is confirmed by conſidering, that, if the earth did not move round the ſun, not only the ſun, but all the ſtars and planets, muſt move round the earth. Now, as philoſophers, by reckonings founded on the ſureſt obſervations, have been able to gueſs pretty nearly at the diſtances of the heavenly bodies from the earth, and from each other, juſt as every body that knows the firſt elements of mathematics can meaſure the height of a ſteeple, or any object placed on it; it appeared that, if we conceived the heavenly bodies to move round the earth, we muſt ſuppoſe them endowed with a motion or velocity ſo immenſe as to exceed all conception: whereas all the appearances in nature may be as well explained by imagining the earth to move round the ſun in the ſpace of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in 24 hours.

To form a conception of theſe two motions of the earth, we may imagine a ball moving on a billiard-table or bowling-green: the ball proceeds forwards upon the green or table, not by ſliding along like a plane upon wood, or a ſlate upon ice, but by turning round its own axis, which is an imaginary line drawn through the centre or middle of the ball, and ending on its ſurface in two points called its poles. Conceiving the matter then in this way, and that the earth in the ſpace of 24 hours, moves from weſt to eaſt, the inhabitants on the ſurface of it, like men on the deck of a ſhip, who are inſenſible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will conceive that the ſun and ſtars move from eaſt to weſt in the ſame time of 24 hours, in which they, along with the earth, move from weſt to eaſt. This daily or diurnal motion of the earth being once clearly conceived, will enable us eaſily to form a notion of its annual or yearly motion round the ſun. For as that luminary ſeems to have a daily motion round our earth, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth round its axis, ſo, in the courſe of a year, he ſeems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to riſe and ſet in different points of them, which is really occaſioned by the daily motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the ſun, which it completes in the time of a year. Now as to the firſt of theſe motions we owe the difference of day and night, ſo to the ſecond we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the ſeaſons of the year.

THE PLANETS.] Thus much being ſaid with regard to the motion of the earth, which the ſmalleſt reflection may lead us to apply to the other planets, we muſt obſerve, before exhibiting our table, that, beſides the ſeven planets already mentioned, which move round the ſun, there are fourteen other bodies which move round four of theſe, in the ſame manner as they do round the ſun; and of theſe our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four, Saturn has ſeven (two * of theſe being lately

* See the 80th vol. of the Philoſophical Tranſactions.

diſcovered

discovered by the celebrated Dr. Herschell); and the Georgium Sidus has two, as has been proved by that excellent astronomer. These are all called moons, from their agreeing with our moon, which was first attended to: and sometimes they are called *secondary* planets, because they seem to be attendants of the Earth, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, about which they move, and which are called *primary*.

There are but two observations more necessary for understanding the following table. They are these; we have already said that the annual motion of the earth occasioned the diversity of seasons. But this would not happen, were the axis of the earth exactly parallel, or in a line with the axis of its orbit; because then the same parts of the earth would be turned towards the sun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful vicissitudes of the seasons, arising from the difference in length of the days and nights. This therefore is not the case——the axis of the earth is inclined to the plane of the earth's orbit, which we may conceive by supposing a spindle put through a ball, with one end of it touching the ground; if we move the ball directly forwards, while one end of the spindle continues to touch the ground, and the other points towards some quarter of the heavens, we may form a notion of the inclination of the earth's axis to its orbit, from the inclination of the spindle to the ground. The same observation applies to some of the other planets, as may be seen from the table. The only thing that now remains, is to consider what is meant by the *mean distances* of the planets from the sun. In order to understand which, we must learn that the orbit, or path which a planet describes, were it to be marked out, would not be quite round or circular, but in the shape of a figure called an ellipsis, which, though resembling a circle, is longer than broad. Hence the same planet is not always at the same distance from the sun, and the mean distance of it is, that which is exactly betwixt its greatest, and least distance. Here follows the table.

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the several Planets in the Solar System.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in English Miles.	Mean distances from the sun as determined from observations of the transit of Venus in 1761.	Annual period round the sun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
			y. d. h.	d. h. m.			
Sun	890,000			25 6 0		3,818	8° 0′ 0″
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	unknown	109,699	unkn.	unknown
Venus	7,906	68,891,486	0 224 17	24 8 0	80,295	43	70° 0′ 0″
Earth	7,970	95,173,000	1 0 0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23° 29′ 0″
Moon	2,180	ditto	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2° 30′ 0″
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0° 0′ 0″
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 1	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0° 0′ 0″
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	28 167 6	unknown	22,101	unkn.	unknown
Georgium Sidus	34,227	1,815,912,260	83 121 0	unknown	unknown	unkn.	0 43′ 31″

As the Georgian planet (or Georgium Sidus) has considerably attracted the attention of aſtronomers, it will be neceſſary in a work of this nature, to give the reader a brief account of it. It was diſcovered by Dr. Herſchell, with his teleſcope of great ſize and power, in the year 1781. For this diſcovery he obtained from the Royal Society the honorary recompenſe of ſir Godfrey Copley's medal. In ſo recent a diſcovery of a planet ſo diſtant, many particulars cannot be expected. We have introduced ſome account of it into the above table from the firſt authority.

Though the Georgium Sidus was not known as a planet till the time of Dr. Herſchell, yet there are many reaſons to ſuppoſe it had been ſeen before, but had then been conſidered as a fixed ſtar; but, from the ſteadineſs of its light, from its diameter being increaſed by high magnifying powers; from the change which he had obſerved in its ſituation, he concluded that it was a comet; but in a little time he, with others, determined that it was a planet, from its vicinity to the ecliptic, the direction of its motion being ſtationary in the time, and in ſuch circumſtances as correſpond with ſimilar appearances in other planets.—When the moon is abſent it may be ſeen by the naked eye; and the diſcovery of two ſatellites attending it, ſeems to confer upon it a dignity, and to raiſe it into a more conſpicuous ſituation among the great bodies of our ſolar ſyſtem.—As the diſtances of the planets, when marked in miles, are a burden to the memory, aſtronomers often expreſs their mean diſtances in a ſhorter way, by ſuppoſing the diſtance from the earth to the ſun to be divided into ten parts. Mercury may then be eſtimated at four of ſuch parts from the ſun, Venus at ſeven, the Earth at ten, Mars at fifteen, Jupiter at fifty-two ſuch parts, Saturn at ninety-five, and the Georgium Sidus one hundred and ninety parts.

Comets.] The reader having obtained an idea of the planets from the table, and the previous obſervations neceſſary for underſtanding it, muſt next turn his reflection to the comets, which, as they revolve round our ſun, are a part of the ſolar ſyſtem. Theſe deſcending from the far diſtant parts of the ſyſtem with great rapidity, ſurpriſe us with their ſingular appearance of a train or tail, which accompanies them; become viſible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a ſhort ſtay, go off again to vaſt diſtances, and diſappear. Though ſome of the ancients had more juſt notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like to thoſe we ſee in it every night, and in a few moments vaniſhing, no care was taken to obſerve or record their phænomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of aſtronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is that they are ſolid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the ſame laws of gravity, ſo as to deſcribe equal areas in proportional times by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the ſun in very eccentric ellipſes, and are of much greater denſity than the earth; for ſome of them are heated in every period to ſuch a degree as would vitrify or diſſipate any ſubſtance known to us. Sir Iſaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when neareſt the ſun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it muſt retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period ſhould be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. It is believed that there are at leaſt 21 comets belonging to our ſyſtem, moving in all manner of directions; and all thoſe which have been obſerved have moved through the etherial regions

regions and the orbits of the planets, without ſuffering the leaſt ſenſible reſiſtance in their motions, which ſufficiently proves that the planets do not move in ſolid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of theſe, that which appeared in 1680 is the moſt remarkable. This comet, at its greateſt diſtance, is about 11 thouſand, 200 millions of miles from the ſun, while its leaſt diſtance from the centre of the ſun is about 490 thouſand miles; within leſs than one third part of the ſun's ſemidiameter from his ſurface. In that part of its orbit which is neareſt the ſun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the ſun, as ſeen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, conſequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The aſtoniſhing diſtance that this comet runs out into empty ſpace, naturally ſuggeſts to our imagination, the vaſt diſtance between our ſun and the neareſt of the fixed ſtars, of whoſe attractions all the comets muſt keep clear, to return periodically, and go rund the ſun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of aſtronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to thoſe of the great Sir Iſaac Newton on this ſubject Our earth was out of the way when this comet laſt paſſed near her orbit; but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always paſs by us with ſo little effect; for it may be here obſerved that the comet, in one part of its orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of the earth: ſo that in ſome revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very conſiderable if not fatal effects upon it. See Newton, Halley, Gregory, Keill, Mac Laurin, Derham, Ferguſon, and Whiſton.

THE FIXED STARS.] Having thus briefly ſurveyed the ſolar ſyſtem, which, though great in itſelf, is ſmall in compariſon of the immenſity of the univerſe, we next proceed to the contemplation of thoſe other vaſt bodies called the *fixed ſtars*; which being of infinite uſe in the practice of geography, claim a particular notice in this work. Theſe fixed ſtars are diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye from the planets, by being leſs bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the ſtars. This ariſes from their being ſo extremely ſmall, that the interpoſition of the leaſt body, of which there are many conſtantly floating in the air, deprives us of the ſight of them; when the interpoſed body changes its place, we again ſee the ſtar, and this ſucceſſion being perpetual, occaſions the twinkling. But a more remarkable property of the fixed ſtars, and that from which they have obtained their name, is their never changing their ſituation, with regard to each other; as the planets, fro what we have already ſaid, muſt evidently be always changing theirs. The ſtars which are neareſt to us ſeem largeſt, and are therefore called of the firſt magnitude. Thoſe of the ſecond magnitude appear leſs, being at a greater diſtance; and ſo proceeding on to the ſixth magnitude, which includes all the fixed ſtars that are viſible without a teleſcope. As to their number, though in a clear winter's night, without moonſhine, they ſeem to be innumerable, which is owing to their ſtrong ſparkling, and our looking at them in a confuſed manner; yet when the whole firmament is divided as it has been done by the ancients, into ſigns and conſtellations, the number that can be ſeen at a time, by the bare eye, is not above a thouſand. Since the introduction of teleſcopes, indeed, the number of the fixed ſtars has been juſtly conſidered

ſidered as immenſe; becauſe the greater perfection we arrive at in our glaſſes, the more ſtars always appear to us. Mr. Flamſtead, late royal aſtronomer at Greenwich, has given us a catalogue of about 3000 ſtars. Theſe are called teleſcopic ſtars, from their being inviſible without the aſſiſtance of that inſtrument. Dr. Herſchell, to whoſe ingenuity and aſſiduity the aſtronomical world is ſo much indebted, has evinced what great diſcoveries may be made by improvements in the inſtruments of obſervation. In ſpeaking here of his diſcoveries, I ſhall uſe the words of M. de la Lande. "In paſſing rapidly over the heavens with his new teleſcope, "the univerſe increaſed under his eye; 44,000 ſtars, ſeen in the ſpace of "a few degrees, ſeemed to indicate that there were ſeventy-five millions "in the heavens." But what are all theſe when compared to thoſe that fill the whole expanſe, the boundleſs fields of Æther? Indeed the immenſity of the univerſe muſt contain ſuch numbers, as would exceed the utmoſt ſtretch of the human imagination; for who can ſay how far the univerſe extends, or point out thoſe limits, where the Creator ſtayed "his rapid wheels" or where he "fixed the golden compaſſes?"

The immenſe diſtance of the fixed ſtars from our earth, and one another, is of all conſiderations the moſt proper for raiſing our ideas of the works of God. For notwithſtanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at leaſt 190 millions of miles in diameter) round the ſun, the diſtance of a fixed ſtar is not ſenſibly affected by it; ſo that the ſtar does not appear to be any nearer us when the earth is in that part of its orbit neareſt the ſtar, than it ſeemed to be when the earth was at the moſt diſtant part of its orbit, or 100 millions of miles farther removed from the ſame ſtar. The ſtar neareſt us, and conſequently the largeſt in appearance, is the dog-ſtar, or Sirius. Modern diſcoveries make it probable that each of theſe fixed ſtars is a ſun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as our ſun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now the dog-ſtar appears 27,000 times leſs than the ſun; and, as the diſtance of the ſtars muſt be greater in proportion as they ſeem leſs, mathematicians have computed the diſtance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thouſand millions of miles. The motion of light, therefore, which, though ſo quick as to be commonly thought inſtantaneous, takes up more time in travelling from the ſtars to us than we do in making a Weſt India voyage. A ſound would not arrive to us from thence in 50,000 years; which, next to light, is conſidered as the quickeſt body we are acquainted with. And a cannon ball flying at the rate of 480 miles an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The ſtars being at ſuch immenſe diſtances from the ſun, cannot poſſibly receive from him ſo ſtrong a light as they ſeem to have; nor any brightneſs ſufficient to make them viſible to us. For the ſun's rays muſt be ſo ſcattered and diſſipated before they reach ſuch remote objects, that they can never be tranſmitted back to our eyes, ſo as to render theſe objects viſible by reflection. The ſtars therefore ſhine with their own native and unborrowed luſtre, as the ſun does; and ſince each particular ſtar as well as the ſun, is confined to a particular portion of ſpace, it is plain that the ſtars are of the ſame nature with the ſun.

It is no way probable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wiſdom, and does nothing in vain, ſhould create ſo many glorious ſuns, fit for ſo many important purpoſes, and place them at ſuch diſtances from one another, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their

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influences. Whoever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe, muſt have a very ſuperficial knowledge of aſtronomy *, a mean opinion of the Divine Wiſdom; ſince, by an infinitely leſs exertion of creating power, the Deity could have given our earth much more light by one ſingle additional moon.

Inſtead then of one ſun and one world only, in the univerſe, as the unſkilful in aſtronomy imagine, *that* ſcience diſcovers to us ſuch an inconceivable number of ſuns, ſyſtems, and worlds, diſperſed through boundleſs ſpace, that if our ſun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it, were annihilated, they would be no more miſſed by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of ſand from the ſeaſhore; the ſpace they poſſeſs, being comparatively ſo ſmall, that it would ſcarcely be a ſenſible blank in the univerſe, although the Georgium Sidus the outermoſt of our planets, revolves about the ſun in an orbit of 10,830 millions of miles in circumference, and ſome of our comets make excurſions upwards of ten thouſand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Georgium Sidus; and yet at that amazing diſtance, they are incomparably nearer to the ſun than to any of the ſtars; as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the ſtars, and returning periodically by virtue of the ſun's attraction.

From what we know of our own ſyſtem, it may be reaſonably concluded, that all the reſt are with equal wiſdom contrived, ſituated, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants. For although there is almoſt an infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, yet there is a general analogy running through and connecting all the parts into one ſcheme, one deſign, one whole!

Since the fixed ſtars are prodigious ſpheres of fire, like our ſun, and at inconceivable diſtances from one another, as well as from us, it is reaſonable to conclude they are made for the ſame purpoſes that the ſun is: each to beſtow light, heat and vegetation, on a certain number of inhabited planets, kept by gravitation within the ſphere of its activity.

What an auguſt! what an amazing conception, if human imagination can conceive it, does this give of the works of the Creator! Thouſands and Thouſands of ſuns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immenſe diſtances from each other, attended by ten thouſand times ten thouſand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths preſcribed them; and theſe worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings formed for endleſs progreſſion in perfection and felicity.

If ſo much power, wiſdom, goodneſs, and magnificence is diſplayed in the material creation, which is the leaſt conſiderable part of the univerſe, how great, how wiſe, how good muſt HE be, who made and governs the whole!

THE CONSTELLATIONS.] The *firſt people* who paid much attention to the fixed ſtars, were *the ſhepherds* in the beautiful plains of Egypt and Baby-

* Eſpecially ſince there are many ſtars which are not viſible without the aſſiſtance of a good teleſcope; and therefore, inſtead of giving light to this world, they can only be ſeen by a few aſtronomers.

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lon; who partly from amuſement, and partly with a view to direct them in travelling during the night, obſerved the ſituation of theſe celeſtial bodies. Endowed with a lively fancy, they divided the ſtars into different companies or conſtellations, each of which they ſuppoſed to repreſent the image of ſome animal, or other terreſtrial object. The peaſants in our own country do the ſame thing; for they diſtinguiſh that great northern conſtellation, which the philoſophers call the Urſa Major, by the name of the Plough, the figure of which it certainly may repreſent with a very little help from the fancy. But the conſtellations in general have preſerved the names which were given them by the ancients; and they are reckoned 21 *northern*, and 12 *ſouthern*; but the moderns have increaſed the number of the northern to 36, and of the ſouthern to 32. Beſides theſe, there are the 12 *ſigns* or conſtellations in the Zodiac, as it is called from a Greek word, ſignifying an animal, becauſe each of theſe 12 repreſents ſome animal. This is a great circle which divides the heavens into two equal parts, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. In the mean time we ſhall conclude this ſection with an account of the riſe, progreſs, and revolutions in aſtronomy.

DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE.] Mankind muſt have made a very conſiderable improvement in obſerving the motions of the heavenly bodies, before they could ſo far diſengage themſelves from the prejudices of ſenſe and popular opinion, as to believe that the earth, upon which we live, was not fixed and immoveable. We find accordingly, that Thales, the Mileſian, who, about 580 years before Chriſt, firſt taught aſtronomy in Europe, had gone ſo far in this ſubject as to calculate eclipſes, or interpoſitions of the moon between the earth and the ſun, or of the earth between the ſun and the moon (the nature of which may be eaſily underſtood from what we have already obſerved.) Pythagoras, a Greek philoſopher, flouriſhed about 50 years after Thales, and was, no doubt equally well acquainted with the motion of the heavenly bodies. This led Pythagoras to conceive an idea, which there is no reaſon to believe had ever been thought of before, namely, that the earth itſelf was in motion, and that the ſun was at reſt. He found that it was impoſſible, in any other way, to give a conſiſtent account of the heavenly motions. The ſyſtem, however, was ſo extremely oppoſite to all the prejudices of ſenſe and opinion, that it never made great progreſs, nor was ever widely diffuſed in the ancient world. The philoſophers of antiquity, deſpairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reaſon, ſet themſelves to adapt the one to the other, and to form a reconciliation between them. This was the caſe with Ptolemy, an Egyptian philoſopher, who flouriſhed 138 years before Chriſt. He ſuppoſed with the vulgar, who meaſure every thing by themſelves, that the earth was fixed immoveably in the center of the univerſe, and that the ſeven planets, conſidering the moon as one of the primaries, were placed near to it; above them was the firmament of fixed ſtars, then the cryſtalline orbs, then the primum mobile, and, laſt of all, the cœlum empyreum, or heaven of heavens. All theſe vaſt orbs he ſuppoſed to move round the earth once in 24 hours; and beſides that, in certain ſtated and periodical times. To account for theſe motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles called excentrics and epicycles, croſſing and interfering with one another. The ſyſtem was univerſally maintained by the peripatetic philoſophers, who were the moſt conſiderable ſect in Europe from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century.

At length, Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean, or true ſyſtem of the univerſe; and publiſhed it to the world in the year 1530. This doctrine had been ſo long in obſcurity, that the reſtorer of it was conſidered as the inventor; and the ſyſtem obtained the name of the Copernican philoſophy, though only revived by that great man.

Europe however was ſtill immerſed in ignorance; and the general ideas of the world were not able to keep pace with thoſe of a refined philoſophy.

This occaſioned Copernicus to have few abettors, but many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a noble Dane, ſenſible of the defects of the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about 1586, to eſtabliſh a new ſyſtem of his own, which was ſtill more perplexed and embarraſſed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit; and it makes the ſun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The ſun, however, with all the planets, is ſuppoſed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in the twenty-four hours. This ſyſtem, notwithſtanding its abſurdity, met with its advocates. Longomontanus, and others, ſo far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they inſiſted that it had no annual motion.

About this time, after a darkneſs of a great many ages, the firſt dawn of learning and taſte began to appear in Europe. Learned men in different countries began to cultivate aſtronomy. Galileo, a Florentine, about the year 1610, introduced the uſe of teleſcopes, which diſcovered new arguments in ſupport of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The fury and bigotry of the clergy indeed, had almoſt checked this flouriſhing bud: Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican ſyſtem as a damnable hereſy. The happy reformation in religion, however, placed the one half of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the ſcriptures were not given for explaining ſyſtems of natural philoſophy, but for a much nobler purpoſe, to make us juſt, virtuous, and humane; that, inſtead of oppoſing the word of God, which in ſpeaking of natural things ſuits itſelf to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employed our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to God himſelf, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are conſidered, afford us the greater reaſon to admire his glorious attributes of power, wiſdom, and goodneſs. From this time therefore, noble diſcoveries were made in all the branches of aſtronomy. The motions of the heavenly bodies were not only clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was diſcovered and illuſtrated by the immortal Newton. This law is called *Gravity* or *Attraction*, and is the ſame by which any body falls to the ground, when diſengaged from what ſupported it. It has been demonſtrated, that this ſame law which keeps the ſea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the ſurface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the univerſe, keeps the planets in their orbits, and preſerves the whole fabric of nature from confuſion and diſorder.

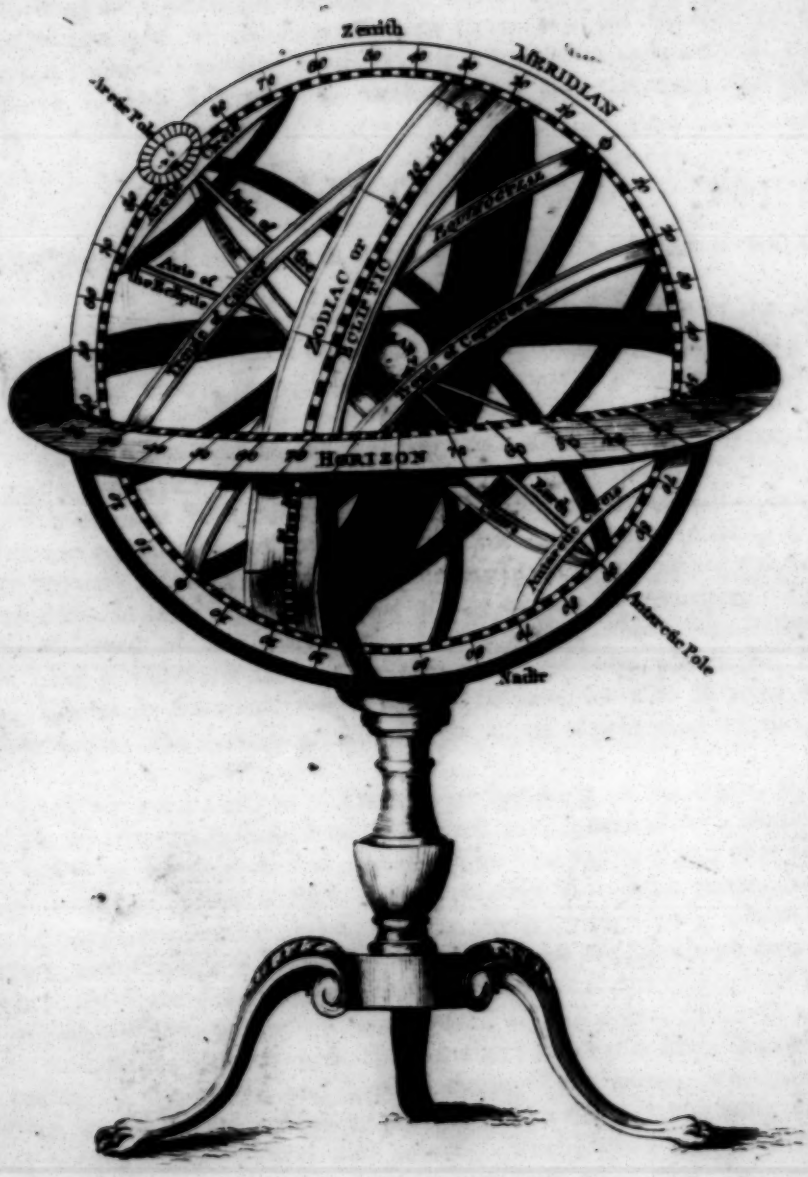
SECT. II.

Of the Doctrine of the SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing Section, treated of the UNIVERSE in general, in which the earth has been conſidered as a planet, we now proceed to the doctrine of the SPHERE, which ought always to be premiſed before that of the Globe or earth, as we ſhall ſee in the next Section. In handling this ſubject, we ſhall conſider the earth as at reſt, and the heavenly bodies, as performing their revolutions around it. This method cannot lead the reader into any miſtake, ſince we have previouſly explained the true ſyſtem of the univerſe, from which it appears, that it is the *real* motion of the earth, which occaſions the *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies. It is beſides attended with this advantage, that it perfectly agrees with the information of our ſenſes, which always leads us to conceive the matter in this way. The imagination therefore is not put on the ſtretch; the idea is eaſy and familiar, and, in delivering the elements of ſcience, this object cannot be too much attended to.

N. B. In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occaſionally turn his eye to the figure of the artificial ſphere on the oppoſite page.

The ancients obſerved, that all the ſtars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from eaſt to weſt, in twenty-four hours; that the circles which they deſcribed in thoſe revolutions, were parallel to each other, but not of the ſame magnitude; thoſe paſſing over the middle of the earth being the largeſt of all, while the reſt diminiſhed in proportion to their diſtance from it. They alſo obſerved, that there were two points in the heavens, which always preſerved the ſame ſituation. Theſe points they termed celeſtial poles, becauſe the heavens ſeemed to turn round them. In order to imitate theſe motions, they invented what is called the *Artificial Sphere*, through the centre of which they drew a wire or iron rod, called an *Axis*, whoſe extremities are fixed to the immoveable points called *Poles*. They farther obſerved, that on the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the circle deſcribed by the ſun, was at an equal diſtance from both of the poles. This circle, therefore, muſt divide the earth into two equal parts, and on this account was called the *Equator* or *Equaller*. It was alſo called the *Equinoctial Line*, becauſe the ſun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having alſo obſerved that from the 21ſt of June to the 22d of December, the ſun advanced every day towards a certain point, and having arrived there, returned towards that from whence it ſet out, from the 22d of December to the 21ſt of June: they fixed *theſe points*, which they called *Solſtices*, becauſe the direct motion of the ſun was ſtopped at them; and repreſented the bounds of the ſun's motion, by two circles, which they named *Tropics*, becauſe the ſun no ſooner arrived there than he turned back. Aſtronomers obſerving the motion of the ſun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every 24 hours. This great circle is called the *Ecliptic*, and it paſſes through certain conſtellations, diſtinguiſhed by the names of animals, in a *zone* called the *Zodiac*. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one ſide, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely, at an angle of 23 degrees, 29 minutes, the ſun's greateſt declination. To expreſs this motion, they ſuppoſed two points in the



THE ARTIFICIAL SPHERE

the heavens, equally distant from and parallel to, this circle, which they call the *Poles* of the zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, describes the *two polar circles*. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles, by two other circles called *Colures* which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed, that when the sun was in any point of his course, all the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they call a *Meridian*, and which is immoveable in the artifical sphere, as well as the horizon; which is another circle representing the bounds betwixt the two hemispheres, or half spheres, viz. that which is above it, and that which is below it.

SECT. III.

The Doctrine of the GLOBE naturally follows that of the SPHERE.

BY the doctrine of the GLOBE is meant the representation of the different places and countries, on the face of the earth, upon an artificial globe or ball. Now the manner in which geographers have represented the situation of one place upon this earth with regard to another, or with regard to the earth in general, has been by transferring the circles of the sphere to the artificial globe; and this is the only method they could employ. This will be abundantly obvious from an example. After that circle in the heavens, which is called the equator, was known to astronomers, there was nothing more easy than to transfer it to the earth, by which the situation of places was determined according as they lay on one side of the equator or another. The same may be observed of the other circles of the sphere above-mentioned. The reader having obtained an idea of the principle upon which the Doctrine of the Globe is founded, may proceed to consider this doctrine itself, or in other words, the description of our earth, as represented by the *artificial globe*.

FIGURE OF THE EARTH.] Though in speaking of the earth, along with other planets, it was sufficient to consider it as a spherical or globular body; yet it has been discovered, that this is not its true figure; and that the earth, though nearly a sphere or ball, is not perfectly so. This matter occasioned great dispute between the philosophers of the last age, among whom Sir Isaac Newton, and Cassini, a French astronomer, were the heads of two different parties. Sir Isaac demonstrated, from mathematical principles, that the earth was an *oblate sphere*, or that it was flatted at the poles, or north and south points, and jutted out towards the equator; so that a line, drawn through the centre of the earth, and passing through the poles, which is called a diameter, would not be so long as the line drawn through the same centre, and passing through the east and west points. The French philosopher asserted quite the contrary. But the matter was put to a trial by the French king in 1736, who sent out a company of philosophers towards the north pole, and likewise towards the equator, in order to measure a degreee, or the three hundred and sixtieth part of a great circle, in these different parts; and from their report, the opinion of Sr Isaac Newton was confirmed beyond dispute. Since that time, therefore, the earth has always been considered as more flat towards the poles than towards the equator. The reason of this figure may be easily understood, if the reader fully comprehends what we formerly

merly obſerved, with regard to the earth's motion. For if we fix a ball of clay on a ſpindle, and whirl it round, we ſhall find that it will jut out or project towards the middle, and flatten towards the poles. Now this is exactly the caſe with regard to our earth; only that its axis, repreſented by the ſpindle, is imaginary. But though the earth be not properly ſpherical, the difference from that figure is ſo ſmall, that it may be repreſented by a globe or ball without any ſenſible error.

CIRCUMFERENCE AND DIAMETER OF THE EARTH.] In the general table which we have exhibited, page 3, the diameter of the globe is given according to the beſt obſervations; ſo that its circumference is 25,038 Engliſh miles. This circumference is conceived, for the conveniency of meaſuring, to be divided into three hundred and ſixty parts or degrees, each degree containing ſixty geographical miles, or ſixty nine Engliſh miles and a half. Theſe degrees are in the ſame manner conceived to be divided each into ſixty minutes.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.] The axis of the earth is that imaginary line paſſing through its centre, on which it is ſuppoſed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the earth; one in the north and the other in the ſouth, which are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles. The knowledge of theſe poles is of great uſe to the geographer, in determining the diſtances and ſituation of places; for the poles mark as it were the ends of the earth, which is divided in the middle by the equator; ſo that the nearer one approaches to the poles, the farther he removes from the equator; and contrariwiſe, in removing from the poles, you approach the equator.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.] Theſe are commonly divided into the *greater* and *leſſer*. A great circle is that whoſe plane paſſes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemiſpheres. A leſſer circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot paſs through the centre of the earth, nor divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are *ſix*, in number the leſſer only *four*.

EQUATOR.] The firſt *great circle* we ſhall ſpeak of is the *Equator*, which we have had occaſion to hint at already. It is called ſometimes the *Equinoctial*, the reaſon of which we have explained; and by navigators it is alſo called the *Line*, becauſe, according to their rude notions, they believed it to be a great Line drawn upon the ſea from eaſt to weſt, dividing the earth into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres, and which they were actually to paſs in ſailing from one into the other. The poles of this circle are the ſame with thoſe of the world. It paſſes through the eaſt and weſt points of the world, and, as has been already mentioned, divides it into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, the uſe of which will ſoon appear.

HORIZON.] This *great circle* is repreſented by a broad circular piece of wood encompaſſing the globe and dividing it into the upper and lower hemiſpheres. Geographers very properly diſtinguiſh the horizon into the *ſenſible* and *rational*. The firſt is that which bounds the utmoſt proſpect of our ſight, when we view the heavens around us, *apparently* touching the earth or ſea.

This circle determines the riſing or ſetting of the ſun and ſtars, in any particular place; for when they begin to appear above the eaſtern edge, we ſay they riſe; and when they go beneath the weſtern, we ſay they are ſet. It appears that each place has its own *ſenſible* horizon. The other horizon, called the *rational*, encompaſſes the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is, two points in its axis, each ninety degrees diſtant from its plane, as thoſe

thoſe of all circles are) are called the *Zenith* and *Nadir*; the firſt exactly above our heads, and the other directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle which repreſents it on the globe, has ſeveral circles drawn upon it; of theſe the innermoſt is that exhibiting the number of degrees of the twelve ſigns of the Zodiac (of which hereafter), viz. thirty to each ſign. Next to this, you have the names of theſe ſigns: Next to this, the days of the month according to the old ſtyle, and then according to the new ſtyle. Beſides theſe, there is a circle repreſenting the thirty-two rhumbs, or points of the mariner's compaſs. The uſe of all theſe will be explained afterwards.

Meridian.] *This circle* is repreſented by the *braſs ring*, on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into three hundred and ſixty degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; ſo that, counting from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eaſtern and weſtern hemiſpheres. This circle is called the *meridian*, becauſe when the ſun comes to the ſouth part of it, it is then *meridies* or mid-day, and then the ſun has its greateſt altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now as the ſun is never in its meridian altitude at two places eaſt or weſt of one another at the ſame time, each of theſe places muſt have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

Zodiac.] The zodiac is a *broad circle*, which cuts the equator obliquely; in which the twelve ſigns above mentioned are repreſented. In the middle of this circle is ſuppoſed another called the *Ecliptic*, from which the ſun never deviates in his annual courſe, and in which he advances thirty degrees every month. The twelve ſigns are,

1. Aries	♈	—	March	7. Libra	♎	—	September
2. Taurus	♉	—	April	8. Scorpio	♏	—	October
3. Gemini	♊	—	May	9. Sagittarius	♐	—	November
4. Cancer	♋	—	June	10. Capricorn	♑	—	December
5. Leo	♌	—	July	11. Aquarius	♒	—	January
6. Virgo	♍	—	Auguſt	12. Piſces	♓	—	February

Colures.] If you imagine *two great circles* paſſing both through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points, Aries and Libra, and the other through the ſolſtitial points, Cancer and Capricorn, theſe are called the Colures; the one the Equinoctial, the other the Solſtitial Colure. Theſe divide the ecliptic into four equal parts or quarters, which are denominated according to the points which theſe paſs through, viz. the four cardinal points, and are the firſt points of Aries, Libra, Cancer, and Capricorn; and theſe are all the *great circles*.

Tropics.] If you ſuppoſe two circles drawn parallel to the equinoctial, at twenty-three degrees thirty minutes diſtance from it, meaſured on the brazen meridian, and one towards the north, the other towards the ſouth, theſe are called Tropics, becauſe the ſun appears, when in them, to turn backwards from his former courſe. The one is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, becauſe they paſs through theſe points.

Polar circles.] If two other circles are ſuppoſed to be drawn at the like diſtance of twenty-three degrees, thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, theſe are called the Polar Circles. The *northern* is called the *Arctic*, becauſe the north pole is near the conſtellation of the Bear; the *ſouthern*, the *Antarctic*, becauſe oppoſite to the former. And theſe are the

the *four leſſer circles*. Beſides theſe ten circles now deſcribed, which are always drawn on the globe, there are ſeveral others, which are only ſuppoſed to be drawn on it. Theſe will be explained as they become neceſſary, leſt the reader ſhould be diſguſted with too many definitions at the ſame time, without ſeeing the purpoſe for which they ſerve. The main deſign then of all theſe circles being to exhibit the reſpective ſituation of places on the earth, we ſhall proceed to conſider more particularly how that is effected by them. It was found eaſier to diſtinguiſh places by the quarters of the earth, in which they lay, than by their diſtance from any one point. Thus, after it was diſcovered that the equator divided the earth into two parts, called the Northern and Southern hemiſpheres, it was eaſy to ſee that all places on the globe might be diſtinguiſhed, according as they lay on the north or ſouth ſide of the equator.

ZONES.] After the four leſſer circles we have mentioned, came to be known, it was found that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and conſequently that the places on its ſurface might be diſtinguiſhed according as they lay in one or other of theſe portions, which are called Zones, from the Greek word , which ſignifies a girdle; being broad ſpaces, like ſwaths, girding the earth about.

The *torrid zone* is that portion of the earth between the tropics, and called by the ancients *torrid*, becauſe they conceived, that, being continually expoſed to the perpendicular or direct rays of the ſun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and ſandy deſarts. This notion, however, has long ſince been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almoſt throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but ſo fruitful, that in many places they have two harveſts in a year; all ſorts of ſpices and drugs are almoſt ſolely produced there; and it furniſhes more perfect metals, precious ſtones, and pearls, than all the reſt of the earth together. In ſhort, the countries of Africa, Aſia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all reſpects the moſt fertile and luxuriant upon earth.

The two *temperate zones* are compriſed between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, becauſe, meeting the rays of the ſun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat.

The two *frigid zones* lie between the polar circles and the poles, or rather are incloſed within the polar circles. They are called the Frigid or Frozen, becauſe moſt part of the year it is extremely cold there, and every thing is frozen ſo long as the ſun is under the horizon, or but a little above it. However, theſe zones are not quite uninhabitable, though much leſs fit for living in than the torrid.

None of all theſe zones are thoroughly diſcovered by the Europeans. Our knowledge of the ſouthern temperate zone is very ſcanty; we know little of the northern frigid zone; and ſtill leſs of the ſouthern frigid zone. The northern, temperate, and torrid zones, are thoſe we are beſt acquainted with.

CLIMATE.] But the diviſions of the earth into hemiſpheres and zones, though it may be of advantage in letting us know in what quarter of the earth any place lies, is not ſufficiently minute for giving us a notion of the diſtances between one place and another. This however is ſtill more neceſſary; becauſe it is of more importance to mankind to know the ſituations of places, with regard to one a other, than with regard to the earth itſelf. The firſt ſtep taken for determinnng this matter, was to divide the earth into what are called Climates. It was obſerved, that the day was always twelve hours long

long on the equator, and that the longeſt day increaſed in proportion as we advanced north or ſouth on either ſide of it. The ancients therefore determined how far any place was north or ſouth of the equator, or what is called the *Latitude* of the place, from the greateſt length of the day in that place. This made them conceive a number of circles parallel to the equator, which bounded the length of the day at different diſtances from the equator. And as they called the ſpace contained between theſe circles, Climates, becauſe they declined from the equator towards the pole, ſo the circles themſelves may be called *Climatical Parallels*. This, therefore was a new diviſion of the earth, more minute than that of zones, and ſtill continues in uſe; though, as we ſhall ſhow, the deſign which firſt introduced it may be better anſwered in another way. There are 30 climates between the equator and either pole. In the firſt 24, the days increaſe by half hours: but in the remaining ſix, between the polar circle and the poles, the days increaſe by months. This the reader will be convinced of, when he becomes acquainted with the uſe of the globe: in the mean time, we ſhall inſert a table, which will ſerve to ſhew in what climate any country lies, ſuppoſing the length of the day, and the diſtance of the place from the equator, to be known.

Climate

No.	Latitude D.	M	Breadth. D.	M	Long. D. H.	M	Names of Countries and remarkable places situated in every climate north of the equator.
1	8	25	8	25	12	30	I. Within the first Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coast in Africa; Malacca in the East Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in Terra Firma, S. America.
2	16	25	8		13		II. Here lie Abyssinia in Africa; Siam, Madrass, and Pondicherry in the East Indies; Straits of Darien, between N. and S. America; Tobago, the Granades, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes in the W. Indies.
3	23	50	7	25	13	30	III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal, in the East Indies; Canton in China Mexico, Bay of Campeachy, in North America; Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Martinico, and Guadalupe, in the West-Indies.
4	30	25	6	30	14		IV. Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Delhi capital of the Mogul Empire in Asia; Gulf of Mexico, and East Florida, in North America; the Havanna, in the West-Indies.
5	36	28	6	8	14	30	V. Gibraltar, in Spain, part of the Mediterranean sea; the Barbary coast, in Africa; Jerusalem, Ispahan, capital of Persia; Nankin in China; California, New Mexico, West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.
6	41	22	4	54	15		VI. Lisbon, in Portugal; Madrid in Spain; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece, in the Mediterranean; Asia Minor; part of the Caspian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Pekin, in China; Corea, and Japan; Williamsburgh, in Virginia; Maryland and Philadelpia, in N. America.
7	45	29	4	7	15	30	VII. Northern provinces, of Spain; southern ditto of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome, in Italy; Constantinople, and the Black Sea, in Turkey; the Caspian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York, Boston in New England, North America.
8	49	01	3	32	16		VIII. Paris, Vienna, capital of Germany; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada, in N. America.
9	52	00	2	57	16	30	IX. London, Flanders Prague, Dresden; Cracow in Poland; southern provinces of Russia; part of Tartary: north part of Newfoundland.
10	54	27	2	29	17		X. Dublin, York, Holland, Hanover, and Tartary; Warsaw, in Poland; Labrador, and New South Wales, in North America.
11	56	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moscow cap. of Russia
12	58	29	1	52	18		XII. South part of Sweden; Tobolski cap. of Siberia.
13	59	58	1	29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Isles; Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	61	18	1	20	19		XIV. Bergen in Norway; Petersburgh in Russia.
15	62	25	1	7	19	30	XV. Hudson's Streights, North America.
16	63	22		57	20		XVI. Siberia, and the South part of West Greenland
17	64	06		44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim, in Norway.
18	64	49		43	21		XVIII. Part of Finland in Russia.
19	65	21		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel on the White sea, Russia.
20	65	45		22	22		XX. Hecla, in Iceland.
21	66	06		19	22	30	XXI Northern parts of Russia and Siberia.
22	66	20		14	23		XXII. New North Wales in North America.
23	66	28		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis's straits, in ditto.
24	66	31		3	24		XXIV. Samoieda.
25	67	21			1	Month	XXV. South part of Lapland.
26	69	48			2	Months	XXVI. West-Greenland.
27	73	37			3	Months	XXVII. Zembla Australis.
28	78	30			4	Months	XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84	05			5	Months	XXIX. Spitzbergen or East Greenland.
30	60				6	Months	XXX. Unknown.

LATITUDE.] The distance of places from the equator, or what is called their *Latitude*, is easily measured on the globe, by means of the meridian above described. For we have only to bring the place, whose latitude we would know, to the meridian, where the degree of latitude is marked, and it will be exactly over the place. As latitude is reckoned from the equator towards the poles, it is either northern or southern, and the nearer the poles the greater the latitude; and no place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, because the poles, where they terminate, are at that distance from the equator.

PARALLELS OF LATITUDE.] Through every degree of latitude, or more properly through every particular place on the earth, geographers suppose a circle to be drawn, which they call a parallel of latitude. The intersection of this circle, with the meridian of any place, shews the true situation of that place.

LONGITUDE.] The longitude of a place is its situation with regard to its first meridian, and consequently reckoned towards the east or west; in reckoning the longitude there is no particular spot from which we ought to set out preferably to another, but for the advantage of a general rule, the meridian of Ferro, the most westerly of the Canary Islands, was considered as the first meridian in most of the globes and maps, and the longitude of places was reckoned to be so many degrees east or west of the meridian of Ferro. The modern globes fix the first meridian from which the degrees of longitude are reckoned on the capital city of the different kingdoms where they are made, viz. the English globes date the first meridian from London or Greenwich, the French globes from Paris &c. These degrees are marked on the equator. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be moved from another above half that distance; but many foreign geographers very improperly reckon the longitude quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts in approaching the pole. Hence in 60 degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is but half the quantity of a degree on the equator, and so of the rest. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, are set down in the table, in the following page.

LONGITUDE AND LATITUDE FOUND.] To find the Longitude and Latitude of any place, therefore, we need only bring that place to the brazen meridian, and we shall find the degree of longitude marked on the equator, and the degree of latitude on the meridian. So that to find the difference between the latitude or longitude of two places, we have only to compare the degrees of either, thus found, with one another, and the reduction of these degrees into miles, according to the table above given, and remembering that every degree of longitude at the equator, and every degree of latitude all over the globe, is equal to 60 geographic miles, or 69½ English, we shall be able exactly to determine the distance between any places on the globe.

DISTANCE OF PLACES MEASURED.] The distance of places which lie in an oblique direction, i. e. neither directly south, north, east, nor west, from one another, may be measured in a readier way, by extending the compasses from the one to the other, and then applying them to the equator. For instance, extend the compasses from Guinea in Africa, to Brazil in America, and then apply them to the equator, and you will find the distance to be 25 degrees, which at 60 miles to a degree, makes the distance 1500 miles.

A TABLE

SHEWING

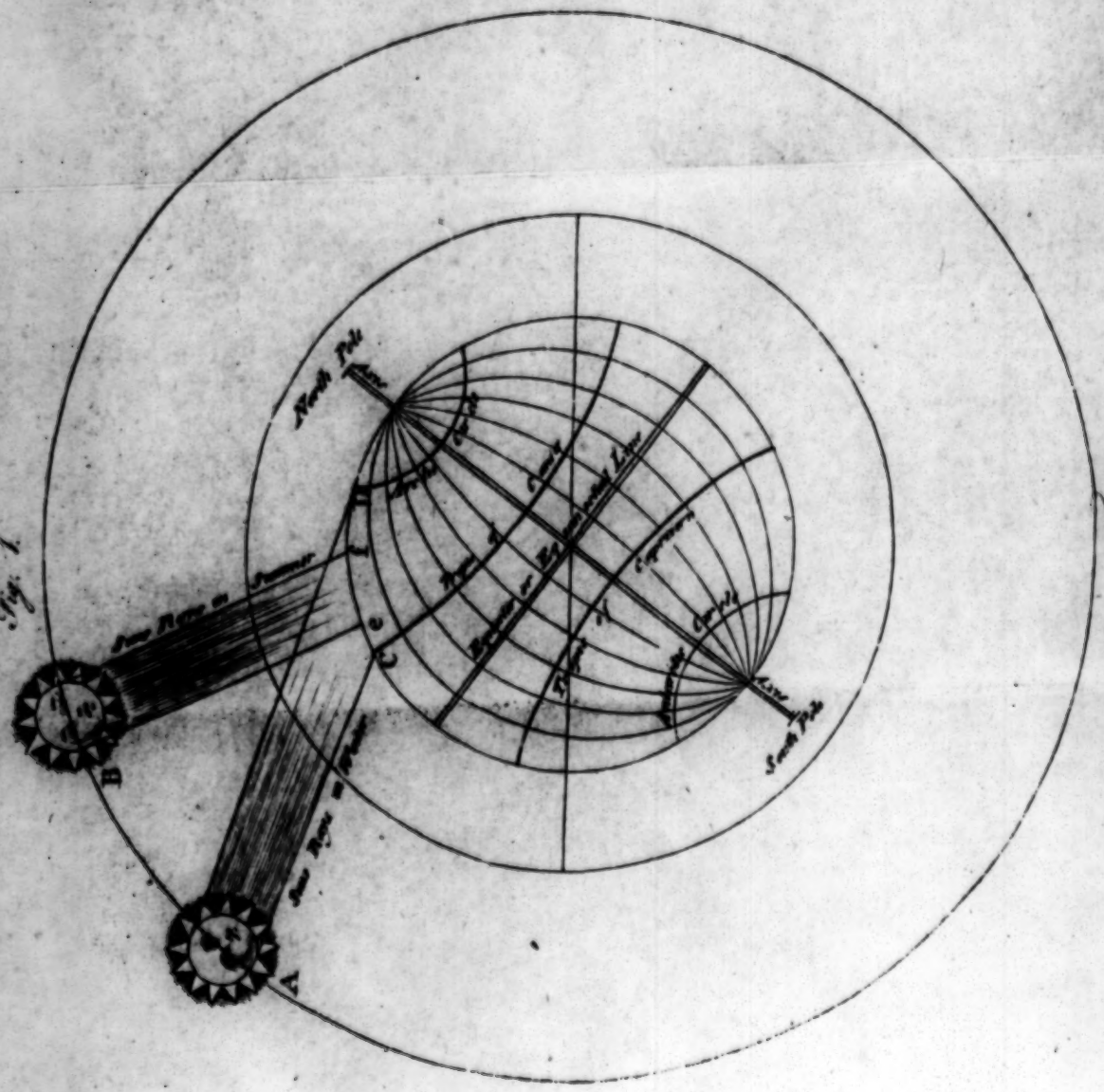
The Number of Miles contained in a degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a mile.
1	59	96
2	59	94
3	59	92
4	59	86
5	59	77
6	59	67
7	59	56
8	59	40
9	59	20
10	59	08
11	58	89
12	58	68
13	58	46
14	58	22
15	58	00
16	57	60
17	57	30
18	57	34
19	56	73
20	56	38
21	56	00
22	55	63
23	55	23
24	54	81
25	54	38
26	54	00
27	53	44
28	53	00
29	52	48
30	51	96
31	51	43
32	50	68
33	50	32
34	49	74
35	49	15
36	48	54
37	47	92
38	47	28
39	46	62
40	46	00
41	45	28
42	44	95
43	43	88
44	43	16
45	42	43
46	41	68
47	41	00
48	40	15
49	39	36
50	38	57
51	37	73
52	37	00
53	36	18
54	35	26
55	34	41
56	33	55
57	32	67
58	31	79
59	30	90
60	30	00
61	29	04
62	28	17
63	27	24
64	26	30
65	25	36
66	24	41
67	23	45
68	22	48
69	21	51
70	20	52
71	19	54
72	18	55
73	17	54
74	16	53
75	15	52
76	14	51
77	13	50
78	12	48
79	11	45
80	10	42
81	09	38
82	08	35
83	07	34
84	06	28
85	05	23
86	04	18
87	03	14
88	02	09
89	01	05
90	00	00

QUADRANT OF ALTITUDE.] In order to supply the place of the compasses in this operation, there is commonly a pliant narrow plate of brass, screwed on the brazen meridian, which contains 90 degrees, or one quarter of the circumference of the globe, by means of which the distances and bearings of places are measured without the trouble of first extending the compasses between them, and then applying the same to the equator. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

Hour


Spring begins 20. of March


North Pole
Axis
Ecliptic
Summer Tropick
Winter Tropick
Equator
Winter Polar Circle
Summer Polar Circle
South Pole
Fig. 1.

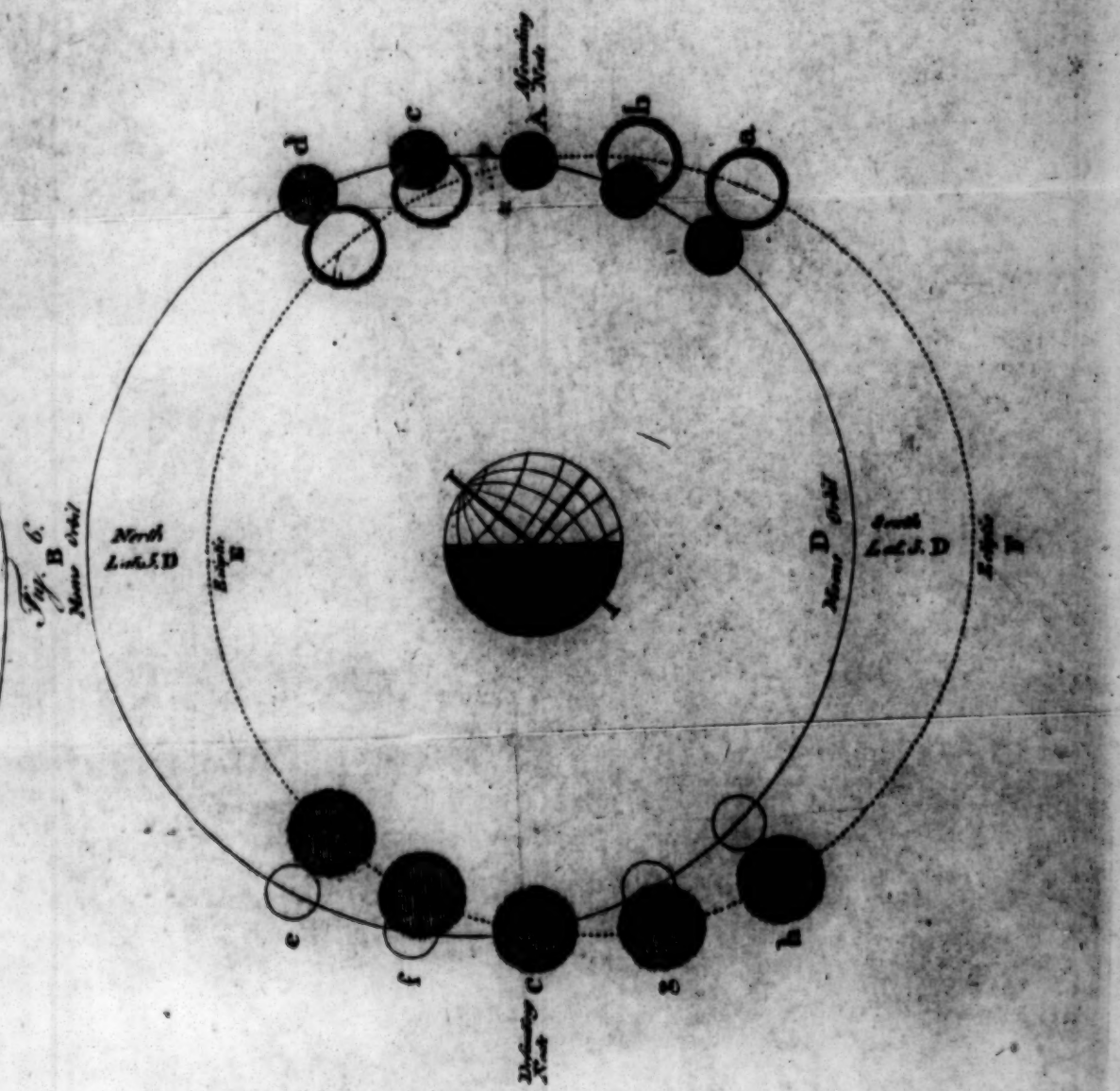

North Lat. of D
South Lat. of D
Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

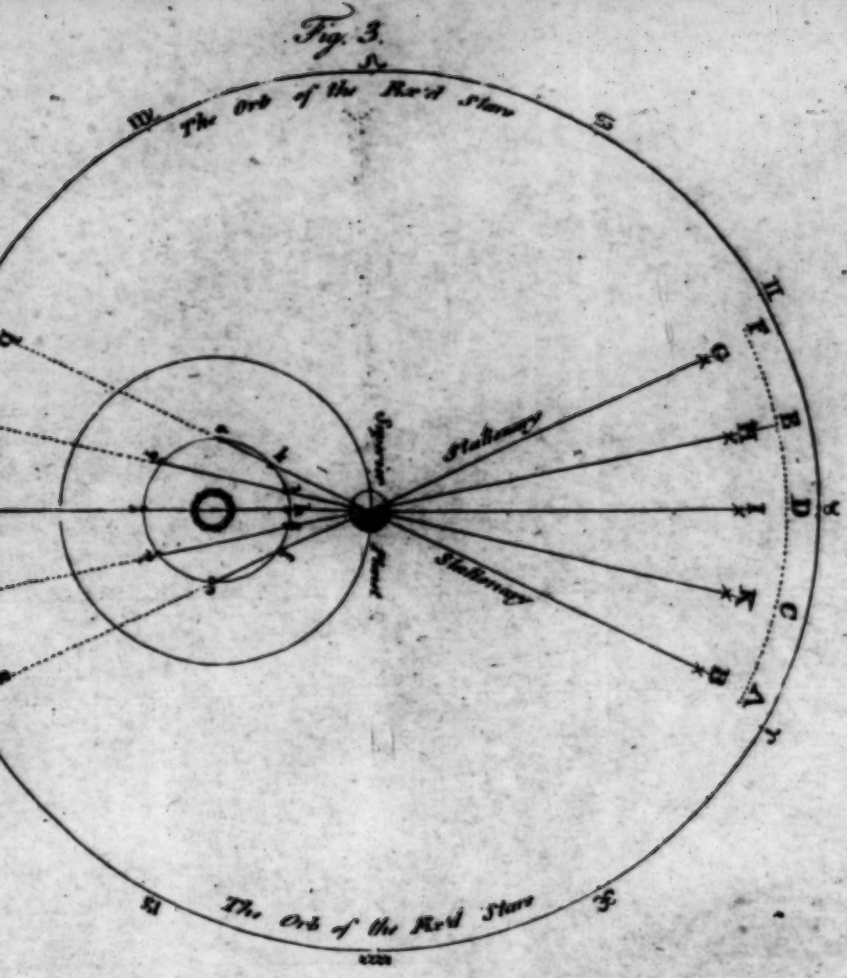
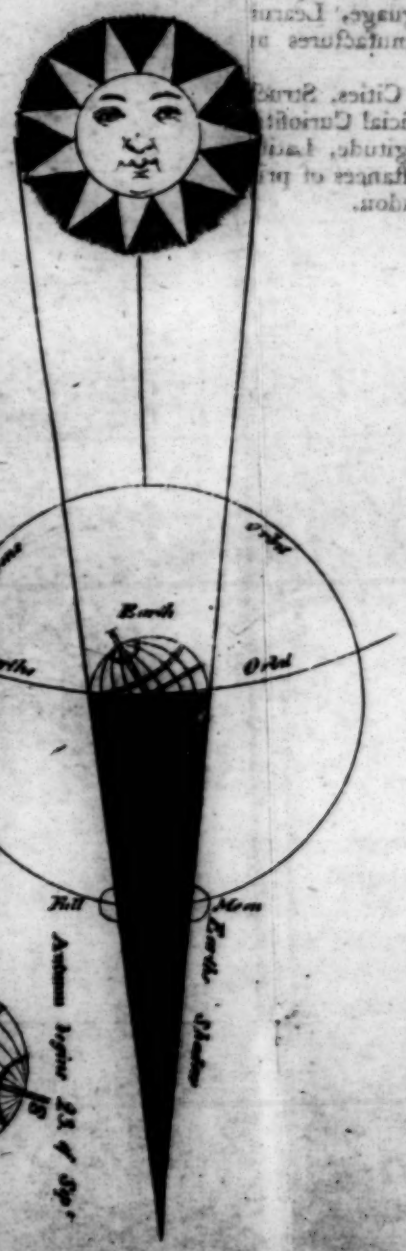


Fig. 2



Fig. 5



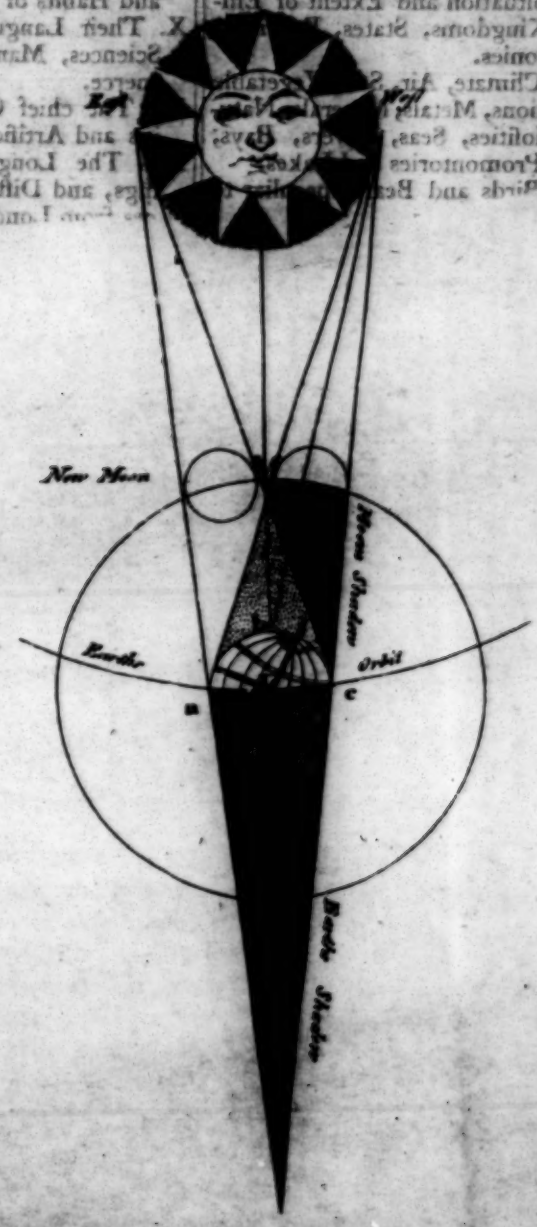
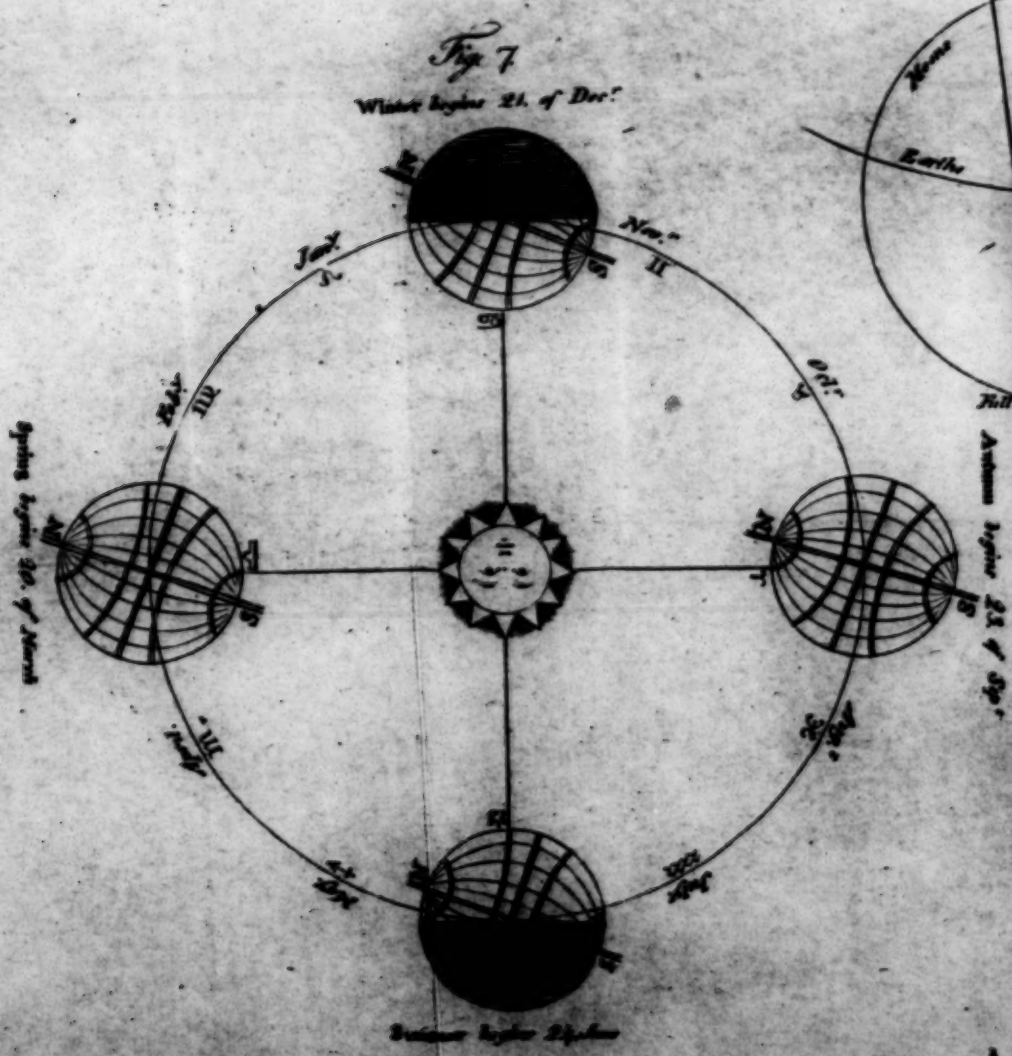


Fig. 7



A NEW

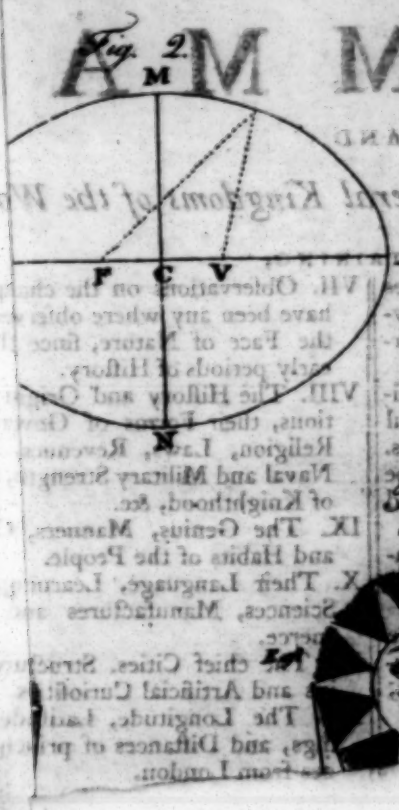
Geographical, Hiſtorical, and Commercial

GRAMMAR,

AND

Preſent State of the Several Kingdoms of the World.

Plate



TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

I. A GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX, with the Names of Places alphabetically arranged. II. A Table of the Coins of all Nations, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY. III. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE of remarkable Events, from the Creation to the preſent Time.

By WILLIAM GUTHRIE, Eſq.

The ASTRONOMICAL PART by JAMES FERGUSON, F.R.S.

TO WHICH HAVE BEEN ADDED,

The late Diſcoveries of Dr. HERSCHEL, and other eminent ASTRONOMERS.

ILLUSTRATED WITH

A CORRECT SET OF MAPS,

Engraved from the moſt recent Obſervations and Draughts of Geographical Travellers.

A NEW EDITION,

The whole corrected with the utmoſt attention, deficiencies in former Editions ſupplied, and the HISTORY of each COUNTRY brought down to the PRESENT DAY.

HOUR CIRCLE.] This is a ſmall braſs circle fixed on the brazen meridian, divided into 24 hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROB. 1. *The diameter of an artificial globe being given, to find its ſurface in ſquare, and its ſolidity in cubic meaſure.*

Multiply the diameter by the circumference, which is a great circle dividing the globe into two equal parts, and the product will give the firſt: then multiply the ſaid product by one ſixth of the diameter, and the product of that will give the ſecond. After the ſame manner we may find the ſurface and ſolidity of the natural globe, as alſo the whole body of the atmoſphere ſurrounding the ſame, provided it be always and every where of the ſame height; for having found the perpendicular height thereof, by the common experiment of the aſcent of Mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, then double the ſaid height, and add the ſame to the diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole, as a new diameter by its proper circumference, and from the product ſubtract the ſolidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmoſphere.

PROB. 2. *To rectify the globe.*

The globe being ſet upon a true plane, raiſe the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and if there be any mariner's compaſs upon the pedeſtal, let the globe be ſo ſituated, as that the brazen meridian may ſtand due ſouth and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing their variation.

PROB. 3. *To find the longitude and latitude of any place.*

For this, ſee page 17.

PROB. 4. *The longitude and latitude of any place being given to find that place on the globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; reckon upon the ſame meridian the degree of latitude, whether ſouth or north, and make a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends; the point exactly under the chalk is the place deſired.

PROB. 5. *The latitude of any place being given, to find all thoſe places that have the ſame latitude.*

The globe being rectified (*a*) according to the latitude of the given place, and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the ſame, and turning the globe round, all thoſe places paſſing under the ſaid mark have the ſame latitude with the given place.

(*a*) PROB. 2.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic at any time.*

The month and day being given, look for the ſame upon the wooden horizon; and over-againſt the day you will find the particular ſign and degree in which the Sun is at that time, which ſign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the ſame is the Sun's place, or nearly, at the time deſired.

PROB. 7. *The month and day being given, as alſo the particular time of that day, to find thoſe places of the globe to which the Sun is in the meridian at that particular time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place, where you are, bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian, and ſetting the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, or where you are, turn the globe till the index point at the upper figure of XII. which done, fix the globe in that ſituation, and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper hemiſphere of the brazen meridian, for thoſe are the places deſired.

PROB. 8. *To know the length of the day and night in any place of the earth at any time.*

Elevate the pole (*a*) according to the latitude of the given
(*a*) PROB. 2. place; find the Sun's place in the ecliptic (*b*) at that time,
(*b*) PROB. 6. which being brought to the eaſt ſide of the horizon, ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure XII. and turning the globe about till the aforeſaid place of the ecliptic touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, look upon the horary circle, and whereſoever the index pointeth, reckon the number of hours between the ſame and the upper figure of 12, for that is the length of the day, the complement whereof to 24 hours is the length of the night.

PROB. 9. *To know what a clock it is by the globe in any part of the world, and at any time, provided you know the hour of the day where you are at the ſame time.*

Bring the place in which you are to the brazen meridian,
(*c*) PROB. 3. the pole being raiſed (*c*) according to the latitude thereof, and ſet the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the deſired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the preſent hour at that place wherever it is.

PROB 10. *A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find thoſe two days of the year in which the Sun ſhall be vertical to the ſame.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and obſerve the two points of the ecliptic that paſs through the ſaid degree of latitude. Search upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the Sun's annual motion) on what days he paſſed through the aforeſaid points of the ecliptic, for thoſe are the days required in which the ſun is vertical to the given place.

PROB. 11. *The month and day being given, to find by the globe thoſe places of the North Frigid Zone, where the Sun then beginneth to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting; as alſo thoſe places of the South Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally abſent.*

The day given, (which muſt always be one of thoſe either between the vernal equinox and the ſummer ſolſtice, or between the
(*d*) PROB. 6. autumnal equinox and winter ſolſtice) find (*d*) the Sun's place in the ecliptic, and marking the ſame, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole towards the equator, as there is between the equator and the Sun's place in the ecliptic, ſetting a mark with chalk where the reckoning ends. This done, turn the globe round, and all the places paſſing under the ſaid chalk are thoſe in which the Sun begins to ſhine conſtantly without ſetting upon the given day. For ſolution of the latter part of the problem, ſet off the ſame diſtance from the ſouth pole upon the brazen meridian towards the equator, as was formerly ſet off from the north; then marking with chalk, and turning the globe round, all places paſſing under the mark are thoſe where the Sun begins his total diſappearance from the given day.

PROB.

PROB. 12. *A place being given in the North Frigid Zone, to find by the globe what number of days the ſun doth conſtantly ſhine upon the ſaid place, and what day he is abſent, as alſo the firſt and laſt day of his appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridiam, and obſerving its latitude, (*a*) elevate the globe accordingly; count the ſame number of degrees upon the meridian from each ſide of the equator as the place is diſtant from the pole; and making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully obſerve what two degrees of the ecliptic paſs exactly under the two points marked in the meridian; firſt for the northern arch of the circle, namely, that comprehended between the two degrees marked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days that the ſun doth conſtantly ſhine above the horizon of the given place; and the oppoſite arch of the ſaid circle will in like manner give the number of days in which he is totally abſent, and alſo will point out which days thoſe are. And in the interval he will riſe and ſet. (*a*) PROB. 2.

PROB. 13. *The month and day being given to find thoſe places on the globe, to which the ſun when in the meridian, ſhall be vertical on that day.*

The ſun's place in the ecliptic being (*b*) found, bring the ſame to the brazen meridian, in which make a ſmall mark with chalk, exactly above the Sun's place. Which done, turn the globe, and thoſe places which have the Sun vertical in the meridian, will ſucceſſively paſs under the ſaid mark. (*b*) PROB. 6

PROB. 14. *The month and day being given, to find upon what point of the compaſs the ſun then riſeth in any place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the deſired place, and finding the Sun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the ſame to the eaſtern ſide of the horizon, and you may there clearly ſee the point of the compaſs upon which he then riſeth. By turning the globe about till his place coincide with the weſtern ſide of the horizon, you may alſo ſee upon the ſaid circle the exact point of his ſetting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the globe the length of the longeſt and ſhorteſt days and nights in any part of the world.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the firſt degree of Cancer, if in the northern, or Capricorn if in the ſouthern hemiſphere, to the eaſt ſide of the horizon; and ſetting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe about till the ſign of Cancer touch the weſtern ſide of the horizon, and then obſerve upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII. reckoning them according to the motion of the index, for that is the length of the longeſt day, the complement wherof is the extent of the ſhorteſt night. As for the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night, they are only the reverſe of the former.

PROB. 16. *The hour of the day being given in any place, to find thoſe places of the earth where it is either noon or midnight, or any other particular hour at the ſame time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn about the globe till the index point at the upper figure of XII. and obſerve what places are exactly under the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, for in them it is mid-

midday at the time given. Which done, turn the globe about till the index point at the lower figure of XII. and what places are then in the lower ſemicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. After the ſame manner we may find thoſe places that have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index point at the hour deſired, and obſerving the places that are then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The day and hour being given, to find by the globe that particular place of the earth to which the Sun is vertical at that very time.*

The Sun's place in the ecliptic *(a)* being found and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the ſame with chalk; then *(b)* find thoſe places of the earth in whoſe meridian the Sun is at that inſtant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, obſerve narrowly that individual part of the earth which falls exactly under the foreſaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the Sun is vertical at that very time.

(a) PROB. 6.

(b) PROB. 16.

PROB. 18. *The day and hour at any place being given, to find all thoſe places where the Sun is then riſing, or ſetting, or on the meridian; conſequently, all thoſe places which are enlightened at that time, and thoſe which are in the dark.*

This problem cannot be ſolved any globe fittted up in the common way, with the hour circle fixed upon the braſs meridian; unleſs the Sun be on or near ſome of the tropics on the given day. But by a globe fitted up according to Mr. Joſeph Harris's invention, where the hour-circle lies on the ſurface of the globe, below the meridian, it may be ſolved for any day in the year, according to his method; which is as follows.

Having found the place to which the Sun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemiſphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon, as are equal to the latitude of that place; if the place be in the ſouthern hemiſpere elevate the ſouth pole accordingly; and bring the ſaid place to the brazen meridian. Then, all thoſe places which are in the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, have the Sun riſing to them at that time; and thoſe in the eaſtern ſemicircle have it ſetting; to thoſe under the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian it is noon; and to thoſe under the lower ſemicircle, it is midnight. All thoſe places which are above the horizon, are enlightened by the Sun, and have the Sun juſt as many degrees above them, as they themſelves are above the horizon; and this height may be known, by fixing the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the Sun is vertical; and then, laying it over any other place, obſerve what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the ſaid place and the horizon. In all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is juſt beginning; in all thoſe places that are 18 degrees below the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all thoſe places that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper ſemicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour index to be ſet to the upper XII or noon, and then the globe be turned round eaſtward on its axis; when the place comes to the weſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-riſing at that place; and when the ſame place comes to the eaſtern ſemicircle of the horizon, the index will ſhew the time of ſun-ſet.

To

To thoſe places which do not go under the horizon, the ſun ſets not on that day: and to thoſe which do not come above it, the Sun does not riſe.

PROB. 19. *The month and day being given, with the place of the Moon in the Zodiac and her true latitude, to find thereby the exact hour when ſhe ſhall riſe and ſet, together with her ſouthing, or coming to the meridian of the place.*

The Moon's place in the zodiac may be found readily enough at any time by an ordinary almanac; and her latitude, which is her diſtance from the ecliptic, by applying the ſemicircle of poſition to her place in the zodiac. For the ſolution of the problem *(a)*, elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and the Sun's place in the ecliptic at that time being *(b)* found and marked with chalk, as alſo the Moon's place at the ſame time, bring the Sun's place to the brazen meridian, and ſet the index of the horary circle at noon, then turn the globe till the Moon's place ſucceſſively meet with the eaſtern and weſtern ſide of the horizon, as alſo the brazen meridian, and the index will point at thoſe various times, the particular hours of her riſing, ſetting and ſouthing.

(a) PROB. 2.

(b) PROB. 6.

PROB. 20. *Two places being given on the globe, to find the true diſtance between them.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will be their true diſtance from each other, reckoning every degree to be 69½ Engliſh miles.

PROB. 21. *A place being given on the globe, and its true diſtance from a ſecond place, to find thereby all other places of the earth that are of the ſame diſtance from the given place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and elevate the pole according to the latitude of the ſaid place; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith, and reckon, upon the ſaid quadrant, the given diſtance between the firſt and ſecond place, provided the ſame be under 90 degrees, otherwiſe you muſt uſe the ſemicircle of poſition, and making a mark where the reckoning ends, and moving the ſaid quadrant or ſemicircle quite round upon the ſurface of the globe, all places paſſing under that mark, are thoſe deſired.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the elevation of the pole above the horizon of that place, and the elevation of the equator is equal to the complement of the latitude, that is, to what the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Thoſe places which lie on the equator, have no latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and thoſe places which lie on the firſt meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Conſequently, *that* particular place of the earth where the firſt meridian interſects the equator has neither longitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth do equally enjoy the benefit of the ſun, in reſpect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that

that is, 12 hours each, at all times of the year. For although the ſun declines alternately, from the equator towards the north and towards the ſouth, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the ſun muſt always continue above the horizon for one half a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the ſun is in the equinoctial: for, in all elevations of the pole, ſhort of 90 degrees (which is the greateſt) one half of the equator or equinoctial will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, but when the ſun enters the ſigns ♈ Aries and ♎ Libra. For in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the ſun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer that any place is to the equator, the leſs is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place; and the more remote, the contrary. The circles which the ſun deſcribes in the heaven every 24 hours, being cut more nearly equal in the former caſe, and more unequally in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or ſhort the day and night be at any of theſe places, at any time of the year, it is then of the ſame length at all the reſt; for in turning the globe round its axis (when rectified according to the ſun's declination) all theſe places will keep equally long above or below the horizon.

9. The ſun is vertical twice a year to every place between the tropics; to thoſe under the tropics, once a year, but never any where elſe. For, there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be two points in the ecliptic, whoſe declination from the equator is equal to the latitude of that place; and but one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and as the ſun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places lying exactly under the polar circles, the ſun, when he is in the neareſt tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without ſetting; becauſe no part of that tropic is below their horizon. And when the ſun is in the fartheſt tropic, he is for the ſame length of time without riſing; becauſe no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But, at all other times of the year, he riſes and ſets there, as in other places; becauſe all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or leſs cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon: and when the ſun is not in either of the tropics, his diurnal courſe muſt be in one or other of theſe circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemiſphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longeſt day and ſhorteſt night is when the ſun is in the northern tropic; and the ſhorteſt day and longeſt night is when the ſun is in the ſouthern tropic; becauſe no circle of the ſun's daily motion is ſo much above the horizon, and ſo little below it, as the northern tropic; and none ſo little above it, and ſo much below it, as the ſouthern. In the ſouthern hemiſphere, the contrary.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the ſun appears for ſome number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without ſetting; and at the

oppoſite time of the year without riſing: becauſe ſome part of the ecliptic never ſets in the former caſe, and as much of the oppoſite part never riſes in the latter. And the nearer unto, or the more remote from the pole theſe places are, the longer or ſhorter is the ſun's continuing preſence or abſence.

13. If a ſhip ſets out from any port, and ſails round the earth eaſtward to the ſame port again, let her take what time ſhe will to do it in, the people in that ſhip, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return or count one day more than thoſe who reſide at the ſame port; becauſe, by going contrary to the ſun's diurnal motion, and being forwarder every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get ſo much the ſooner above the ſetting ſun, than if they had kept for a whole day at any particular place. And thus, by cutting off a part proportionable to their own motion, from the length of every day, they will gain a complete day of that ſort at their return; without gaining one moment of abſolute time more than is elapſed during their courſe, to the people at the port. If they ſail weſtward, they will reckon one day leſs than the people do who reſide at the ſaid port; becauſe, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the ſun, they will keep him each particular day ſo much longer above the horizon, as anſwers to that day's courſe; and thereby they cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without loſing one moment of abſolute time.

Hence, if two ſhips ſhould ſet out at the ſame time from any port, and ſail round the globe, one eaſtward and the other weſtward, ſo as to meet at the ſame port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning their time, at their return. If they ſailed twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then ſix, &c.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

THE conſtituent parts of the Earth are two, the *land* and *water*. The parts of the land are continents, iſlands, peninſulas, iſthmuſes, promontories, capes, coaſts, mountains, &c. This land is divided into two great continents (beſides the iſlands), viz. the *eaſtern* and *weſtern* continent. The eaſtern is ſubdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the north-weſt; Aſia, on the north-eaſt; and Africa (which is joined to Aſia by the iſthmus of Suez, 60 miles over) on the ſouth. The weſtern continent conſiſts of North and South America, joined by the iſthmus of Darien, 60 or 70 miles broad.

A continent is a large portion of land, containing ſeveral countries or kingdoms, without any entire ſeparation of its parts by water, as Europe. An *iſland* is a ſmaller part of land, quite ſurrounded by water, as Great Britain. A *peninſula* is a track of land every where ſurrounded by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece; and that neck of land which ſo joins it, is called an *iſthmus*; as the iſthmus of Suez, which joins Africa to Aſia, and the iſthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America. A *promontory* is a hill, or point of land, ſtretching itſelf into the ſea, the end of which is called a *cape*; as the Cape of Good Hope. A *coaſt* or *ſhore* is that part of a country which borders on the ſea-ſide. Mountains, vallies, woods, deſarts, plains, &c. need no deſcription. The moſt remarkable are taken notice of, and deſcribed in the body of this work.

The parts of the water are oceans, ſeas, lakes, ſtraits, gulfs, bays, or creeks, rivers, &c. The waters are divided into three extenſive oceans (beſides leſſer ſeas, which are only branches of theſe), viz. the *Atlantic* the

Pacific, and the *Indian* Ocean. The Atlantic, or Weſtern Ocean, divides the eaſtern and weſtern continents, and is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Aſia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the Eaſt Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

The *ocean* is a great and ſpacious collection of water without any entire ſeparation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. The *ſea* is a ſmaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A *lake* is a large collection of water, entirely ſurrounded by land; as the lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A *ſtrait* is a narrow part of the ſea, reſtrained or lying between the ſhores, and opening a paſſage out of one ſea into another; as the ſtrait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is ſometimes called a *ſound*; as the ſtrait into the Baltic. A *gulf* is a part of the ſea running up into the land, and ſurrounded by it except at the paſſage whereby it communicates with the ſea or ocean. If a gulf be very large it is called an inland ſea; as the Mediterranean: if it do not go far into the land, it is called a *bay*, as the Bay of Biſcay: if it be very ſmall, a *creek*, *haven*, *ſtation* or *road* for ſhips, as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c. need no deſcription; for theſe leſſer diviſions of water, like theſe of land, are to be met with in moſt countries, and every one has a clear idea of what is meant by them. But in order to ſtrengthen the remembrance of the great parts of the land and water we have deſcribed, it may be proper to obſerve, that there is a ſtrong analogy or reſemblance between them.

The deſcription of a continent reſembles that of an ocean; an iſland encompaſſed with water reſembles a lake encompaſſed with land. A peninſula of land is like a gulf or inland ſea. A promontory or cape of land, is like a bay or creek of the ſea: and an iſthmus, whereby two lands are joined, reſembles a ſtrait, which unites one ſea to another.

To this deſcription of the diviſions of the earth, rather than add an enumeration of the various parts of land and water, which correſpond to them, and which the reader will find in the body of the work, we ſhall ſubjoin a table, exhibiting the ſuperficial content of the whole globe in ſquare miles, ſixty to a degree, and alſo of the ſeas and unknown parts, the habitable earth, the four quarters or continents; likewiſe of the great empires and principal iſlands, which ſhall be placed as they are ſubordinate to one another in magnitude.

The

	Square Miles.
The Globe	148,510,617
Seas and unknown Parts	117,843,811
The Habitable world?	30,666,806
Europe	2,749,349
Asia	10,257,487
Africa	8,506,108
America	9,153,783
Perſian Empire under Darius	1,650,000
Rom. Em. in its utmoſt height	1,610,000
Ruſſian	3,376,483
Chineſe	1,749,000
Great Mogul	1,116,000
Turkiſh	960,057
Britiſh, excluſive of Settlements in Africa and Gibraltar	809,996
Preſent Perſian	800,000

Iſlands.

	Square Miles.
Borneo	238 000
Madagaſcar	168,000
Sumatra	129,000
Japan	118,000
Great Britain	72,916
Celebes	68,400
Manilla	58,500
Iceland	46,000
Terra del Fuego	42,075
Mindinao	39,200
Cuba	38 400
Java	38,250

Iſlands.	Square Miles.
Hiſpaniola	36,000
Newfoundland	33,500
Ceylon	27,730
Ireland	27,457
Formoſa	17,000
Aulan	11,900
Gilolo	10,400
Sicily	9400
Timor	7800
Sardinia	6600
Cyprus	6300
Jamaica	6000
Flores	6030
Ceram	5400
Breton	4000
Socotra	3600
Candia	3220
Porto Rico	3202
Corſica	2320
Zealand	1935
Majorca	1400
St. Jago	1400
Negropont	1300
Teneriff	1272
Gothland	1200
Madeira	950
St. Michael	920

	Square Miles.
Sky	900
Lewis	880
Funen	768
Yvica	625
Minorca	520
Rhodes	480
Cephalonia	410
Amboyna	400
Orkney Pomona	314
Scio	300
Martinico	260
Lemnos	220
Corfu	194
Providence	168
Man	160
Bornholm	160
Wight	150
Malta	150
Barbadoes	140
Zant	120
Aurigna	100
St. Chriſtopher's	80
St. Helena	80
Guernſey	50
Jerſey	43
Bermudas	40
Rhode	36

To theſe iſlands may be added the following, which have lately been diſcovered, or more fully explored. The exact dimenſions of them are not aſcertained; but they may be arranged in the following order, according to their magnitude, beginning at the largeſt, which is ſuppoſed to be nearly equal in ſize to the whole continent of Europe.

New Holland,
New Guinea,
New Zealand,
New Caledonia,
New Hebrides,
Otaheite or King George's iſland,
Friendly Iſlands,
Marqueſas,
Eaſter, or Davis's iſland.

* The number of inhabitants computed at preſent to be in the known world at a medium taken from the beſt calculations, are about 953 millions.

Europe contains	—	153 Millions
Aſia	—	500
Africa	—	150
America	—	150
	Total	953

WINDS AND TIDES.] We cannot finiſh the doctrine of the earth, without conſidering Winds and Tides, from which the changes that happen on its ſurface principally ariſe.

WINDS.] The earth on which we live is every where ſurrounded by a fine inviſible fluid, which extends to ſeveral miles above its ſurface, and is called *Air*. It is found by experiments, that a ſmall quantity of air is capable of being expanded, ſo as to fill a very large ſpace, or to be compreſſed into a much ſmaller compaſs than it occupied before. The general cauſe of the expanſion of the air is heat; the general cauſe of its compreſſion is cold. Hence if any part of the air or atmoſphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion, and expanded or compreſſed. But when it is put in motion, we call it *wind* in general; and a breeze, gale, [illegible] according to the quickneſs or velocity of that motion

motion. Winds, therefore, which are commonly conſidered as things extremely variable and uncertain depend on a general cauſe, and act with more or leſs uniformity in proportion as the action of this cauſe is more or leſs conſtant. It is found by obſervations made at ſea, that from thirty degrees north latitude, to thirty degrees ſouth, there is a conſtant eaſt wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and called the *Trade Wind*. This is occaſioned by the action of the ſun, which in moving from eaſt to Weſt, heats, and conſequently expands the air immediately under him; by which means a ſtream or tide of air, always accompanies him in his courſe, and occaſions a perpetual eaſt wind within theſe limits. This general cauſe however is modified by a number of particulars; the explication of which would be too tedious and complicated for our preſent plan; which is to mention facts rather than theories.

The winds called the *Tropical Winds*, which blow from ſome particular point of the compaſs without much variation, are of three kinds: 1. The *General Trade Winds*, which extend to near thirty degrees of latitude on each ſide of the equator in the Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Pacific ſeas. 2 The *Monſoons*, or ſhifting trade-winds, which blow ſix months in one direction, and the other ſix months in the oppoſite direction. Theſe are moſtly in the Indian, or Eaſtern Ocean, and do not extend above two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinox, and it is accompanied with terrible ſtorms of thunder, lightning, and rain. 3. The *Sea* and *Land Breezes*, which are another kind of periodical winds that blow from the land from midnight to mid-day, and from the ſea from about noon till midnight: theſe, however, do not extend above two or three leagues from ſhore. Near the coaſt of Guinea in Africa, the wind blows nearly always from the weſt, ſouth-weſt, or ſouth. On the coaſt of Peru in South America, the winds blow conſtantly from the ſouth weſt. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and ſouth, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the weſt than any other point. Between the ſouth and tenth degree of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and the eaſternmoſt of the Cape Verd Iſlands, there is a tract of ſea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and ſuch rains, that this ſea has acquired the name of *the Rains*.

It may be alſo uſeful to ſtudents in navigation and geography to obſerve farther, that the courſe or latitude our ſhips generally keep in their paſſage from England to America and the Weſt Indies, is,

To Boſton in New England, and Halifax in Nova Scotia, from 42 to 43 degrees.

To New York by the Azores or Weſtern Iſlands, 39 degrees.

To Carolina and Virginia by Madeira, which is called the upper courſe, 32 degrees: but the uſual courſe, to take advantage of the trade-winds, is from 16 to 23 degrees: and in this courſe they frequently touch at Antigua: it is this courſe our Weſt India ſhips ſail in.

The Spaniſh galleons and the flota from Spain keep from 15 to 18 degrees; and in their return to Spain about 37 degrees.

TIDES.] By the *tides* are meant that regular motion of the ſea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty four hours. The doctrine of the tides remained in obſcurity, till the immortal Sir Iſaac Newton explained it by his great principle of gravity or attraction. For having demonſtrated that there is a principle in all bodies, within the ſolar ſyſtem, by which they mutually draw, or attract one another, in proportion to their diſtance; it follows, that thoſe parts of the ſea which are immediately

bottom below

below the moon, muſt be drawn towards it; and conſequently, wherever the moon is nearly vertical, the ſea will be raiſed, which occaſions the flowing of the tide there. A ſimilar reaſon occaſions the flowing of the tide likewiſe in thoſe places where the moon is in the nadir, and which muſt be diametrically oppoſite to the former: for in the hemiſphere fartheſt from the moon, the parts in the nadir being leſs attracted by her than the other parts which are nearer to her, gravitate leſs towards the earth's centre, and conſequently muſt be higher than the reſt. Thoſe parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for as the waters in the zenith and nadir riſe at the ſame time, the waters in their neighbourhood will preſs towards thoſe places to maintain the equilibrium; to ſupply the places of theſe, others will move the ſame way, and ſo on to the places ninety degrees diſtant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be loweſt. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we ſhall be ſenſible of the reaſon why the tides ebb and flow twice in twenty-four hours, in every place on this globe.

The tides are higher than ordinary, twice every month, that is, about the times of new and full moon, and are called *Spring Tides*: for at theſe times the actions of both the ſun and moon are united, and draw in the ſame ſtraight line, and conſequently the ſea muſt be more elevated. At the conjunction, or when the ſun and moon are on the ſame ſide of the earth, they both conſpire to raiſe the waters in the zenith, and conſequently in the nadir; and at the oppoſition, or when the earth is between the ſun and moon, while one occaſions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the ſame. The tides are leſs than ordinary twice every month, about the firſt and laſt quarters of the moon, and are called *Neap Tides*: for in the quarters, the ſun raiſes the waters where the moon depreſſes them, and depreſſes where the moon raiſes them: ſo that the tides are only occaſioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is neareſt us, prevails over that of the ſun. Theſe things would happen uniformly, were the whole ſurface of the earth covered with water; but ſince there are a multitude of iſlands, and continents which interrupt the natural courſe of the water, a variety of appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without regarding the ſituation of ſhores, ſtraits, and other objects which have ſhare in producing them.

Currents.] There are frequently ſtreams or currents in the Ocean, which ſet ſhips a great way beyond their intended courſe. There is a current between Florida and the Bahama Iſlands, which always runs from north to ſouth. A current runs conſtantly from the Atlantic, through the ſtraits of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean. A current ſets out of the Baltic ſea, through the ſound or ſtrait between Sweden and Denmark, into the Britiſh channel, ſo that there are no tides in the Baltic. About ſmall iſlands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean, the tides riſe very little; but in ſome bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they riſe from 12 to 50 feet.

Maps.] A map is the repreſentation of the earth, or a part thereof, on a plane ſurface. Maps differ from the globe in the ſame manner as a picture does from a ſtatue. The globe truly repreſents the earth; but a map, no more than a plane ſurface, can repreſent one that is ſpherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet, by means of ſeveral of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the repreſentation will not fall very much ſhort of the globe for ex-

actneſs

actneſs; becauſe ſuch maps, if joined together, would form a ſpherical convex nearly as round as the globe itſelf.

CARDINAL POINTS.] The north is conſidered as the upper part of the map; the ſouth is at the bottom, oppoſite to the north; the eaſt is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the weſt on the left hand oppoſite to the eaſt. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude:* and from ſide to ſide, *parallels of latitude.* The outermoſt of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the ſcale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the ſituation, diſtance, &c. of places, may be found as on the artificial globe. Thus, to find the diſtance of two places, ſuppoſe London and Paris, by the map, we have only to meaſure the ſpace between them with the compaſſes, or a bit of thread, and to apply this diſtance to the ſcale of miles, which ſhews that London is 210 miles diſtant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or ſouth, eaſt or weſt, from one another, we have only to obſerve the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by turning theſe into miles, we obtain the diſtance without meaſuring. Rivers are deſcribed in maps by black lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head of the ſpring. Mountains are ſketched on maps as on a picture. Foreſts and woods are repreſented by a kind of ſhrub; bogs and moraſſes, by ſhades; ſands and ſhallows are deſcribed by ſmall dots; and roads uſually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expreſſed by figures repreſenting fathoms.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.] There is ſcarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this ſort of meaſure, not only thoſe of ſeparate countries differ, as the French from the Engliſh, but thoſe of the ſame country vary, in the different provinces, and all commonly from the ſtandard. Thus the common Engliſh mile differs from the ſtatute mile; and the French have three ſorts of leagues. We ſhall here give the miles of ſeveral countries compared with the Engliſh, by Dr. Halley.

The Engliſh ſtatute mile conſiſts of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.
The Ruſſian verſt is little more than ¼ Engliſh.
The Turkiſh, Italian, and old Roman leſſer mile, is nearly one Engliſh.
The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about 1¼ Engliſh.
The Scotch and Iriſh mile is about 1¼ Engliſh.
The Indian is almoſt 3 Engliſh.
The Dutch, Spaniſh, and Poliſh, is about 3¾ Engliſh.
The German is more than 4 Engliſh.
The Swediſh, Daniſh, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 Engliſh.
The French common league is near 3 Engliſh; and
The Engliſh marine league is 3 Engliſh miles.

PART II.

OF THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

HAVING, in the following work mentioned the ancient names of countries, and even ſometimes, in ſpeaking of theſe countries, carried our reſearches beyond modern times; it was thought neceſſary, in order to prepare the reader for entering upon the particular hiſtory of each country we deſcribe, to place before his eye a general view of the hiſtory of mankind, from the firſt ages of the world to the reformation in religion during the 16th century

century. By a history of the world, we do not mean a mere list of dates, which, when taken by itself, is a thing extremely insignificant; but an account of the most interesting and important events which have happened among mankind; with the causes which have produced, and the effects which have followed from them. This we judge to be a matter of high importance in itself, and indispensibly requisite to the understanding of the present state of commerce, government, arts, and manners, in any particular country; which may be called commercial and political geography, and which, undoubtedly, constitutes the most useful branch of that science.

The great event of the creation of the world, before which there was neither matter nor form of any thing, is placed, according to the best chronologers in the years before Christ 4004; and in the 710th year of what is called the Julian period, which hath been adopted by some chronologers and historians, but is of little real service. The sacred records have fully determined the question, that the world was not eternal, and also ascertained the time of its creation with great precision *.

It appears in general, from the first chapters in Genesis, that the world, before the flood, was extremely populous; that mankind had made considerable improvement in the arts, and were become extremely vicious, both in their sentiments and manners. Their wickedness gave occasion to a memorable catastrophe, by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were swept from off the face of the earth. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and produced a very considerable change on the soil and atmosphere of this globe, and gave them a form less friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. Hence the abridgment of the life of man, and that formidable train of diseases which had ever since made such havock in the world. A curious part of history follows that of the deluge, the re-peopling of the world, and the rising of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three sons of Noah, the first founders of nations, was long preserved among their several descendants. Japhet continued famous among the western nations, under the celebrated name of Japetus; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation some centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beasts; and the great heroism of those times consisted in destroying them. Hence Nimrod acquired immortal renown; and by the admiration which his courage and dexterity universally excited, was enabled to acquire an authority over his fellow-creatures, and to found at Babylon the first monarchy, whose origin is particularly mentioned in history. Not long after the foundation of Nineveh was laid by Assur; in Egypt the four governments of Thebes. Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. That these events should have happened so soon after the deluge, whatever surprize it may have occasioned to the learned some centuries ago, need not in the smallest degree excite the wonder of the present age. We have seen from many instances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how speedily mankind increase, when the generative faculty lies under no restraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extensive than those of Babylon, Nineveh,

Before Christ 2348.

B. C. 2241.

* The Samaritan copy of the Bible makes the antediluvian period only 1307 years, 359 short of the Hebrew Bible computation; and the Septuagint copy stretches it to 2262 years, which is 606 years exceeding it; but the Hebrew chronology is generally acknowledged to be of superior authority.

and

and Egypt, during this early age; and yet these kingdoms are not supposed to have existed four centuries before the discovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to separate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obscured. This occasioned the calling of Abraham to be the father of a chosen people. From this period the history of ancient nations begins a little to expand itself; and we learn several particulars of very considerable importance.

B. C. 1921.*

Mankind had not long been united into societies before they set themselves to oppress and destroy one another. Chederlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Persians, was already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, must not have been very considerable, since, in one of these expeditions, Abraham, assisted only by his household, set upon him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the spoil that had been taken. Abraham was soon after obliged by a famine to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to settle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gives occasion to Moses to mention some particulars with regard to the Egyptians, and every stroke discovers the characters of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is described in the most brilliant colours. He is surrounded with a crowd of courtiers, solely occupied in gratifying his passions. The particular governments into which this country was divided, are now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, is become the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however to imagine that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been so justly admired for their wisdom, were the work of this early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many successive princes, who laboured for their establishment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the first principles of civil order and regular government seem to have been tolerably understood among the Egyptians. This country was divided into several districts or separate departments; councils, composed of experienced and select persons, were established for the management of public affairs; granaries for preserving corn were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in this age enjoyed a commerce far from inconsiderable. These facts, though of an ancient date, deserve our particular attention. It is from the Egyptians, that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks; the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements both in the arts of peace and war; and to the Romans, the present inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civility and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained separate for several centuries; but we know not even the names of the kings who governed them, unless it be Ninus, the successor of Assur, who, fired with the spirit of conquest, extends the bounds of his kingdom, adds Babylon to his dominions and lays the foundation of that monarchy, assisted by his enterprising successor Semiramis, which, under the name of the Assyrian empire, kept Asia under the yoke for many ages.

Javan, son of Japhet, and grand-son of Noah, is the stock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks are descended. Javan established himself in the islands in the western coast of Asia Minor, from whence

* According to Dr. Playfair's Chronological Tables, the birth of Abraham is fixed at before Christ 2060, and his being called out of Ur, at 1986.

below

it was impoſſible that ſome wanderers ſhould not paſs over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon near Corinth, founded by the Pelaſgi, is generally ſuppoſed to have commenced in the year before Chriſt 1090. To theſe firſt inhabitants ſucceed a colony from Egypt, who about 2000 years before the Chriſtian æra, penetrated into Greece, and, under the name of Titans, endeavoured to eſtabliſh monarchy in this country, and to introduce into it the laws and civil policy of the Egyptians. But the empire of the Titans was ſoon diſſolved; and the ancient Greeks, who ſeem at this time to be as rude and barbarous as any people in the world, again fell back into their lawleſs and ſavage manner of life. Several colonies, however, ſoon after paſſed over from Aſia into Greece, and by remaining in that country, produced a more conſiderable alteration in the manner of its inhabitants. The moſt ancient of theſe were the colonies of Inachus and Ogyges; of whom the former ſettled in Argos and the latter in Attica. We know very little of Ogyges or his ſucceſſors. Thoſe of Inachus endeavoured to unite the diſperſed and wandering Greeks; and their endeavours for this purpoſe were not altogether unſucceſsful.

B. C. 1850.

But the hiſtory of God's choſen people, the Iſraelites, is the only one with which we are much acquainted during thoſe ages. The train of curious events which occaſioned the ſettling of Jacob and his family in that part of Egypt, of which Tanis was the capital, are univerſally known. That patriarch died, according to the Septuagint verſion, 1794 years before Chriſt, but according to the Hebrew Chronology, only 1689 years, and in the year of the world 2315. This is a remarkable æra with reſpect to the nations of heathen antiquity, and concludes that period of time which the Greeks conſidered as altogether unknown, and which they have greatly diſfigured by their fabulous narrations. Let us regard this period then in another point of view, and conſider what we can learn from the ſacred writings, with reſpect to the arts, manners, and laws of ancient nations.

B. C. 1689.

It is a common error among writers on this ſubject, to conſider all the nations of antiquity as being on the ſame footing with regard to thoſe matters. They find ſome nations extremely rude and barbarous, and hence they conclude, that all were in that ſituation. They diſcover others acquainted with many arts, and hence they infer the wiſdom of the firſt ages. There appears, however, to have been as much difference between the inhabitants of the ancient world, in point of art and refinement, as between the civilized kingdoms of modern Europe and the Indians in America, or the Negroes on the coaſt of Africa. Noah was undoubtedly acquainted with all the arts of the antediluvian world: theſe he would communicate to his children, and they again would hand them down to their poſterity. Thoſe nations, therefore, who ſettled neareſt the original ſeat of mankind, and who had the beſt opportunities to avail themſelves of the knowledge which their great anceſtor was poſſeſſed of, early formed themſelves into regular ſocieties, and made conſiderable improvements in the arts which are moſt ſubſervient to human life. Agriculture appears to have been known in the firſt ages of the world. Noah cultivated the vine; in the time of Jacob, the fig-tree and the almond were well known in the land of Canaan; and the inſtruments of huſbandry, long before the diſcovery of them in Greece, are often mentioned in the ſacred writings. It is hardly to be ſuppoſed, that the ancient cities, both in Aſia and in Egypt, whoſe foundation, as we have already mentioned, aſcends to the remoteſt antiquity, could have been built, unleſs the culture of the ground had been practiſed at that time. Nations who live by hunting

or paſturage only, lead a wandering life, and ſeldom fix their reſidence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture: and though we cannot trace the ſteps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached paſſages in ſacred writ, aſcertain the progreſs which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know from the hiſtory of civil ſociety, that the commercial intercourſe between men muſt be pretty conſiderable, before the metals came to be conſidered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the caſe even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which eſtabliſh this fact, that the uſe of money had not been of ancient date; it had no mark to aſcertain its weight or fineneſs; and in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave ſilver, the metal is weighed in preſence of all the people. But as commerce improved, and bargains of this ſort became more common, this practice was laid aſide, and the quantity of ſilver was aſcertained by a particular mark, which ſaved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place till the time of Jacob, the ſecond from Abraham. The *reſilah*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, ſtamped with the figure of the lamb, and of a preciſe and ſtated value. It appears from the hiſtory of Joſeph, that the commerce between different nations was by this time regularly carried on. The Iſhmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, reſembling the modern caravans, who carried ſpices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. The ſame obſervation may be made from the book of Job, who, according to the beſt writers, was a native of Arabia Felix, and alſo a contemporary with Jacob. He ſpeaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, i. e. of the caravans which ſet out from thoſe cities of Arabia. If we reflect, that the commodities of this country were rather the luxuries than the conveniencies of life, we ſhall have reaſon to conclude, that the countries into which they were ſent for ſale, and particularly Egypt, were conſiderably improved in arts and refinement: for people do not think of luxuries, until the uſeful arts have made high advancement among them.

In ſpeaking of commerce, we ought carefully to diſtinguiſh between the ſpecies of it, which is carried on by land or inland commerce, and that which is carried on by ſea: which laſt kind of traffic is both later in its origin, and ſlower in its progreſs. Had the deſcendants of Noah been left to their own ingenuity, and received no tincture of the antediluvian knowledge from their wiſe anceſtors, it is improbable that they ſhould have ventured on navigating the open ſeas ſo ſoon as we find they did. That branch of his poſterity, who ſettled on the coaſts of Paleſtine, were the firſt people of the world among whom navigation was made ſubſervient to commerce: they were diſtinguiſhed by a word, which in the Hebrew tongue ſignifies *merchants*, and are the ſame nation afterwards known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful ſoil, they ſet themſelves to better their ſituation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their capital object: and with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they paſs for the inventors of whatever is ſubſervient to it. At the time of Abraham they were regarded as a powerful nation; their maritime commerce is mentioned by Jacob in his laſt words to his children; and, if we may believe Herodotus in a matter of ſuch remote antiquity, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coaſts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, ſuppoſe the knowledge of ſeveral others; aſtronomy, for inſtance, or a knowledge of the ſituation and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, is neceſſary both to agriculture and naviga-

navigation; that of working metals, to commerce; and ſo of other arts. In fact, we find that before the death of Jacob, ſeveral nations were ſo well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to meaſure by them the duration of their year. It had been an univerſal cuſtom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time in the portion of a week, or ſeven days: this undoubtedly aroſe from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for thoſe nations who led a paſtoral life, or who lived under a ſerene ſky, to obſerve that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks; hence the diviſion of a month. Thoſe people again who lived by agriculture, and who had gotten among them the diviſion of the month, would naturally remark, that twelve of theſe brought back the ſame temperature of the air, or the ſame ſeaſons; hence the origin of what is called the *lunar year*, which has every where taken place in the infancy of ſcience. This, together with the obſervation of the fixed ſtars, which, as we learn from the book of Job, muſt have been very ancient, naturally paved the way for the diſcovery of the *ſolar year*, which at that time would be thought an immenſe improvement in aſtronomy. But with regard to thoſe branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered, that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Aſia. Europe offers a frightful ſpectacle during this period. Who could believe that the Greeks, who in later ages became the patterns of politeneſs and every elegant art, were deſcended from a ſavage race of men, traverſing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a wretched prey to wild animals, and ſometimes to one another! This, however, is no more than what was to be expected. Thoſe deſcendants of Noah, who had removed to a great diſtance from the plains of Shinar, loſt all connection with the civilized part of mankind. Their poſterity became ſtill more ignorant; and the human mind was at length ſunk into an abyſs of miſery and wretchedneſs.

We might naturally expect, that from the death of Jacob, and as we advance forward in time, the hiſtory of the great empires of Egypt and Aſſyria would emerge from their obſcurity. This, however, is far from being the caſe: we only get a glimpſe of them, and they diſappear entirely for many ages. After the reign of Ninias, who ſucceeded Semiramis and Ninus in the Aſſyrian throne, we find an aſtoniſhing blank in the hiſtory of this empire, for no leſs than eight hundred years. The ſilence of ancient hiſtory on this ſubject, is commonly attributed to the ſoftneſs and effeminacy of the ſucceſſors of Ninus, whoſe lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the hiſtorian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wiſe princes paſs unobſerved and unrecorded. Seſoſtris, a prince of wonderful abilities, is ſuppoſed to have mounted the throne of Egypt, after Amenophis, who was ſwallowed up in the Red Sea about the year before Chriſt 1492; by his aſſiduity and attention, the civil and military eſtabliſhments of the Egyptians received very conſiderable improvements. Egypt, in the time of Seſoſtris, and his immediate ſucceſſors, was, in all probability, the moſt powerful kingdom upon earth, and, according to the beſt calculation, is ſuppoſed to have contained twenty-ſeven millions of inhabitants. But ancient hiſtory often excites, without gratifying our curioſity; for, from the reign of Seſoſtris to that of Bocchoris, in the year before Chriſt 1781, we have little knowledge of even the name of the intermediate princes. If we judge, however, from collateral circumſtances, the country muſt ſtill have continued in a very flouriſhing condition; for Egypt continued to pour forth her colonies into diſtant nations. Athens, that ſeat of learning and politeneſs, that ſchool for all who aſpire after wiſdom, owes its founda- B. C. 1556.

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tion to Cecrops, who landed in Greece with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilize the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the inſtitutions which Cecrops eſtabliſhed among the Athenians, it is eaſy to infer in what ſituations they muſt have lived before his arrival. The laws of marriage, which few nations are ſo barbarous as to be altogether unacquainted with, were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beaſts of the field, were propagated by accidental rencounters, and with little knowledge of thoſe to whom they owed their generation. Cranaus, who ſucceeded Cecrops in
B the kingdom of Attica, purſued the ſame beneficial plan, and endea-
156 voured by wiſe inſtitutions, to bridle the keen paſſions of a rude people.

Whilſt theſe princes uſed their endeavours for civilizing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms, into which this country, by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers, is divided, and which had been already peopled by colonies from Egypt and the Eaſt, began to aſſume ſome appear-
B ance of form and regularity. This engaged Amphictyon, one of
1406 thoſe uncommon geniuſes who appear in the world, for the benefit of the age in which they live, and the admiration of poſterity, to think of ſome expedient by which he might unite in one plan of politics the ſeveral independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby deliver them from thoſe inteſtine diviſions, which muſt render them a prey to one another, or to the firſt enemy who might think proper to invade them. Theſe reflections he communicated to the kings, or leaders of the different territories; and by his eloquence and addreſs engaged twelve cities to unite together for their mutual preſervation. Two deputies from each of theſe cities aſſembled twice a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic council. In this aſſembly, whatever related to the general intereſt of the confederacy, was diſcuſſed and finally determined. Amphictyon likewiſe, ſenſible that thoſe political connections are the moſt laſting which are ſtrengthened by religion, committed to the Amphictyons the care of the temple at Delphi, and of the riches which, from the dedications of thoſe who conſulted the oracle, had been amaſſed in it. This aſſembly, conſtituted on ſuch ſolid foundations, was the great ſpring of action in Greece, while that country preſerved its independence; and, by the union which it inſpired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties againſt all the force of the Perſian empire. Conſidering the circumſtances of the age in which it was inſtituted, the Amphictyonic council is perhaps the moſt remarkable political eſtabliſhment which ever took place among mankind. In the year before Chriſt 1322 the Iſthmian games were inſtituted at Corinth; and in 1303 the famous Olympic games by Pelops; which games, together with the Pythian, and Nemean, have been rendered immortal by the genius of Pindar.

The Greek ſtates, who formerly had no connection with one another, except by mutual inroads and hoſtilities, ſoon began to act with concert, and to undertake diſtant expeditions for the general intereſt of the community. The firſt of theſe was the obſcure expedition of the Argonauts, in which all Greece
B. C. appears to have been concerned. The object of the Argonauts was to
1263 open the commerce of the Euxine ſea, and to eſtabliſh colonies in the adjacent country of Colchis. The ſhip Argo, which was the admiral of the fleet, is the only one particularly taken notice of; though we learn from Homer, and other ancient writers, that ſeveral ſail were employed in this expedition. The fleet of the Argonauts was, from the ignorance of thoſe who conducted it, long toſſed about on different coaſts. The rocks, at ſome diſtance, from the mouth of the Euxine ſea, occaſioned great labour: they

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ſent forward a light veſſel, which paſſed through, but returned with the loſs of her rudder. This is expreſſed in the fabulous language of antiquity, by their ſending out a bird which returned with the loſs of its tail, and may give us an idea of the allegorical obſcurity in which the the other events of this expedition are involved. The fleet, however, at length arrived at Eon, the capital of Colchis, after performing a voyage, which, conſidering the mean condition of the naval art during this age, was not leſs conſiderable than the circumnavigation of the world by our modern diſcoverers. From this expedition to that againſt Troy, which was undertaken to recover the fair Helena, a queen of Sparta, who had been carried off by Paris, ſon of the Trojan king, the Greeks muſt have made a wonderful progreſs in power and opulence: no leſs than twelve hundred veſſels were employed in this voyage, each of which, at a medium, contained upwards of a hundred men. Theſe veſſels, however, were but half-decked; and it does not appear that iron entered at all into their conſtruction. If we add to theſe circumſtances, that the Greeks had not the uſe of the ſaw, an inſtrument ſo neceſſary to the carpenter, a modern muſt form but a mean notion of the ſtrength or elegance of this fleet. B. C. 1184.

Having thus conſidered the ſtate of Greece as a whole, let us examine the circumſtances of the particular countries into which it was divided. This is of great importance to our preſent undertaking, becauſe it is in this country only that we can trace the origin and progreſs of government, arts, and manners, which compoſe ſo great a part of our preſent work. There appears originally to have been a very remarkable reſemblance between the political ſituation of the different kingdoms of Greece. They were governed each by a king, or rather by a chieftain, who was their leader in time of war, their judge in time of peace, and who preſided in the adminiſtration of their religious ceremonies. This prince, however, was far from being abſolute. In each ſociety there were a number of other leaders, whoſe influence over their particular clans, or tribes, was not leſs conſiderable than that of the king over his immediate followers. Theſe captains were often at war with one another, and ſometimes with their ſovereign. Such a ſituation was, in all reſpects, extremely unfavourable: each particular ſtate was, in miniature, what the whole country had been before the time of Amphictyon. They required the hand of another delicate painter to ſhade the oppoſite colours, and to enable them to produce one powerful effect. The hiſtory of Athens affords us an example of the manner in which theſe ſtates, that, for want of union, were weak and inſignificant, became, by being cemented together, important and powerful. Theſeus, king of Attica, about the year before Chriſt 1234, had acquired great reputation by his exploits of valour and ability. He ſaw the inconveniencies to which his country, from being divided into twelve diſtricts, was expoſed; and he conceived, that by means of the influence which his perſonal character, united to the royal authority with which he was inveſted, had univerſally procured him, he might be able to remove them. For this purpoſe he endeavoured to maintain, and even to encreaſe, his popularity among the peaſants and artiſans; he detached, as much as poſſible, the different tribes from the leaders who commanded them; he aboliſhed the courts which had been eſtabliſhed in different parts of Attica, and appointed one council-hall common to all the Athenians. Theſeus, however, did not truſt ſolely to the force of political regulations. He called to his aid all the power of religious prejudices; by eſtabliſhing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by inviting thither ſtrangers from all quarters, by the proſpect of protection and privileges, he raiſed this city from an inconſiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The ſplendor of Athens and of Theſeus now totally eclipſed that

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of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the ſtate was united in one city, and under one ſovereign. The petty chieftains, who had formerly occaſioned ſo much confuſion, by being diveſted of all influence and conſideration, became humble and ſubmiſſive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude ſketch of the origin of the firſt monarchy of which we have a diſtinct account, and may without much variation, be applied to the other ſtates of Greece. This country, however, was not deſtined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence aroſe, which in a ſhort time proved two powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theſeus had divided the Athenians into three diſtinct claſſes; the nobles, the artiſans, and the huſbandmen. In order to abridge the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had beſtowed many privileges on the two other ranks of perſons. This plan of politics was followed by his ſucceſſors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their ſovereign, and partly from the progreſs of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became conſiderable and independent. Theſe circumſtances were attended with a remarkable effect. Upon the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year B. C. 1070, the Athenians became weary of the regal authority, under pretence of finding no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himſelf to death for the ſafety of his people, aboliſhed the regal power and proclaimed that none but Jupiter ſhould be king of Athens. This revolution in favour of liberty was ſo much the more remarkable, as it happened ſoon after that the Jews became unwilling to remain under the government of the true God, and deſired a mortal ſovereign, that they might be like unto other nations.

B. C. 1095.

The government of Thebes, another of the Grecian ſtates, much about the ſame time aſſumed the republican form. Near a century before the Trojan war, Cadmus, with a colony from Phœnicia, had founded this city, which from that time had been governed by kings. But the laſt ſovereign being overcome in ſingle combat, by a neighbouring prince, the Thebans aboliſhed the regal power. Till the days however of Pelopidas and Epaminondas, a period of ſeven hundred years, the Thebans performed nothing worthy of the republican ſpirit. Other cities of Greece, after the examples of Thebes and Athens, erected themſelves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival ſtates, which, by means of the ſuperiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deſerve our particular attention. We have ſeen a tender ſhoot of liberty ſpring up in the city of Athens upon the death of Codrus, its laſt ſovereign. This ſhoot gradually improved into a vigorous plant; and it cannot but be pleaſant to obſerve its progreſs. The Athenians, by aboliſhing the name of king, did not entirely ſubvert the regal authority: they eſtabliſhed a perpetual magiſtrate, who, under the name of Archon, was inveſted with almoſt the ſame rights which their kings had enjoyed. The Athenians, in time, became ſenſible, that the archonic office was too lively an image of royalty for a free ſtate. After it had continued therefore, three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to leſſen its dignity, not by abridging its power, but by ſhortening its duration. The firſt period aſſigned for the continuance of the Archonſhip in the ſame hands, was three years. But the deſire of the Athenians for a more perfect ſyſtem of freedom than had hitherto been eſtabliſhed, increaſed in proportion to the liberty they enjoyed. They again called out for a freſh reduction of the power of their Archons; and it was at length determined that nine annual magiſtrates ſhould be appointed for this office. Theſe magiſtrates were

B C. 1070.

B C. 684.

were not only chosen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration of their office. These alterations were too violent not to be attended with some dangerous consequences. The Athenians, intoxicated with their freedom, broke out into the most unruly and licentious behaviour. No written laws had been as yet enacted in Athens, and it was hardly possible that the ancient customs of the realm, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuary spirits of the Athenians in the first flutter of their independence. This engaged the wiser part of the state, who began to prefer any system of government to their present anarchy and confusion, to cast their eyes on Draco, a man of an austere but virtuous disposition, as the fittest person for composing a system of law, to bridle the furious and unruly manners of their countrymen. Draco undertook the office about the year 628, but executed it with so much rigour, that in the words of an ancient historian, "His laws "were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of every offence, and the laws of Draco were found to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again returned into confusion and disorder, and remained so till the time of Solon, who died in the year before Christ 549. The gentle manners, disinterested virtue, and wisdom more than human, by which this sage was distinguished, pointed him out as the only character adapted to the most important of all offices, the giving laws to a free people. Solon, though this employment was assigned him by the unanimous voice of his country, long deliberated whether he should undertake it. At length, however the motives of public utility overcame all considerations of private ease, safety, and reputation, and determined him to enter an ocean pregnant with a thousand dangers. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, excepting those relative to murder. The punishment of this crime could not be too great; but to consider other offences as equally criminal, was to confound all notions of right and wrong, and to render the law ineffectual by means of its severity. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law; his establishments on this head remained among the Athenians, while they preserved their liberties. He seems to have set out with this principle, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen should have an equal political importance, was a system of government, beautiful indeed in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens therefore into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed, and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office.

They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the last resort. But lest this assembly, which was composed of all the citizens, should, in the words of Plutarch, like a ship with too many sails, be exposed to the gust of folly, tumult, and disorder, he provided for its safety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The first of these courts consisted of four hundred persons, a hundred out of each tribe of the Athenians, who prepared all important bills that came before the assembly of the people; the second, though but a court of justice, gained a prodigious ascendancy in the republic, by the wisdom and gravity of its members, who were not chosen, but after the strictest scrutiny, and the most serious deliberation.

Such was the system of government established by Solon, which, the nearer we examine it, will afford the more matter for our admiration. Upon the same plan most of the other ancient republics were established. To insist on all of them, therefore, would neither be entertaining nor in-

inſtructive. But the government of Sparta, or Lacedæmon, had ſomething in it ſo peculiar, that the great lines of it at leaſt, ought not to be omitted even in a delineation of this ſort. Sparta, like the other ſtates of Greece, was originally divided into a number of petty principalities, of which each was under the juriſdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is ſaid to be the firſt king, about the year B. C. 1516. At length, B C 1102 the two brothers, Euriſthenes and Procles, getting poſſeſſion of this country, became conjunct in the royalty; and, what is extremely ſingular, their poſterity, in the direct line, continued to rule conjunctly for nine hundred years, ending with Cleomenes, anno 220 before the Chriſtian æra. The Spartan government, however, did not take that ſingular form which renders it ſo remarkable, until the time of Lycurgus, the celebrated legiſlator. The plan of policy deviſed by Lycurgus, agreed with that already deſcribed in comprehending a ſenate and aſſembly of the people, and in general all thoſe eſtabliſhments which are deemed moſt requiſite for the ſecurity of political independence. It differed from that of Athens, and indeed from all other governments, in having two kings, whoſe office was hereditary, though their power was ſufficiently circumſcribed by proper checks and reſtraints. But the great characteriſtic of the Spartan conſtitution aroſe from this, that, in all laws, Lycurgus had at leaſt as much reſpect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all ſorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, every thing, in ſhort, which had the ſmalleſt tendency to ſoften the minds of the Spartans, was abſolutely proſcribed. They were forbidden the uſe of money, they lived at public tables on the coarſeſt fare, the younger were taught to pay the utmoſt reverence to the more advanced in years, and all ranks capable to bear arms, were daily accuſtomed to the moſt painful exerciſes. To the Spartans alone, war was a relaxation rather than a hardſhip, and they behaved in it with a ſpirit of which hardly any but a Spartan could even from a conception.

B. C. 894.

In order to ſee the effect of theſe principles, and to connect under one point of view the hiſtory of the different quarters of the globe, we muſt now caſt our eyes on Aſia, and obſerve the events which happened in thoſe great empires, of which we have ſo long loſt ſight. We have already mentioned in what obſcurity the hiſtory of Egypt is involved, until the reign of Bocchoris. From this period to the diſſolution of their government by Cambyſes of Perſia, in the year B. C. 524, the Egyptians are more celebrated for the wiſdom of their laws, and political inſtitutions, than for the power of their arms. Several of theſe ſeem to have been dictated by the true ſpirit of civil wiſdom, and were admirably calculated for preſerving order and good government in an extenſive kingdom. The great empire of Aſſyria likewiſe, which had ſo long diſappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the firſt inſtance we meet with in hiſtory, of a kingdom which fell aſunder by its own weight, and the effeminate weakneſs of its ſovereigns. Sardanapalus, the laſt emperor of Aſſyria, neglecting the adminiſtration of affairs, and ſhutting himſelf up in his palace with his women and eunuchs, fell into contempt with his ſubjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to lay hold of this opportunity of raiſing their own fortune on the ruins of their maſter's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Beleſis governor of Babylon, conſpire againſt their ſovereign, ſet fire to his capital, in which Sardanapalus periſhed, B. C. 82, and divide between them his extenſive dominions. Theſe two kingdoms, ſometimes united under one prince, and ſometimes governed each

B. C. 781.

each by a particular ſovereign, maintained the chief ſway of Aſia for many years. Phul revived the kingdom of Aſſyria, anno B. C. 777, and Shalmaneſer, one of his ſucceſſors, put an end to the kingdom of Iſrael, and carried the ten Tribes captive into Aſſyria and Media, B. C. 721. Nebuchadnezzar king of Babylon alſo, in the year B. C. 587, overturned the kingdom of Judah, which had continued in the family of David from the year 1055, and maſtered all the countries around him. But in the year 538, Cyrus the Great took Babylon, and reduced this quarter of the world under the Perſian yoke. The manners of this people, as brave, hardy, and independent, as well as the government of Cyrus, in all its various departments, are elegantly deſcribed by Xenophon, a Grecian philoſopher and hiſtorian. It is not neceſſary, however, that we ſhould enter on the ſame detail upon this ſubject, as with regard to the affairs of the Greeks. We have, in modern times, ſufficient examples of monarchical governments; but how few are our republics! But the æra of Cyrus is in one reſpect extremely remarkable, beſides delivering the Jews from their captivity, becauſe, with it the hiſtory of the great nations of antiquity, which has hitherto engaged our attention may be ſuppoſed to finiſh. Let us conſider then the genius of the Aſſyrians, Babylonians, and Egyptians, in arts and ſciences; and if poſſible diſcover what progreſs they had made in thoſe acquirements which are moſt ſubſervient to the intereſts of ſociety. B C. 538.

The taſte for the great and magnificent, ſeems to have been the prevailing character of theſe nations; and they principally diſplayed it in their works of architecture. There are no veſtiges, however now remaining, which confirm the teſtimony of ancient writers, with regard to the great works which adorned Babylon and Nineveh: neither is it clearly determined in what year they were begun or finiſhed. There are three pyramids, ſtupendous fabrics, ſtill remaining in Egypt, at ſome leagues diſtance from Cairo, and about nine miles from the Nile, which are ſuppoſed to have been the burying places of the ancient Egyptian kings. The largeſt is five hundred feet in height, and each ſide of the baſe ſix hundred and ninety-three feet in length. The apex is 13 feet ſquare. The ſecond ſtands on as much ground as the firſt, but is 40 feet lower. It was a ſuperſtition among this people, derived from the earlieſt times, that even after death the ſoul continued in the body as long as it remained uncorrupted. Hence proceeded the cuſtom of embalming, or of throwing into the dead body ſuch vegetables as experience had diſcovered to be the greateſt preſervatives againſt putrefaction. The pyramids were erected with the ſame view. In them the bodies of the Egyptian kings were concealed. This expedient, together with embalming, as theſe ſuperſtitious monarchs conceived, would inevitably ſecure a ſafe and comfortable retreat for their ſouls after death. From what we read of the walls of Babylon, the temple of Belus, and other works of the Eaſt, and from what travellers have recorded of the pyramids, it appears that they were really ſuperb and magnificent ſtructures, but totally void of elegance. The orders of architecture were not yet known, nor even the conſtructing of vaults. The arts in which theſe nations, next to architecture principally excelled, were ſculpture and embroidery. As to the ſciences, they had all along continued to beſtow their principal attention on aſtronomy. It does not appear, however, that they made great progreſs in explaining the cauſes of the phenomena of the univerſe, or indeed in any ſpecies of rational and ſound philoſophy. To demonſtrate this to an intelligent reader, it is ſufficient to obſerve that according to the teſtimony of ſacred and profane writers, the abſurd reveries of magic and aſtrology, which always decreaſe in proportion to the advancement of true ſcience, were in high eſteem among them, during the

 Greeſt

lateſt period of their government. The countries which they occupied were extremely fruitful, and afforded without much labour all the neceſſaries, and even luxuries of life. They had long been accuſtomed to a civilized and poliſhed life in great cities. Theſe circumſtances had tainted their manners with effeminacy and corruption, and rendered them an eaſy prey to the Perſians, a nation juſt emerging from barbariſm, of conſequence brave and warlike. This was ſtill more eaſy in the infancy of the military art; when, ſtrength and courage were the only circumſtances which gave the advantage to one nation over another; when, properly ſpeaking, there were no fortified places which in modern times have been diſcovered to be ſo uſeful in ſtopping the progreſs of a victorious enemy; and when the event of a battle commonly decided the fate of an empire. But we muſt now turn our attention to other objects.

The hiſtory of Perſia, after the reign of Cyrus, who died in the year B. C. 529, offers little, conſidered in itſelf, that merits our regard; but when combined with that of Greece, it becomes particularly intereſting. The monarchs who ſucceeded Cyrus, gave an opportunity to the Greeks to exerciſe thoſe virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of Lycurgus's inſtitutions: Athens had juſt recovered from the tyranny of the Piſiſtratidæ, a family who had trampled on the laws of Solon and uſurped the ſupreme power.

B. C. 504. Such was their ſituation, when the luſt of univerſal empire, which ſeldom fails to torment the breaſt of tyrants, led Darius (at the inſtigation of Hippias, who had been expelled from Athens, and on account of the Athenians burning the city of Sardis), to ſend forth his numerous armies into Greece. But the Perſians were no longer thoſe invincible ſoldiers, who under Cyrus, had conquered Aſia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and ſervitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, whoſe minds were nobly animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades,

B. C. 490. in the plains of Marathon, with ten thouſand Athenians overcame the Perſian army of a hundred thouſand foot and ten thouſand cavalry. His countrymen, Themiſtocles and Ariſtides, the firſt celebrated for his abilities, the ſecond for his virtue gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the event of this war, which, as the nobleſt monuments of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over ſervitude, deſerve to be read at length in ancient writers.

B. C. 480. Xerxes, the ſon of Darius, came in perſon into Greece, with an immenſe army, which according to Herodotus, amounted to two millions and one hundred thouſand men. This account has been juſtly conſidered by ſome ingenious modern writers as incredible. The truth cannot now be aſcertained; but that the army of Xerxes was extremely numerous, is the moſt probable, from the great extent of his empire, and from the abſurd practice of the eaſtern nations of encumbering their camp with a ſuperfluous multitude. Whatever the numbers of his army were, he was every where defeated, by ſea and land, and eſcaped to Aſia in a fiſhing-boat. Such was the ſpirit of the Greeks and ſo well did they know that "wanting virtue, life is pain and woe; that "wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks around for happineſs in "vain." But though the Perſian war concluded glorioufly for the Greeks, it is in a great meaſure, to this war, that the ſubſequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. It was not the battles in which they ſuffered the loſs of ſo many brave men, but thoſe in which they acquired an immenſity of Perſian gold; it was not their enduring ſo many hardſhips in the courſe of the war, but their connexions with the Perſians after the concluſion of it, which ſubverted the Grecian eſtabliſhments, and ruined the moſt virtuous confederacy that ever exiſted upon earth. The Greeks became haughty

after

after their victories; delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel with one another; their quarrels were fomented by Perſian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them deſirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponneſian war, in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other ſtates of Greece. They continued to weaken themſelves by theſe inteſtine diviſions, till Philip, king of Macedon, (a country till this time little known, but which, by the active and crafty genius of this prince, became important and powerful), rendered himſelf the abſolute maſter of Greece, by the battle of Cheronæa. But this conqueſt is one of the firſt we meet with in hiſtory which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his ſcheme ſo deeply, and by bribery, promiſes, and intrigues, gained over ſuch a number of conſiderable perſons in the ſeveral ſtates of Greece to his intereſt, that another day would have put in his poſſeſſion what Cheronæa had denied him. The Greeks had loſt that virtue which was the baſis of their confederacy. Their popular governments ſerved only to give a ſanction to their licentiouſneſs and corruption. The principal orators, in moſt of their ſtates, were bribed in the ſervice of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demoſthenes, aſſiſted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean, but more ſeductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, uſed the ſureſt method of winning their affections.

B. C. 431.

B. C. 338.

Philip had propoſed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece. But he did not long ſurvive the battle of Cheronæa. Upon his deceaſe, his ſon Alexander was choſen general againſt the Perſians, by all the Grecian ſtates, except the Athenians and Thebans. Theſe made a feeble effort for expiring liberty: but they were obliged to yield to ſuperior force. Secure on the ſide of Greece, Alexander ſet out on his Perſian expedition, at the head of thirty thouſand foot, and five thouſand horſe. The ſucceſs of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius, in three pitched battles, in over-running and ſubduing not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but many parts of India, the very names of which had never reached an European ear, has been deſcribed by many authors, both ancient and modern, and conſtitutes a ſingular part of the hiſtory of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and ſucceſs, Alexander died at Babylon. His captains, after ſacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions. This gives riſe to a number of æras and events too complicated for our preſent purpoſe, and even too unintereſting. After conſidering therefore the ſtate of arts and ſciences in Greece, we ſhall paſs over to the Roman affairs, where the hiſtorical deduction is more ſimple, and alſo more important.

B. C. 334.

B. C. 323.

The bare name of illuſtrious men who flouriſhed in Greece from the time of Cyrus to that of Alexander, would fill a large volume. During this period, all the arts were carried to the higheſt pitch of perfection; and the improvements we have hitherto mentioned, were but the dawnings of this glorious day. Though the eaſtern nations had raiſed magnificent and ſtupendous ſtructures, the Greeks were the firſt people in the world, who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus, and the Epheſian Diana, are the firſt monuments of good taſte. They were erected by the Grecian colonies, who ſettled in Aſia Minor, before the reign of Cyrus. Phidias the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, is the firſt ſculptor whoſe works have been immortal. Zeuxis, Parrhaſius, and Timantheus, during the ſame age, firſt diſcovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Compoſition in all its various branches, reached a degree of perfection in the

Greek language, of which a modern reader can hardly form an idea. After Heſiod and Homer, who flouriſhed 1000 years before the Chriſtian æra, the tragic poets, Æſchylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the firſt conſiderable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave ſimplicity and elegance to proſaic writing. Iſocrates gave it cadence and harmony, but it was left to Thucydides and Demoſthenes to diſcover the full force of the Greek tongue. It was not, however, in the finer arts alone that the Greeks excelled. Every ſpecies of philoſophy was cultivated among them with the utmoſt ſucceſs. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtues of whoſe life, and the excellence of whoſe philoſophy, juſtly entitled him to a very high degree of veneration; his three diſciples, Plato, Ariſtotle, and Xenophon, may, for ſtrength of reaſoning, juſtneſs of ſentiment, and propriety of expreſſion, be put on a footing with the writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long courſe of years, has taught us many ſecrets in nature, with which theſe philoſophers were unacquainted, and which no ſtrength of genius could divine. But whatever ſome vain empirics in learning may pretend, the moſt learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the ſuperiority of the Greek philoſophers, and have reckoned themſelves happy in catching their turn of thinking, and manner of expreſſion. But the Greeks were not leſs diſtinguiſhed for their active than for their ſpeculative talents. It would be endleſs to recount the names of their famous ſtateſmen and warriors, and it is impoſſible to mention a few without doing injuſtice to a greater number. War was firſt reduced to a ſcience by the Greeks. Their ſoldiers fought from an affection to their country, and an ardour for glory, and not from a dread of their ſuperiors. We have ſeen the effects of this military virtue in their wars againſt the Perſians; the cauſe of it was the wiſe laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus had eſtabliſhed in Greece. But we muſt now leave this nation, whoſe hiſtory, both civil and philoſophical, is as important as their territory was inconſiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are ſtill more intereſting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they ſtand to thoſe of Modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman ſtate, when we view him as the leader of a few lawleſs and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme inſignificance. But when we conſider him as the founder of an empire as extenſive as the world, and whoſe progreſs and decline have occaſioned the two greateſt revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot help being intereſted in his conduct. His diſpoſition was extremely martial; and the political ſtate of Italy, divided into a number of ſmall but independent diſtricts, afforded a noble field for the diſplay of military talents. Romulus was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected not only to aggrandiſe themſelves, but even to ſubſiſt. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may obſerve the ſame maxims by which the Romans afterwards became maſters of the world. Inſtead of deſtroying the nations he had ſubjected, he united them to the Roman ſtate, whereby Rome acquired a new acceſſion of ſtrength from every war ſhe undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumſtance which ruins and depopulates other kingdoms. If the enemies, with which he contended had, by means of the art or arms they employed, any conſiderable advantage, Romulus immediately adopted that practice, or the uſe of that weapon, and improved the military ſyſtem of the Romans by the united experience of all their enemies. We have an example of both theſe maxims, by means of

B. C. 753.

which

which the Roman ſtate arrived at ſuch a pitch of grandeur, in the war with the Sabines. Romulus having conquered that nation, not only united them to the Romans, but finding their buckler preferable to the Roman, inſtantly threw aſide the latter, and made uſe of the Sabine buckler in fighting againſt other ſtates. Romulus, though principally attached to war, did not altogether neglect the civil policy of his infant kingdom. He inſtituted what was called the Senate, a court originally compoſed of a hundred perſons, diſtinguiſhed for their wiſdom and experience. He enacted laws for the adminiſtration of juſtice, and for bridling the fierce and unruly paſſions of his followers: and after a long reign, ſpent in promoting the civil or military intereſts of his country, was, according to the moſt probable conjecture, privately aſſaſſinated by ſome of the members of that Senate, which he himſelf had inſtituted. B. C. 717.

The ſucceſſors of Romulus were all very extraordinary perſonages. Numa who came next to him, eſtabliſhed the religious ceremonies of the Romans, and inſpired them with that veneration for an oath, which was ever after the ſoul of their military diſcipline. Tullus Hoſtilius, Ancus Martius, Tarquinius Priſcus, and Servius Tullius, laboured each, during his reign, for the grandeur of Rome. But Tarquinius Superbus, the ſeventh and laſt king, having obtained the crown by the execrable murder of his father-in-law Servius, continued to ſupport it by the moſt cruel and infamous tyranny. This, together with the inſolence of his ſon Sextus Tarquinius, who, by diſhonouring Lucretia, a Roman lady, affronted the whole nation, occaſioned the expulſion of the Tarquin's family, and with it the diſſolution of the regal government. As the Romans, however, were continually engaged in war, they found it neceſſary to have ſome officer inveſted with ſupreme authority, who might conduct them to the field, and regulate their military enterpriſes. In the room of the kings, therefore, they appointed two annual magiſtrates, called conſuls, who, without creating the ſame jealouſy, ſucceeded to all the powers of their ſovereigns. This reſolution was extremely favourable to the Roman grandeur. The conſuls who enjoyed but a temporary power, were deſirous of ſignalizing their reign by ſome great action: each vied with thoſe who had gone before him, and the Romans were daily led out againſt ſome new enemy. When we add to this, that the people, naturally warlike, were inſpired to deeds of valour, by every conſideration which could excite them; that the citizens of Rome were all ſoldiers, and fought for their lands, their children, and their liberties, we need not be ſurpriſed that they ſhould, in the courſe of ſome centuries, extend their power all over Italy. B. C. 509.

The Romans, now ſecure at home, and finding no enemy to contend with, turn their eyes abroad, and meet with a powerful rival in the Carthaginians. This ſtate had been founded or enlarged on the coaſt of the Mediterranean in Africa, ſome time before Rome, by a colony of Phœnicians[1] anno B. C. 869, and, according to the practice of their mother-country, they had cultivated commerce and naval greatneſs.

Carthage, in this deſign, had proved wonderfully ſucceſsful. She now commanded both ſides of the Mediterranean. Beſides that of Africa, which ſhe almoſt entirely poſſeſſed, ſhe had extended herſelf on the Spaniſh ſides through the Straits. Thus miſtreſs of the ſea, and of commerce, ſhe had ſeized on the iſlands of Corſica and Sardinia. Sicily had difficulty to defend itſelf; and the Romans were too nearly threatened not to take up arms. Hence a ſucceſſion of hoſtilities between theſe rival ſtates known in hiſtory by the name of Punic wars, in which the Carthaginians, with all their wealth and power, were an unequal match for the Romans. B. C. 264.

Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic when Rome was an inconſiderable ſtate; but ſhe was now become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political conſtitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars; Rome, as we have already mentioned, was compoſed of ſoldiers. The firſt war with Carthage laſted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the ſea, with which they had hitherto been unacquainted. A Carthaginian veſſel was wrecked on their coaſt; they uſed it for a model; in three months fitted out a fleet, and the conſul Duilius, who fought their firſt naval battle, was victorious. It is not to our purpoſe to mention all the tranſactions of theſe wars. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, may give us an idea of the ſpirit which then animated this people. Being taken priſoner in Africa, he is ſent back on his parole to negociate a change of priſoners. He maintains in the ſenate, the propriety of that law which cut off from thoſe who ſuffered themſelves to be taken, all hopes of being ſaved, and returns to a certain death.

B. C. 260.

B. C 256.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient of great men. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal the Carthaginian, was the moſt inflexible and dangerous. His father Hamilcar had imbibed an extreme hatred againſt the Romans, and having ſettled the inteſtine troubles of his country, he took an early opportunity to inſpire his ſon, though but nine years old, with his own ſentiments. For this purpoſe he ordered a ſolemn ſacrifice to be offered to Jupiter, and leading his ſon to the altar, aſked him whether he was willing to attend him in his expedition againſt the Romans; the courageous boy not only conſented to go, but conjured his father, by the gods preſent, to form him to victory, and teach him the art of conquering. That I will joyfully do, replied Hamilcar, and with all the care of a father, who loves you, if you will ſwear upon the altar to be an eternal enemy to the Romans. Hannibal readily complied; and the ſolemnity of the ceremony, and the ſacredneſs of the oath, made ſuch an impreſſion upon his mind, as nothing afterwards could ever efface. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he croſſes the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and in a moment falls down upon Italy. The loſs of four battles threatens the fall of Rome. Sicily ſides with the conqueror. Hieronymus, king of Syracuſe, declares againſt the Romans, and almoſt all Italy abandons them. In this extremity, Rome owed its preſervation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, deſpiſing popular clamour, and the military ardour of his countrymen, declines coming to an engagement. The ſtrength of Rome has time to recover. Marcellus raiſes the ſiege of Nola, takes Syracuſe, and revives the drooping ſpirits of his troops. The Romans admired the character of theſe great men, but ſaw ſomething more divine in the young Scipio. The ſucceſs of this young hero confirmed the popular opinion, that he was of divine extraction, and held converſe with the Gods. At the age of four and twenty, he flies into Spain, where both his father and uncle had loſt their lives, attacks New Carthage, and carries it at the firſt aſſault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings ſubmit to him, Carthage trembles in her turn, and ſees her armies defeated. Hannibal, ſixteen years victorious, is in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage is rendered tributary, gives hoſtages, and engages never to enter upon a war, but with the conſent of the Roman people.

B. C. 218.

B. C. 210.

B. C. 201.

After the conqueſt of Carthage, Rome had inconſiderable wars, but great victories; before this time its wars were great, and its victories inconſiderable.

able. At this time the world was divided, as it were, into two parts; in the one fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by thoſe quarrels which had laſted ſince the death of Alexander the Great. Their ſcene of action was Greece, Egypt, and the Eaſt. The ſtates of Greece had once more diſengaged themſelves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the Etolians, Acheans, and Bœotians; each of theſe was an aſſociation of free cities, which had aſſemblies and magiſtrates in common. The Etolians were the moſt conſiderable of them all. The kings of Macedon maintained that ſuperiority, which, in ancient times, when the balance of power was little attended to, a great prince naturally poſſeſſed over his leſs powerful neighbours. Philip, the preſent monarch, had rendered himſelf odious to the Greeks, by ſome unpopular and tyrannical ſteps; the Etolians were moſt irritated; and hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their aſſiſtance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garriſons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the ſtates of Greece became their dependents. The Etolians diſcovering their firſt error, endeavoured to remedy it by another ſtill more dangerous to themſelves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them againſt king Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them againſt the Romans. The famous Hannibal too had recourſe to the ſame prince, who was at this time the moſt powerful monarch in the Eaſt, and the ſucceſſor to the dominions of Alexander in Aſia. But Antiochus did not follow his advice ſo much as that of the Etolians; for inſtead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, judged the Romans to be the moſt vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a ſmall body of troops and being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Aſia. In this war the Romans made uſe of Philip for conquering Antiochus, as they had before done of the Etolians for conquering Philip. They now purſue Antiochus, the laſt object of their reſentment, into Aſia, and having vanquiſhed him by ſea and land, compel him to ſubmit to an infamous treaty. B. C. 190.

In theſe conqueſts the Romans ſtill allowed the ancient inhabitants to poſſeſs their territory; they did not even change the form of government; the conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people; which denomination, however, under a ſpecious name, concealed a condition very ſervile, and inferred that they ſhould ſubmit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on theſe eaſy conqueſts, we have reaſon to be aſtoniſhed at the reſiſtance which the Romans met with from Mithridates, king of Pontus, for the ſpace of 26 years. But this monarch had great reſources. His kingdom bordered on the inacceſſible mountains of Caucaſus, abounded in a race of men whoſe minds were not enervated by pleaſure, and whoſe bodies were firm and vigorous, and he gave the Romans more trouble than even Hannibal.

The different ſtates of Greece and Aſia, who now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not a ſpirit to ſhake it off, were tranſported at finding a prince who dared to ſhew himſelf an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully ſubmitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, at laſt, was compelled to yield to the ſuperior fortune of the Romans. Vanquiſhed ſucceſſively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length ſubdued by Pompey, and ſtripped of his dominions and of his life, in the year B. C. 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal ſucceſs. Marius, in conquering Jugurtha, made all ſecure in that quarter. Even the barbarous B. C. 106.

nations

nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia Narbonenſis had been reduced into a province. The Cimbri, Teutones, and the other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire. The ſame Marius, whoſe name was ſo terrible in Africa, then made the north of Europe to tremble. The Barbarians retired to their wilds and deſerts, leſs formidable than the Roman legions. But while Rome conquered the world, there ſubſiſted an eternal war within her walls. This war had ſubſiſted from the firſt period of the government. Rome, after the expulſion of her kings, enjoyed but a partial liberty. The deſcendants of the ſenators, who were diſtinguiſhed by the names of Patricians, were inveſted with ſo many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to ſhake it off. A thouſand diſputes on the ſubject aroſe betwixt them and the Patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty.

B. C. 102.

Theſe diſputes, while the Romans preſerved their virtue, were not attended with any dangerous conſequences. The Patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully parted with ſome of their privileges to ſatisfy the people; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws, by which they might be admitted to enjoy the firſt offices of the ſtate, and though they had the power of nomination, always named Patricians. But when the Romans, by the conqueſt of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements; when they became tainted with the effeminacy and corruption of the eaſtern courts, and ſported with every thing juſt and honourable in order to obtain them, the ſtate, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either ſide to keep it together, became a prey to its own children. Hence the bloody ſeditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguiſhable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it eaſy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action againſt each other. The love of their country was now no more than a ſpecious name; the better ſort were too wealthy and effeminate to ſubmit to the rigours of military diſcipline, and the ſoldiers, compoſed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little reſpect for any but their commander; under his banner they fought, and conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to embrue their hands in the blood of their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conqueſts, however, which required their keeping on foot ſeveral armies at the ſame time, retarded the ſubverſion of the republic. Theſe armies were ſo many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the ſoldiers of Sylla, Rome would have ſurrendered its liberty to the army of Marius.

Julius Cæſar at length appears. By ſubduing the Gauls, he gained his country the moſt uſeful conqueſt it ever made. Pompey, his own rival, is overcome in the plains of Pharſalia. Cæſar appears victorious almoſt at the ſame time all over the world: in Egypt, in Aſia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all ſides, he is acknowledged maſter at Rome, and in the whole empire. Brutus and Caſſius think to give Rome her liberty, by ſtabbing him in the ſenate-houſe. But though they thereby deliver the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic does not obtain its freedom. It falls into the hands of Mark Antony; young Cæſar Octavianus, nephew to Julius Cæſar, wreſts it from him by the ſea-fight at Actium, and there is no Brutus or Caſſius to put an end to his life. Thoſe friends of liberty had killed themſelves in deſpair; and Octavius, under the name of Auguſtus,

B. C. 58.

B. C. 44.

B. C. 31.

Auguſtus, and title of emperor, remained the undiſturbed maſter of the empire. During theſe civil commotions, the Romans ſtill preſerved the glory of their arms among diſtant nations; and while it was unknown who ſhould be maſter of Rome, the Romans were, without diſpute, the maſters of the world. Their military diſcipline and valour aboliſhed all the remains of the Carthaginian, the Perſian, the Greek, the Aſſyrian, and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No ſooner, therefore, was Octavius eſtabliſhed on the throne, than ambaſſadors from all quarters of the known world crowded to make their ſubmiſſions. Æthiopia ſues for peace; the Parthians, who had been a moſt formidable enemy, court his friendſhip; India ſeeks his alliance; Pannonia acknowledges him; Germany dreads him; and the Weſer receives his laws. Victorious by ſea and land, he ſhuts the temple of Janus. The whole earth lives in peace under his power, and Jeſus Chriſt comes into the world four years before the common æra. B. C. 7.

Having thus traced the progreſs of the Roman government, while it remained a republic, our plan obliges us to ſay a few words with regard to the arts, ſciences, and manners of that people. During the firſt ages of the republic, the Romans lived in a total neglect, or rather contempt, of all the elegant improvements of life. War, politics, and agriculture, were the only arts they ſtudied, becauſed they were the only arts they eſteemed. But upon the downfal of Carthage, the Romans having no enemy to dread from abroad, began to taſte the ſweets of ſecurity, and to cultivate the arts. Their progreſs, however, was not gradual, as in the other countries we have deſcribed. The conqueſt of Greece at once put them in poſſeſſion of every thing moſt rare, curious, or elegant. Aſia, which was the next victim, offered all its ſtores; and the Romans, from the moſt ſimple people, ſpeedily became acquainted with the arts, the luxuries, and refinements of the whole earth. Eloquence they had always cultivated as the high road to eminence and preferment. The orations of Cicero are inferior only to thoſe of Demoſthenes. In poetry, Virgil yields only to Homer, whoſe verſe, like the proſe of Demoſthenes, may be conſidered as inimitable. Horace, however, in his Satires and Epiſtles, had no model among the Greeks, and ſtands to this day unrivalled in that ſpecies of writing. In hiſtory, the Romans can boaſt of Livy, who poſſeſſes all the natural eaſe of Herodotus, and is more deſcriptive, more eloquent, and ſentimental. Tacitus indeed did not flouriſh in the Auguſtan age, but his works do himſelf the greateſt honour, while they diſgrace his country and human nature, whoſe corruption and vices he paints in the moſt ſtriking colours. In philoſophy, if we except the works of Cicero, and the ſyſtem of the Greek philoſopher Epicurus, deſcribed in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during the time of the republic, made not the leaſt attempt. In tragedy they never produced any thing excellent; and Terence, though remarkable for purity of ſtyle, wants that *comica vis*, or lively vein of humour, that diſtinguiſhes the Greek comedians, and which diſtinguiſhes our Shakeſpeare.

We now return to our hiſtory, and are arrived at an æra which preſents us with a ſet of monſters, under the name of emperors, whoſe hiſtories, a few excepted, diſgrace human nature. They did not indeed aboliſh the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguiſhed its liberties; and while they were practiſing the moſt unwarrantable cruelties upon their ſubjects, they themſelves were the ſlaves of their ſoldiers. They made the world tremble, while they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Auguſtus, became the moſt deſpotic empire that ever ſubſiſted in Europe. To form an idea of their government, we need only recall to our mind the ſituation of Turkey at preſent. It is of no importance therefore to conſider

ſider the character of the emperors, ſince they had no power but what aroſe from a mercenary ſtanding army; nor to enter into a detail with regard to the tranſactions of the court, which were directed with that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which univerſally prevail under a deſpotic government. When it is ſaid that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly in Greece, Carthage, and Aſia. A more difficult taſk ſtill remained for the emperors, to ſubdue the barbarous nations of Europe; the Germans, the Gauls, the Britons, and even the remote corner of Scotland; for though theſe countries had been diſcovered, they were not effectually ſubdued by the Roman generals. Theſe nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the ſuperiority of their diſcipline than of their courage that the Romans gained any advantage over them. The Roman wars with the Germans are deſcribed by Tacitus, and from his accounts, though a Roman, it is eaſy to diſcover with what bravery they fought, and with what reluctance they ſubmitted to a foreign yoke. From the obſtinate reſiſtance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties the Romans met with in ſubduing the other nations of Europe. The conteſts were on both ſides bloody; the countries of Europe were ſucceſſively laid waſte, the inhabitants periſhed in the field, many were carried into ſlavery, and but a feeble remnant ſubmitted to the Roman power. This ſituation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happineſs of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourſe with the Romans, acquired ſome taſte for the arts, ſciences, language, and manners of their new maſters. Theſe, however, were but miſerable conſolations for the loſs of liberty, for being deprived of the uſe of their arms, for being overawed by mercenary ſoldiers kept in pay to reſtrain them, and for being delivered over to rapacious governors, who plundered them without mercy. The only circumſtance which could ſupport them under theſe complicated calamities, was the hope of ſeeing better days.

The Roman empire, now ſtretched out to ſuch an extent, had loſt its ſpring and force. It contained within itſelf the ſeeds of diſſolution; and the violent irruptions of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, haſtened its deſtruction. Theſe fierce tribes, who came to take vengeance on the empire, either inhabited the various parts of Germany, which had never been ſubdued by the Romans, or were ſcattered over the vaſt countries of the north of Europe, and the north-weſt of Aſia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire, and the Tartars. They were drawn from their native country by that reſtleſſneſs which actuates the minds of barbarians, and makes them rove from home in queſt of plunder, or new ſettlements. The firſt invaders met with a powerful reſiſtance from the ſuperior diſcipline of the Roman legions; but this, inſtead of daunting men of a ſtrong and impetuous temper, only rouſed them to vengeance. They return to their companions, acquaint them with the unknown conveniencies and luxuries that abounded in countries better cultivated, or bleſſed with a milder climate than their own; they acquaint them with the battles they had fought, or the friends they had loſt, and warm them with reſentment againſt their opponents. Great bodies of armed men (ſays an elegant hiſtorian, in deſcribing this ſcene of deſolation) with their wives and children, and ſlaves and flocks, iſſued forth, like regular colonies, in queſt of new ſettlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deſerted were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. Theſe in their turn puſhed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increaſing, rolled on, and ſwept every thing before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their

route was marked with blood. They ravaged or deſtroyed all around them. They made no diſtinction between what was ſacred and what was profane. They reſpected no age, or ſex, or rank. If a man was called to fix upon the period in the hiſtory of the world, during which the condition of the human race was moſt calamitous and afflicted, he would, without heſitation, name that which elapſed from the death of Theodoſius the Great, A. D. 395, to the eſtabliſhment of the Lombards in Italy, A D. 571. The cotemporary authors, who beheld that ſcene of deſolation, labour and are at a loſs for expreſſions to deſcribe the horror of it. *The ſcourge of God, the deſtroyer of nations*, are the dreadful epithets by which they diſtinguiſh the moſt noted of the barbarous leaders.

Conſtantine, who was emperor at the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Chriſtianity, changed the ſeat of empire from Rome to Conſtantinople. This occaſioned a prodigious alteration. The weſtern and eaſtern provinces were ſeparated from each other, and governed by different ſovereigns. The withdrawing the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the Eaſt, threw down the weſtern barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders. A. D. 328.

Rome (now known by the name of the *Weſtern Empire*, in contradiſtinction of Conſtantinople, which, from its ſituation, was called the *Eaſtern Empire*), weakened by this diviſion, becomes a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, is effaced, and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, is ſeated on the throne of the Cæſars. Theſe irruptions into the empire were gradual and ſucceſſive. The immenſe fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages, and ſeveral centuries were employed in demoliſhing it. The ancient diſcipline of the Romans, in military affairs, was ſo efficacious, that the remains of it deſcended to their ſucceſſors, and muſt have proved an overmatch for all their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the univerſal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loſs to find new provocatives. The moſt diſtant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exerciſed, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite diſh. The tyranny and the univerſal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or, as they are called, Cæſars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of thoſe nations who overcame them. A. D. 476.

Towards the cloſe of the ſixth century, the Saxons, a German nation, were maſters of the ſouthern and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks, another tribe of Germans, of Gaul; the Goths of Spain; the Goths and Lombards of Italy, and the adjacent provinces. Scarcely any veſtige of the Roman policy, juriſprudence, arts, or literature, remained. New forms of government, new laws, new manners, new dreſſes, new languages, and new names of men and countries, were every where introduced.

From this period, till the 16th century, Europe exhibited a picture of moſt melancholy Gothic barbarity. Literature, ſcience, taſte, were words ſcarcely in uſe during theſe ages. Perſons of the higheſt rank, and in the moſt eminent ſtations, could not read or write. Many of the clergy did not underſtand the Breviary which they were obliged daily to recite; ſome of them could ſcarcely read it. The human mind, neglected, uncultivated, and depreſſed, ſunk into the moſt profound ignorance. The ſuperior genius of Charlemagne, who, in the beginning of the 9th century, governed France and Germany, with part of Italy; and Alfred the Great in England, during the latter part of the ſame century, endeavoured to diſpel this darkneſs, and give their ſubjects, a ſhort glimpſe of light. But the ignorance of the

age was too powerful for their efforts and inſtitutions. The darkneſs returned, and even increaſed; ſo that a ſtill greater degree of ignorance and barbariſm prevailed throughout Europe.

A new diviſion of property gradually introduced a new ſpecies of government, formerly unknown; which ſingular inſtitution is now diſtinguiſhed by the name of the *Feudal Syſtem*. The king or general who led the barbarians to conqueſt, parcelled out the lands of the vanquiſhed among his chief officers, binding thoſe on whom they were beſtowed to follow his ſtandard with a number of men, and to bear arms in his defence. The chief officers imitated the example of the ſovereign, and in diſtributing portions of their lands among their dependents annexed the ſame condition to the grant. But though this ſyſtem ſeemed to be admirably calculated for defence againſt a foreign enemy, it degenerated into a ſyſtem of oppreſſion.

The uſurpation of the nobles became unbounded and intolerable. They reduced the great body of the people into a ſtate of actual ſervitude. They were deprived of the natural and moſt unalienable rights of humanity. They were ſlaves fixed to the ſoil which they cultivated, and together with it were transferred from one proprietor to another, by ſale or by conveyance. Every offended baron or chieftain buckled on his armour, and ſought redreſs at the head of his vaſſals. His adverſaries met him in like hoſtile array. The kindred and dependents of the aggreſſor, as well as of the defender, were involved in the quarrel. They had not even the liberty of remaining neuter *.

The monarchs of Europe perceived the encroachment of their nobles with impatience. In order to create ſome power that might counterbalance thoſe potent vaſſals, who while they enſlaved the people, controlled or gave laws to the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring new privileges on towns. Theſe privileges aboliſhed all marks of ſervitude; and the inhabitants of towns were formed into corporations or bodies politic, to be governed by a council and magiſtrates of their own nomination.

The acquiſition of liberty made ſuch a happy change in the condition of mankind, as rouſed them from the ſtupidity and inaction into which they had been ſunk by the wretchedneſs of their former ſtate. A ſpirit of induſtry revived; commerce became an object of attention, and began to flouriſh.

Various cauſes contributed to revive this ſpirit of commerce, and to renew the intercourſe between different nations. Conſtantinople, the capital of the Eaſtern or Greek empire, had eſcaped the ravages of the Goths and Vandals, who overthrew that of the Weſt. In this city ſome remains of literature and ſcience were preſerved: this too, for many ages, was the great emporium of trade, and where ſome reliſh for the precious commodities and curious manufactures of India was retained. They communicated ſome knowledge of theſe to their neighbours in Italy; and the cruſades, which were begun by the Chriſtian powers of Europe with a view to drive the Saracens from Jeruſalem, opened a communication between Europe and the Eaſt. Conſtantinople was the general place of rendezvous for the Chriſtian armies in their way to Paleſtine, or on their return from thence. Though the object of theſe expeditions was conqueſt, and not commerce, and though the iſſue of them proved unfortunate, their commercial effects were both beneficial and permanent.

A. D. 1096.

* This Gothic ſyſtem ſtill prevails in Poland: a remnant of it continued in the Highlands of Scotland ſo late as the year 1748. And even in England, a country renowned for civil and religious liberty, ſome relics of theſe Gothic inſtitutions are perceivable at this day.

Soon

Soon after the close of the holy war, the mariner's compass was invented, which facilitated the communication between remote nations, and brought them nearer to each other. The Italian states, particularly those of Venice and Genoa, began to establish a regular commerce with the East, and the ports of Egypt, and drew from thence all the rich productions of India. These commodities they disposed of to great advantage among the other nations of Europe, who began to acquire some taste of elegance unknown to their predecessors, or despised by them. During the 12th and 13th centuries, the commerce of Europe was almost entirely in the hands of the Italians, more commonly known in those ages by the name of Lombards. Companies, or societies of Lombard merchants, settled in every different kingdom; they became the carriers, the manufacturers, and the bankers of Europe. One of these companies settled in London, and from thence the name of Lombard street was derived. A. D. 1302.

Whilst the Italians in the south of Europe cultivated trade with such industry and success, the commercial spirit awakened in the north towards the middle of the thirteenth century. As the Danes, Swedes, and other nations round the Baltic, were at that time extremely barbarous, and infested that sea with their piracies, this obliged the cities of Lubec and Hamburgh, soon after they had begun to open some trade with the Italians, to enter into a league of mutual defence. They derived such advantage from this union that other towns acceded to their confederacy; and, in a short time, eighty of the most considerable cities, scattered through those large countries of Germany and Flanders, which stretch from the bottom of the Baltic to Cologne on the Rhine, joined in an alliance, called the *Hanseatic League*; which became so formidable that its alliance was courted, and its enmity was dreaded by the greatest monarchs. The members of this powerful association formed the first systematic plan of commerce known in the middle ages, and conducted it by common laws enacted in their general assemblies. They supplied the rest of Europe with naval stores, and pitched on different towns, the most eminent of which was Bruges, in Flanders, where they established staples, in which their commerce was regularly carried on. Thither the Lombards brought the productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not less useful, commodities of the North.

As Bruges became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanseatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to such extent, as well as advantage, as diffused among them a general habit of industry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the most opulent, the most populous, and best cultivated countries in Europe.

Struck with the flourishing state of these provinces of which he discovered the true cause, Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a spirit of industry among his own subjects, who, blind to the advantages of their situation, and ignorant of the source from which opulence was destined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt those manufactures, the materials of which they furnished to foreigners. By alluring Flemish artizans to settle in his dominions, as well as by many wise laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufactures of England; and first turned the active and enterprising genius of his people towards those arts which have raised the English to the first rank among commercial nations. A. D. 1330.

The Christian princes, after their great losses in the crusades, endeavoured to cultivate the friendship of the great khans of Tartary, whose fame in arms had reached the most remote corners of Europe and Asia, that they might be

be ſome check upon the Turks, who had been ſuch enemies to the Chriſtian name; and who, from a contemptible handful of wanderers, ſerving occaſionally in the armies of contending princes, had begun to extend their ravages over the fineſt countries of Aſia.

The Chriſtian embaſſies were managed chiefly by monks a wandering profeſſion of men, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, found their way to the remote courts of theſe infidels. The Engliſh philoſopher Roger Bacon, was ſo induſtrious as to collect from their relations or traditions many particulars of the Tartars, which are to be found in Purchas's Pilgrim, and other books of travels. The firſt regular traveller of the monkiſh kind, who committed his diſcoveries to writing, was John du Plant Carpin, who with ſome of his brethren, about the year 1246, carried a letter from pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Chriſtian ſubjects in that prince's extenſive dominions. Soon after this, a ſpirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general; and it would be no difficult matter to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, ſerved in the armies of Tamerlane, one of the greateſt princes of Tartary, whoſe conqueſts reached to the remoteſt corners of India, and that they introduced into Europe the uſe of gunpowder and artillery; the diſcovery made by a German chemiſt being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Tamerlane, who, jealous of the riſing power of the Turks, had checked their progreſs, the Chriſtian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vaſt riches of the Eaſt Indies, inſpired there countrymen with a ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery, and were the firſt that rendered a paſſage thither by ſea probable and practicable. The Portugueſe had been always famous for their application to maritime affairs; and to their diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce.

A. D. 1405.

At firſt they contented themſelves with ſhort voyages, creeping along the coaſt of Africa, diſcovering cape after cape; but by making a gradual progreſs ſouthward, they, in the year 1497, were ſo fortunate as to ſail beyond the Cape, which opened a paſſage by ſea to the eaſtern ocean, and all thoſe countries known by the names of India, China, and Japan.

While the Portugueſe were intent upon a paſſage to India by the eaſt, Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of ſailing thither by the weſt. His propoſal being condemned by his countrymen as chimerical and abſurd, he laid his ſchemes ſucceſſively before the courts of France, England, and Portugal, where he had no better ſucceſs. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the heart of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. Spain was now his only reſource; and there after eight years attendance he at length ſucceeded, through the intereſt of queen Iſabella. This princeſs was prevailed upon to patronize him by the repreſentation of Juan Perez, guardian of the monaſtery of Rabida. He was a man of conſiderable learning, and of ſome credit with queen Iſabella; and being warmly attached to Columbus, from his perſonal acquaintance with him, and knowledge of his merit, he had entered into an accurate examination of that great man's project, in conjunction with a phyſician ſettled in his neighbourhood, who was eminent for his ſkill in mathematical knowledge. This inveſtigation completely ſatisfied them, of the ſolidity of the principles on which Columbus founded his opinion, and of the probability of ſucceſs in executing the plan which he propoſed; Perez, therefore, ſo ſtrongly recommended it to queen Iſabella, that ſhe entirely entered into the ſcheme, and even generouſly offered, to the honour of her ſex, to pledge her own jewels in order to raiſe as much money

as might be required in making preparations for the voyage. But Santagel, another friend and patron of Columbus, immediately engaged to advance the ſum that was requiſite, that the queen might not be reduced to the neceſſity of having recourſe to that expedient.

Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon one of the moſt adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; and his ſailors, who were often diſcontented, at length began to inſiſt upon his return, threatening, in caſe of refuſal, to throw him overboard; but the firmneſs of the commander, and the diſcovery of land, after a paſſage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his ſurpriſe that this could not be the Indies he was in queſt of, and which he ſoon diſcovered to be a new world: of which the reader will find a more circumſtantial account in that part of the following work which treats of America.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkneſs into which ſhe had been ſunk ſince the ſubverſion of the Roman empire. Theſe diſcoveries, from which ſuch wealth was deſtined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were ſucceeded by others of unſpeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and ſciences; and, laſtly, the happy reformation in religion, all diſtinguiſh the 15th and 16th centuries as the firſt æra of modern hiſtory. A. D 1450. "It was in theſe ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political ſyſtem, in which each took a ſtation, wherein it has ſince remained, with leſs variation than could have been expected, after the ſhocks occaſioned by ſo many internal revolutions, and ſo many foreign wars, of which we have given ſome account in the hiſtory of each particular ſtate, in the following work. The great events which happened then have not hitherto ſpent their force. The political principles and maxims then eſtabliſhed, ſtill continue to operate; and the ideas concerning the balance of power then introduced or rendered general, ſtill influence, in ſome degree, the councils of European nations.

From all which it ſeems extremely certain, that the concurrence of ſo many rival princes will always prevent any one of them from gaining the empire over Europe. But it is no leſs certain, that, in contending for it, they muſt weaken their own force, and may at length render themſelves incapable of defending even their juſt poſſeſſions. The partial conqueſts they may make are extremely illuſive; inſtead of promoting, they rather oppoſe their deſigns: the more any kingdom is extended, it becomes the weaker; and great projects have not been ſo often executed by ſlow reiterated efforts, as in the courſe of a few years, and ſometimes by a ſingle expedition. A prince may form a deliberate plan of deſtroying the rights of his ſubjects; he may proceed by ſlow degrees in the execution of it, and if he die before it is completed, his ſucceſſor may purſue the ſame ſteps, and avail himſelf of what was done before him. But external conqueſts cannot be concealed; they generally occaſion more fear than hurt, and are almoſt always leſs ſolid than brilliant. Hence the alarms they excite, the confederacies they give occaſion to, by which the prince, who by misfortune has been a conqueror, is commonly reduced to the laſt extremities. This doctrine, however contrary to the prejudices of a powerful and victorious nation, is one of the beſt eſtabliſhed in the ſcience of politics. It is confirmed by examples both ancient and modern. The ſtates of Greece in particular, delivered from the terror of the Perſian invaſions, exhibit the ſame truth in a great variety of lights. There was not one of the moſt inconſiderable of theſe little ſocietes, but in its turn imbibed the phrenzy of conqueſt, and in its turn too was reduced by this phrenzy to the utmoſt

miſery and diſtreſs *. The modern examples are ſo well known that it is almoſt unneceſſary to mention them. Who does not know that the houſe of Auſtria † excited the terror of all Europe, before it excited the pity of Great Britain! Had that family never been the object of fear, the empreſs queen would never have become the object of compaſſion. France affords an example not leſs ſtriking. The nerves of that kingdom were ſtrained ſo far beyond their ſtrength, by an ambitious monarch, that it ſeemed hardly poſſible they ſhould acquire their natural tone in the courſe of this century. The debility of their efforts in the war of 1756 proved the greatneſs of the evil, and the inefficacy of any remedy which is not ſlow and gradual.

Of all the kingdoms of Europe, Great Britain for a long time enjoyed the greateſt degree of proſperity and glory. She ought, therefore, to have been the more attentive to preſerve ſo brilliant an exiſtence. A great empire cannot be continued in a happy ſituation, but by wiſdom and moderation. Every attempt to extend her dominions muſt be attended with two infallible conſequences: the firſt to alarm her neighbours; the ſecond, to augment her armies. The augmentation of armies may, in time, endanger our conſtitution; and the farther our conqueſts are removed from home, this danger becomes the greater, as thoſe armies will ſoon, by living in a diſtant climate, loſe all affection for their native country. Without entering into the labyrinth of political diſputes, it will be acknowledged, that the unhappy conteſt of Great Britain with the American colonies has plunged her into difficulties; her national debt has been augmented to a prodigious height, and her taxes greately encreaſed.

PART. III.

OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF RELIGION.

DEITY is an awful object, and has ever rouſed the attention of mankind; but they being incapable of elevating their ideas to all the ſublimity of his perfections, have too often brought down his perfections to the level of their own ideas. This is more particularly true with regard to thoſe nations whoſe religion had no other foundation but the natural feelings, and more often the irregular paſſions, of the human heart, and who had received no light from heaven reſpecting this important object. In deducing the hiſtory of religion, therefore, we muſt make the ſame diſtinction which we have hitherto obſerved in tracing the progreſs of arts, ſciences, and of civilization among mankind. We muſt ſeparate what is human from what is divine; what had its origin from particular revelations, from what is

* The reader who would ſee this ſubject fully illuſtrated, may look at Iſocrates' Oration on the Peace; one of the moſt finiſhed models of ancient eloquence; and which contains a rich fund of political knowledge.

† Germany, Holland, and all the Low Countries, ſeveral ſtates in Italy, the kingdom of Spain, with the vaſt empires of Mexico and Peru in South America, were, at the time of the Reformation, governed by Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria: territories which, though exceeding in riches and extent the moſt powerful empires of antiquity, did not gratify the ambition of that monarch; and his whole reign was a ſcene of hoſtility againſt his neighbours. One of his ſucceſſors, the late empreſs queen, and the repreſentative of that family, was, however, upon the death of her father, not only ſtripped of her dominions, but reduced ſo low as to be in the want of neceſſaries; and contributions were actually raiſed for her in Great Britain, whoſe king, George II. engaged in her cauſe, and at the expence of this nation reinſtated her upon the imperial throne.

the

the effect of general laws, and of the unaſſiſted operations of the human mind.

Agreeably to this diſtinction, we find, that in the firſt ages of the world, the religion of the eaſtern nations was pure and luminous. It aroſe from a divine ſource, and was not then diſfigured by human fancies or caprice. In time, however, theſe began to have their influence; the ray of tradition was obſcured, and among thoſe tribes which ſeparated at the greateſt diſtance, and in the ſmalleſt numbers, from the more improved ſocieties of men, it was altogether obliterated.

In this ſituation a particular people were ſelected by God himſelf, to be the depoſitaries of his law and worſhip; but the reſt of mankind were left to form hypotheſes upon theſe ſubjects, which were more or leſs perfect, according to an infinity of circumſtances, which cannot properly be reduced under any general heads.

The moſt common religion of antiquity, that which prevailed the longeſt, and extended the wideſt, was POLYTHEISM, or the doctrine of a plurality of gods. The rage of ſyſtem, the ambition of reducing all the phenomena of the moral world to a few general principles, has occaſioned many imperfect accounts, both of the origin and nature of this ſpecies of worſhip. For without entering into a minute detail, it is impoſſible to give an adequate idea of the ſubject; and what is ſaid upon it in general, muſt always be liable to many exceptions.

One thing, however, may be obſerved, that the polytheiſm of the ancients ſeems neither to have been the fruit of philoſophical ſpeculations, nor of diſfigured traditions, concerning the nature of the divinity. It ſeems to have ariſen during the rudeſt ages of ſociety, while the rational powers were feeble, and while mankind were under the tyranny of imagination and paſſion. It was built, therefore, ſolely upon ſentiment; as each tribe of men had their heroes, ſo likewiſe they had their gods. Thoſe heroes who led them forth to the combat, who preſided in their councils, whoſe image was engraved on the fancy, whoſe exploits were imprinted on their memory, even after death enjoyed an exiſtence in the imagination of their followers. The force of blood, of friendſhip, of affection, among rude nations, is what we cannot eaſily conceive: but the power of imagination over the ſenſes is what all men have in ſome degree experienced. Combine theſe two cauſes, and it will not appear ſtrange that the image of departed heroes ſhould have been ſeen by their companions, animating the battle, taking vengeance on their enemies, and performing, in a word, the ſame functions which they performed when alive. An appearance ſo unnatural would not excite terror among men unacquainted with evil ſpirits, and who had not learned to fear any thing but their enemies. On the contrary, it confirmed their courage, flattered their vanity, and the teſtimony of thoſe who had ſeen it, ſupported by the extreme credulity and romantic caſt of thoſe who had not, gained an univerſal aſſent among all the members of their ſociety. A ſmall degree of reflection, however, would be ſufficient to convince them, that, as their own heroes exiſted after death, it might likewiſe be the caſe of thoſe of their enemies. Two orders of gods, therefore, would be eſtabliſhed, the propitious and the hoſtile; the gods who were to be loved, and thoſe who were to be feared. But time, which wears off the impreſſions of tradition, the frequent invaſions by which the nations of antiquity were ravaged, deſolated, or tranſplanted, made them loſe the names and confound the characters of thoſe two orders of divinities, and form various ſyſtems of religion, which, though warped by a thouſand particular circumſtances, gave no ſmall indications of their firſt texture and original materials. For, in general, the gods of the ancients gave abundant proof

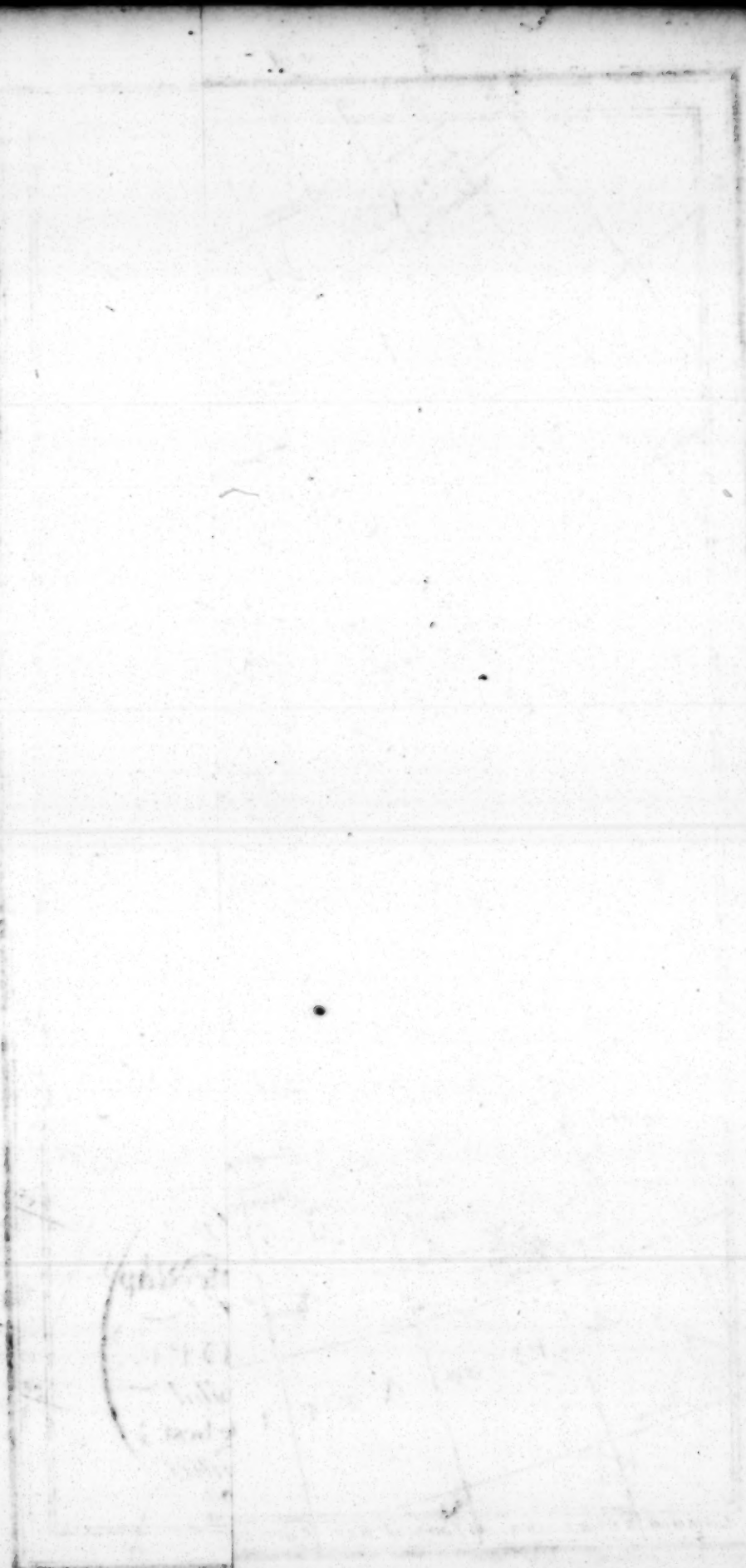
proof of human infirmity. They were ſubject to all the paſſions of men; they partook even of their partial affections, and in many inſtances diſcovered their preference of one race or nation to all others. They did not eat and drink the ſame ſubſtances with men; but they lived on nectar and ambroſia; they had a particular pleaſure in ſmelling the ſteam of the ſacrifices, and they made love with a ferocity unknown in northern climates. The rites by which they were worſhipped, naturally reſulted from their character. The moſt enlightened among the Greeks entertained nearly the ſame notion of gods and religion, with thoſe that are to be met with in the poems of Heſiod and Homer; and Anaxagoras, who flouriſhed B. C. 430 years, was the firſt even in Greece that publickly announced the exiſtence of one Creator and Governor of the univerſe.

It muſt be obſerved, however, that the religion of the ancients was not much connected, either with their private behaviour, or with their political arrangements. If we except a few fanatical ſocieties, whoſe principles do not fall within our plan, the greater part of mankind were extremely tolerant in their principles. They had their own gods who watched over them; their neighbours, they imagined, alſo had theirs; and there was room enough in the univerſe for both to live together in good fellowſhip, without interfering or joſtling with one another.

The introduction of Chriſtianity, by inculcating the unity of God, by announcing the purity of his character, and by explaining the ſervice he required of men, produced a total alteration in their religious ſentiments and belief. But this is not the place for handling this ſublime ſubject. It is ſufficient to obſerve here, that a religion which was founded on the unity of the Deity, which admitted of no aſſociation with falſe gods, muſt either be altogether deſtroyed, or become the prevailing belief of mankind. The latter was the caſe. Chriſtianity made its way among the civilized part of mankind, by the ſublimity of its doctrine and precepts; it required not the aid of human power; it ſuſtained itſelf by the truth and wiſdom by which it was characteriſed. But in time it became corrupted by the introduction of worldly maxims, of maxims very inconſiſtent with the precepts of its divine author, and by the ambition of the clergy.

The management of whatever related to the church being naturally conferred on thoſe who had eſtabliſhed it, firſt occaſioned the elevation and then the domination of the clergy, and the exorbitant claims of the biſhop of Rome, over all the members of the Chriſtian world. It is impoſſible to deſcribe within our narrow limits, all the concomitant cauſes, ſome of which were extremely delicate, by which this ſpecies of univerſal monarchy was eſtabliſhed. The biſhops of Rome, by being removed from the control of the Roman emperors, then reſiding in Conſtantinople; by borrowing, with little variation, the religious ceremonies and rites eſtabliſhed among the heathen world, and otherwiſe working on the credulous minds of barbarians, by whom that empire began to be diſmembered; and by availing themſelves of every circumſtance which fortune threw in their way, ſlowly erected the fabric of the antichriſtian power, at firſt an object of veneration, and afterwards of terror to all temporal princes. The cauſes of its happy diſſolution are more palpable, and operated with greater activity. The moſt efficacious were the invention of printing, the rapid improvement of arts, government, and commerce, which, after many ages of barbarity, made its way into Europe. The ſcandalous lives of thoſe who called themſelves the "*miniſters of Jeſus Chriſt*," their ignorance and tyranny, the deſire natural

to




NORTHERN
Arctic Circle
ATLANTIC OCEAN
WESTERN
BRITISH SEAS
GERMAN OCEAN
ENGLISH CHANNEL
BAY OF BISCAY
MEDITERRANEAN
Faro Isles
Shetland Isles
Orkney Isles
Edinburgh
Dublin
Paris
Madrid
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
Corsica
Minorca
Majorca
Sardinia
Sicily
Malta
Naples
Berlin
Hamburg
Vienna
Warsaw
Cracow
Prague
Trieste
Venice
Turin
Geneva
Switzerland
Bohemia
Hungary
Tripoli
Barbary
Morocco
Gibraltar
Straits of Gibraltar
Cadiz
Carthagena
Tagus R.
Mt. Etna
Syracuse
G. of Sidra
C. Rasat
Long. West 5 from London.
Longitude East 5 from London.


An Accurate Map of EUROPE, Compiled (from the best) Authorities. 1796.
OCEAN
SWEDEN
RUSSIA
POLAND
HUNGARY
TURKEY
BLACK SEA
CASPIAN SEA
ARCHIPELAGO
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Petersburgh
Moscow
Kiow
Constantinople
Cairo
Alexandria
Cyprus
Candia
Morea
Azof
Astracan
Tarku
Aleppo
Damascus
Jerusalem
Tripoli
Smyrna
Sinope
Erzerum
Trebizond
Warsaw
Cracow
Vienna
Buda
Venice
Naples
Rhodes
G. of Sidra


An Accurate Map of EUROPE, Compiled (from the best) Authorities. 1796.
OCEAN
Archangel
Petersburgh
Moskow
Kiow
Smolensko
Constantinople
BLACK SEA
Cyprus
Cairo
Azof
Wolga R.
Don R.
Dwina R.
Aleppo
Tripoli
Damascus
Jerusalem
Gaza
Tarku
Derbend
Sinope
Erzerum
Smyrna
Mania
Balaklava
Kertinskoi
Pomolia
Kargopol
Vologda
Romanow
Kostroma
Tver
Kazan
Wiatka
Viatka
Ufa
Saratow
Astrakan
Caffa
Kaffa
Taganrok
Azof
Kuban R.
Terek R.
Kislar
Derbent
Baku
Ganja
Tiflis
Erivan
Nakshivan
Mosul
Bagdad
Orfa
Mecca
Medina
Suez
Alexandria
Rosetta
Grand Cairo
Old Cairo
Gulf of Suez
Red Sea
Arabia
Persia
CASPIAN SEA
EUROPEAN RUSSIA
ASIATIC RUSSIA
Nova Zembla I.
Kolguef I.
Lapland
Finland
Sweden
Norway
Russia
Poland
Turkey
Asia
Africa
Arabia
Persia
Tartary
India
Egypt
Nubia
Abyssinia
Barbary
Algiers
Tripoli
Tunis
Morocco
Fez
Mequinez
Tangier
Gibraltar
Ceuta
Malaga
Granada
Cadiz
Seville
Lisbon
Portugal
Spain
Madrid
Toledo
Valencia
Barcelona
Saragossa
Pampeluna
Bilboa
Bayonne
Bordeaux
Nantes
Rochelle
Rochefort
Brest
Paris
Orleans
Rouen
Calais
Dieppe
Boulogne
Dunkirk
Ostend
Antwerp
Brussels
Ghent
Bruges
Ostend
Amsterdam
Rotterdam
Utrecht
Leyden
Hague
Flushing
Middleburg
Helvoetsluys
Groningen
Embden
Oldenburg
Bremen
Hamburgh
Lubeck
Wismar
Rostock
Stettin
Dantzic
Konigsberg
Memel
Riga
Revel
Narva
Petersburgh
Archangel
Onega L.
Ladoga L.
Peipus L.
Wenern L.
Wetter L.
Wenner L.
Hielmar L.
Wener L.
Wetter L.

to ſovereigns of delivering themſelves from a foreign yoke, the opportunity of applying to national objects the immenſe wealth which had been diverted to the ſervice of the church in every kingdom of Europe, conſpired with the ardour of the firſt reformers, and haſtened the progreſs of the Reformation. The unreaſonableneſs of the claims of the church of Rome was demonſtrated; many of their doctrines were proved to be equally unſcriptural and irrational; and ſome of their abſurd mummeries and ſuperſtitions were expoſed both by argument and ridicule. The ſervices of the reformers in this reſpect give them a juſt claim to our veneration; but, involved as they had themſelves been in the darkneſs of ſuperſtition, it was not to be expected that they ſhould be able wholly to free themſelves from errors; they ſtill retained an attachment to ſome abſurd doctrines, and preſerved too much of the intolerant ſpirit of the church from which they had ſeparated themſelves. With all their defects they are entitled to our admiration and eſteem; and the reformation begun by Luther in Germany, in the year 1517, and which took place in England A. D. 1534, was an event highly favourable to the civil as well as to the religious rights of mankind.

We ſhall now proceed to the main part of our work, beginning with EUROPE.

EUROPE.

EUROPE, though the leaſt extenſive quarter of the globe, containing, according to Zimmerman, 2,627,574 * ſquare miles, whereas the habitable parts of the world, in the other quarters, are eſtimated at 36,666,806 ſquare miles, is, in many reſpects, that which moſt deſerves our attention. There the human mind has made the greateſt progreſs towards improvement; and there the arts, whether of utility or ornament, the ſciences both military and civil, have been carried to the greateſt perfection. If we except the earlieſt ages of the world, it is in Europe that we find the greateſt variety of character, government, and manners, and from whence we draw the greateſt number of facts and memorials, either for our entertainment or inſtruction.

Geography diſcovers to us two circumſtances with regard to Europe, which perhaps have had a conſiderable tendency in giving it the ſuperiority over the reſt of the world. Firſt, the happy temperature of its climate, no part of it lying within the torrid zone; and ſecondly, the great variety of its ſurface. The effect of a moderate climate, both on plants and animals, is well known from experience. The immenſe number of mountains, rivers, ſeas, &c. which divide the different countries of Europe from one another, is likewiſe extremely commodious for its inhabitants. Theſe natural boundaries check the progreſs of conqueſt or deſpotiſm, which has always been ſo rapid in the extenſive plains of Africa and the Eaſt: the ſeas and rivers facilitate the intercourſe and commerce between different nations; and even the barren rocks and mountains are more favourable for exciting human induſtry and invention, than the natural unſolicited luxuriancy of more fertile ſoils. There is no part of Europe ſo diverſified in its ſurface, ſo interrupted by natural boundaries or diviſions, as Greece: and we have ſeen that it was

* See Zimmerman's Political Survey of Europe, p. 5.

there the human mind began to know and to avail itſelf of its ſtrength, and that many of the arts, ſubſervient to utility or pleaſure, were invented or at leaſt greatly improved. What Greece therefore is with regard to Europe, Europe itſelf is with regard to the reſt of the globe. The analogy may even be carried farther, and it is worth while to attend to it. As ancient Greece (for we do not ſpeak of Greece as it is at preſent, under the domination of Turks and unnatural tyranny of Barbarians) was diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt of Europe for the equity of its laws, and the freedom of its political conſtitution: ſo has Europe in general been remarkable for ſmaller deviations, at leaſt from the laws of nature and equality, than have been admitted in other quarters of the world. Though moſt of the European governments are monarchical, we may diſcover, on due examination, that there are a thouſand little ſprings, which check the force and ſoften the rigour of monarchy in Europe, that do not exiſt any where elſe. In proportion to the number and force of theſe checks, the monarchies of Europe, ſuch as Ruſſia, France, Spain, and Denmark, differ from one another. Beſides *monarchies*, in which one man bears the chief ſway, there are in Europe, *ariſtocracies* or governments of the nobles, and *democracies* or governments of the people. Venice is an example of the former; Holland, and ſome ſtates of Italy and Switzerland, afford examples of the latter. There are likewiſe mixed governments, which cannot be aſſigned to any one claſs. Great Britain, which partakes of all the three, is the moſt ſingular inſtance of this kind we are acquainted with. The other mixed governments of Europe are compoſed only of two of the ſimple forms, ſuch as Poland, ſeveral ſtates of Italy; all which ſhall be explained at length in their proper places.

The Chriſtian religion is eſtabliſhed throughout every part of Europe, except Turkey; but from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which ſpeculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by perſons of different educations and paſſions, that religion is divided into a number of different ſects, but which may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1ſt, The Greek church; 2d, Popery: and 3d, Proteſtantiſm: which laſt is again divided into Lutheraniſm and Calviniſm, ſo called from Luther and Calvin, the two diſtinguiſhed reformers of the 16th century.

The languages of Europe are divided into the ſix following: the Greek, Latin, Teutonic or old German, the Celtic, Sclavonic, and Gothic.

GRAND

GRAND DIVISIONS OF EUROPE.

THIS grand diviſion of the earth is ſituated between the 10th degree weſt, and the 65th degree eaſt longitude from London, and between the 36th and 72d degree of north latitude. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen ocean; on the eaſt, by Aſia; on the ſouth, by the Mediterranean ſea, which divides it from Africa; and on the weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America, being 3000 miles long; from Cape St. Vincent in the weſt, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north eaſt; and 2500 broad from north to ſouth, from the North Cape in Norway, to Cape Cayba or Metapar in the Morea, the moſt ſouthern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and ſtates:

	Kingdoms.	Len.	Bth	Chief City.	Diſt. & Bearing from London.	Diff. of Time from London.	Religions
					Miles.	H M.	
Britiſh Empire.	England	380	300	London	* * *	* * *	Calviniſts, Luth. &c.
	Scotland	300	150	Edinburgh	400 N.	0 12 aft.	Calviniſts, &c.
	Ireland	285	160	Dublin	270 N. W.	0 26 aft.	Calviniſts, & Papiſts
	Norway	1000	300	Bergen	540 N	0 24 bef.	Lutherans.
	Denmark	240	180	Copenhagen	500 N E.	0 50 bef.	Lutherans.
	Sweden	800	500	Stockholm	960 N. E.	1 10 bef.	Lutherans.
	Ruſſia	1500	1100	Peterſburgh	1140 N E	2 4 bef.	Greek Church.
	Poland	700	680	Warſaw	760 E	1 24 bef.	Pap. Luth. & Calv.
	K. of Pr. Dom.	609	350	Berlin	540 E	0 59 bef.	Luth & Calv.
	Germany	600	500	Vienna	600 E.	1 5 bef	Pap Luth. & Calv.
	Bohemia	300	250	Prague	600 E	1 4 bef.	Papiſts.
Nether-lands.	Holland	150	100	Amſterdam	180 E	0 18 bef	Calviniſts.
	Flanders	200	200	Bruſſels	180 S. E	0 16 bef.	Papiſts
	France	600	500	Paris	200 S E.	0 9 bef.	Papiſts.
	Spain	700	500	Madrid	800 S.	0 17 aft.	Papiſts
	Portugal	300	100	Liſbon	850 S. W	0 38 aft.	Papiſts.
	Switzerland	260	100	Bern, Cuire, &c.	420 S. E.	0 28 bef.	Calv. and Papiſts.
Italy.	Several ſmall ſtates, Piedm. Monferat, Milan, Parma, Modena Mant. Venice Genoa, Tuſc. &c.						
	Chief Cities — Turin, Caſal, Milan, Parma, Modena, Mant. Venice, Genoa, Florence.						
	Pope.dom	240	120	Rome	820 S. E.	0 50 bef.	Papiſts.
	Naples	280	120	Naples	870 S. E.	1 0 bef.	Papiſts.
	Hungary	300	2000	Buda	780 S E	1 17 bef.	Pap. & Proteſtants.
Turkey in Europe.	Danubian Provinces	600	420	Conſtantinople.	1320 S. E	1 58 bef.	Mahometans and Greek Church.
	Lit. Tartary*	380	240	Precop	1500 E.	2 24 bef.	
	Greece	400	240	Athens	1360 S. E.	1 37 bef.	

* This includes the Crim Tartary, now ceded to Ruſſia: for the particulars of which, ſee RUSSIA.

Excluſive of the Britiſh iſles before mentioned, Europe contains the following principal iſlands:

	Iſlands.	Chief Town.	Subject to
In the Northern Ocean.	Iceland	Skalholt	Denmark
Baltic Sea	Zealand, Funen, Alſen, Falſter, Langland, Laland, Femeren, Mona, Bornholm	——	Denmark
	Gothland, Aland, Rogen,	——	Sweden
	Oſel, Dagho,	——	Ruſſia
	Uſedom, Wollin,	——	Pruſſia
Mediterranean Sea	Ivica,	Ivica	Spain
	Majorca,	Majorca	Ditto
	Minorca,	Port Mahon	Ditto *
	Corſica	Baſtia	France.
	Sardinia,	Cagliari	K. of Sard.
	Sicily,	Palermo	K of 2 Sic
Adriatic, or Gulph of Venice	Luſiena, Corfu, Cephalonia Zant, Leucadia,	——	Venice.
Archipelago, and Levant Seas	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Sycros, Mytelene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Cerigo, Santorin, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece,	——	Turkey.

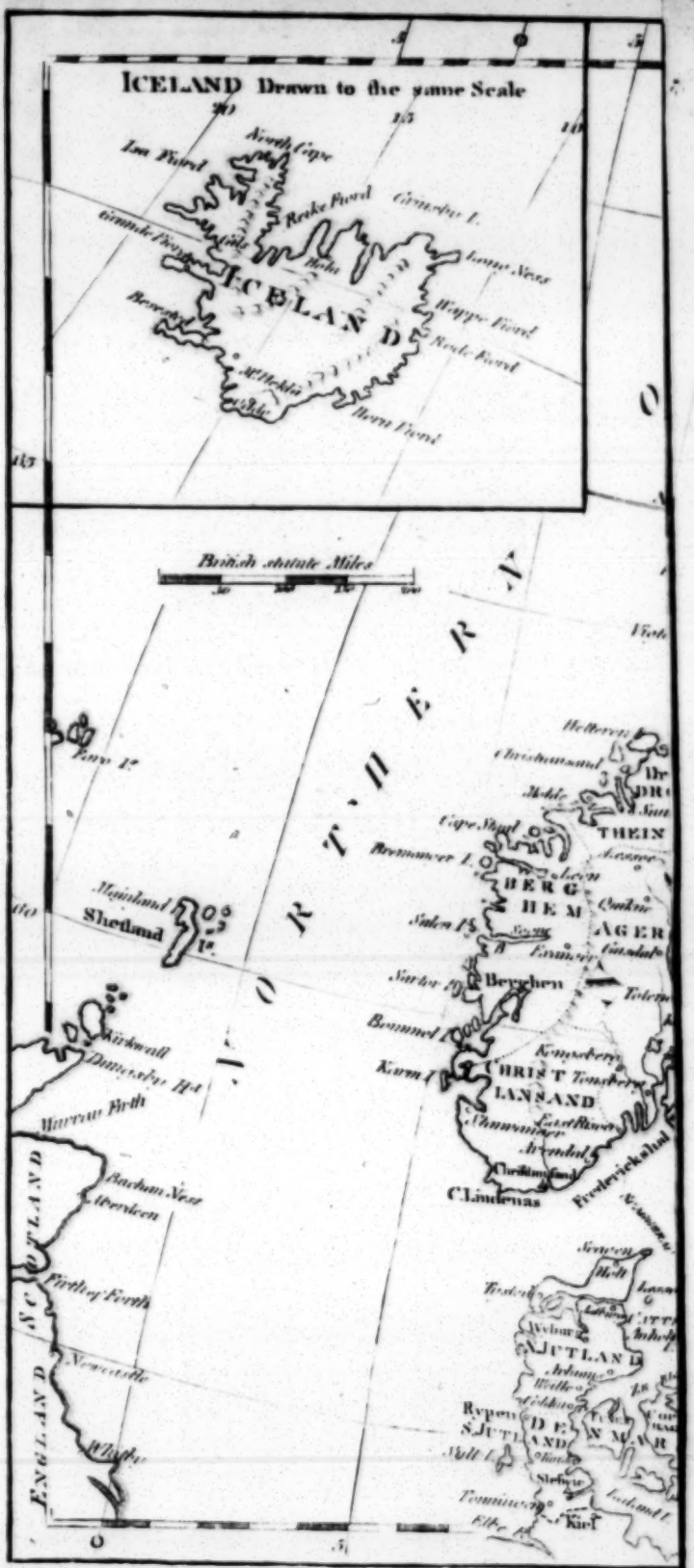
DENMARK.

I Shall, according to my plan, begin this account of his Daniſh Majeſty's dominions with the moſt northerly ſituations, and divide them into four parts: 1ſt, Eaſt and Weſt Greenland, Iceland, and the iſlands in the Atlantic Ocean; 2d, Norway; 3d, Denmark Proper; and 4th, his German territories.

The dimenſions of theſe countries may be ſeen in the following table.

Denmark.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Denmark Proper.	North Jutland,	9,600	155	98	Wyburg.
	South Jutland, or Sleſwick,	2,115	70	63	Sleſwick.
Iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic Sea,	Zealand,	1,935	60	60	Copenhagen. N. Lat. 55 41. E. Lon. 12 50.
	Funen,	768	38	32	Odonſee.
	Falſterland Langland.	200	27	12	Nikoping. Naxkaw.
	Femeren,	50	13	8	Borge.
	Alſen,	54	15	6	Sonderborge.
	Mona,	39	14	5	Stege.
	Bornholm,	160	20	12	Roſtcomby.
In the North Seas.	Iceland iſland	46,000	435	185	Skalholt.
Daniſh	Norway,	71,400	750	170	Bergen.
	Lapland,	28,400	285	172	Wardhuys.
Weſtphalia,	Oldenburgh,	1260	61	32	Oldenburgh.
Lower Saxony,	Stormar,	1000	52	32	Gluckſtadt.
	Daniſh Holſtein				
	Total	163,041			

* Minorca was taken from Spain by General Stanhope, 1708, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, 1715, but was beſieged and taken by the Spaniards February 15. 1782, and confirmed to them by the definitive treaty of Peace, ſigned at Paris, September 3. 1783.


ICELAND Drawn to the same Scale
North Cape
Iona Point
Reike Point
Grimsey I.
Langa Ness
ICELAND
Wiggo Point
Reik Point
Horn Point
British statute Miles
Pentland Ft.
Mainland
Shetland Is.
Kirkwall
Dunnesby Hd.
Murray Firth
Buchan Ness
Aberdeen
Firthey Forth
Newcastle
Whitby
ENGLAND
SCOTLAND
Bergen
Christiansand
Lanesand
Christiansand
Frederickshald
Skagen
Aalborg
JUTLAND
Ribe
Tonningen
Kiel
Elbe R.


ICELAND Drawn to the same Scale
ICELAND
British statute Miles
NORTH SEA
Shetland
Bergen
Christiania
Drontheim
SWEDEN
GOTHLAND
JUTLAND
Christianstad
Rugen
Kiel
Elbe R.
SCOTLAND
ENGLAND
BALTIC


SWEDEN
DENMARK NORWAY
and FINLAND
WHITE SEA
GULF of FINLAND
GULF of BOTHNIA
BALTIC SEA
RUSSIAN LAPLAND
FINLAND
ESTHONIA
LIVONIA
COURLAND
POLAND
PRUSSIA
RUSSIA
Kola
Archangel
Onega Lake
Ladoga Lake
PETERSBURG
Riga
Memel
Konigsburg
Wasa
Abo
Aland I.
Gothland I.
Oeland I.
Stockholm
Upsal
Nykoping
Christianstad
Carlscrona
Copenhagen
Elsinore
Helsingborg
Gottenburg
Uddevalla
Christiansand
Stavanger
Bergen
Drontheim
Hammerfest
North C.
Kolguev
Nova Zembla
Archangel
Mezen
Pustozera
Kolmogori
Kemi
Uleaborg
Brahestad
Tornea
Pitea
Lulea
Umea
Hernosand
Gefle
Upsal
Stockholm
Nykoping
Linkoping
Carlscrona
Gottland I.
Oeland I.
Christianstad
Malmoe



The reader may perceive, that in the preceding table no calculation is made of the dimenſions of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland; becauſe, in fact, they are not yet known, or known very imperfectly: we ſhall proceed to give the lateſt accounts of them, and from the beſt authorities that have come to our hands.

EAST AND WEST GREENLAND, ICELAND, AND THE ISLANDS IN THE ATLANTIC OCEAN.

EAST GREENLAND.

THE moſt northerly part of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, or, as others call it, New Greenland, and the country of Spitzbergen, lies between 11 and 25 deg. E. long. and 76 and 80 deg. N. Lat. according to capt. Phipp's obſervations in his voyage, 1773. Though it is now claimed by Denmark, it certainly was diſcovered by ſir Hugh Willoughby in 1553; and is ſuppoſed to be a continuation of Old Greenland. It obtained the name of Spitzbergen from the height and raggedneſs of its rocks. Few animals or vegetables are to be found here, and the fiſh and foul are ſaid to forſake the coaſt in winter. The Ruſſians of Archangel have formed, within the laſt 30 years ſettlements for hunting in ſeveral places of the iſland of Spitzbergen. The Aurora Borealis, or northern lights reflected from the ſnow, enabled them to purſue the chace during the long winter's night that reigns in theſe gloomy regions, and they take a great number of ſea-lions, which ſerve them for food. There is a whale fiſhery, chiefly proſecuted by the Dutch and ſome Britiſh veſſels, on its coaſts. It likewiſe contains two harbours; one called South Haven, and the other Maurice Bay; but the inland parts are uninhabited.

WEST GREENLAND.

LIES between the meridian of London, and 53 deg. W. long. and between 60 and 76 deg. N. lat.

INHABITANTS.] By the lateſt accounts from the miſſionaries employed for the converſion of the Greenlanders, their whole number does not amount to above 957 ſtated inhabitants: Mr. Crants, however, thinks the roving ſouthlanders of Greenland may amount to about 7000. There is a great reſemblance between the aſpect, manners, and dreſs of thoſe natives, and the Eſquimaux Americans, from whom they naturally differ but little, even after all the pains which the Daniſh and German miſſionaries have taken to convert and civilize them. They are low of ſtature, few exceeding five feet in height, and the generality are not ſo tall. The hair of their heads is long, ſtraight, and of a black colour; but they have ſeldom any beards, becauſe it is their conſtant practice to root them out. They have high breaſts and broad ſhoulders, eſpecially the women, who are obliged to carry great burthens from their younger years. They are very light and nimble of foot, and can alſo uſe their hands with much ſkill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers, but they are good humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their moſt agreeable food is the fleſh of reindeer; but that is now ſcarce among them, and their beſt proviſions are fiſh, ſeals, and ſea-fowl. Their drink is clear water, which ſtands in the houſe in a large copper veſſel, or in a wooden tub, which is very neatly made by them, ornamented with fiſh bones and rings, and provided with a pewter ladle or dipping diſh. The men make their hunting and fiſhing implements, and prepare the wood work of their boats: and the women cover them with ſkins.

The

The men hunt and fiſh, but when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themſelves no farther about it nay it would be accounted beneath their dignity only to draw the ſeal up upon the ſhore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and alſo the curriers to dreſs the pelts, and make cloaths, ſhoes, and boots, out of them; ſo that they are likewiſe both ſhoemakers and taylors. The women alſo build and repair the houſes and tents, ſo far as relates to the maſonry, the men doing only the carpenter's work. They live in huts during their winter, which is incredibly ſevere; but Mr. Crantz, who has given us the lateſt and beſt accounts of this country, ſays that, in their longeſt ſummer days it is ſo hot, from the long continuance of the ſun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their ſummer garments. They have no trade, though they have a moſt improveable fiſhery upon their coaſts; but they employ all the year either in fiſhing or hunting; in which they are very dexterous, particularly in catching and killing ſeals.

Curiosities.] The taking of whales in the ſeas of Greenland, among the fields of ice that have been increaſing for ages, is one of the greateſt curioſities in nature. Theſe fields, or pieces of ice, are frequently more than a mile in length, and upwards of a 100 feet in thickneſs; and when they are put in motion by a ſtorm, nothing can be more terrible; the Dutch had 13 ſhips cruſhed to pieces by them in one ſeaſon.

There are ſeveral kind of whales in Greenland; ſome white, and others black. The black ſort, the grand bay whale, is in moſt eſteem on account of his bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber he affords, which turns to oil. His tongue is about 18 feet long, incloſed in long pieces of what we call whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair, like horſe-hair; and on each ſide of his tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone, The bones of his body are as hard as an ox's bones,-and of no uſe There are no teeth in his mouth and he is uſually between 60 and 80 feet long; very thick about the head: but grows leſs from thence to the tail.

When the ſeamen ſee a whale ſpout, the word is immediately given, *fall, fall*, when every one haſtens from the ſhip to his boat: ſix or eight men being appointed to a boat, and four or five boats uſually belong to one ſhip.

When they come near the whale, the harpooner ſtrikes him with his harpoon (a barbed dart), and the monſter, finding himſelf wounded, runs ſwiftly down into the deep, and would carry the boat along with him if they did not give him line faſt enough; and to prevent the wood of the boat taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope on the ſide of it, one wets it conſtantly with a mop. After the whale has run ſome hundred fathoms deep, he is forced to come up for air, when he makes ſuch a terrible noiſe with his ſpouting, that ſome have compared it to the firing of cannon. As ſoon as he appears on the ſurface of the water, ſome of the harpooners fix another harpoon in him, whereupon he plunges again into the deep; and when he comes up a ſecond time, they pierce him with ſpears in the vital parts, till he ſpouts out ſtreams of blood inſtead of water, beating the waves with his tail and fins till the ſea is all in a foam, the boats continuing to follow him ſome leagues, till he has loſt his ſtrength; and when he is dying he turns himſelf upon his back, and is drawn on ſhore or to the ſhip, if they be at a diſtance from the land. There they cut him in pieces, and by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on ſhore; otherwiſe they barrel up the pieces and bring them home: but nothing can ſmell ſtronger than theſe ſhips do. Every fiſh is computed to yield between 60 and 100 barrels of oil, of the value of 3l. or 4l. a barrel. Though the Danes claim the country of Eaſt and Weſt Greenland, where theſe whales are

are taken, the Dutch have in a manner monopoliſed this fiſhery. Of late the Engliſh have become formidable rivals in this trade.

ICELAND.

THIS iſland lies between 63 and 68 deg. N. Latitude, and between 10 and 26 deg. W. Longitude; its greateſt length about 700 miles, and its breadth 300.

CLIMATE.] This country lying partly within the frigid zone, and being liable to be ſurrounded with vaſt quantities of ice that come from the Polar ſeas, is on account of the coldneſs of its climate very inhoſpitable, but much more ſo for other reaſons. It is exceedingly ſubject to earthquakes; and ſo full of volcanoes, that the little part of it which appears fit for the habitation of man, ſeems almoſt totally laid waſte by them. The climate of Iceland, however, is not unwholeſome, or naturally ſubject to exceſſive colds, notwithſtanding its northerly ſituation.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] At what time the iſland of Iceland was firſt peopled is uncertain. An Engliſh colony indeed is ſaid to have been ſettled there in the beginning of the fifth century; but of this there are not ſufficient proofs. There is, however, reaſon to ſuppoſe that the Engliſh and Iriſh were acquainted with this country under another name, long before the arrival of the Norwegians; for the celebrated Bede gives a pretty accurate deſcription of the iſland. But of theſe original inhabitants we cannot pretend to ſay any thing, as the Iceland chronicles go no farther back than the arrival of the Norwegians. Beſides the Norwegians, new colonies arrived from different nations, between whom wars ſoon commenced; and the Icelandic hiſtories are full of the accounts of their battles. Notwithſtanding theſe troubles, however, the Icelanders remained free from a foreign yoke till 1261; when the greateſt part of them put themſelves under the protection of Hakans king of Norway, promiſing to pay him tribute upon certain conditions agreed on between them; and the reſt followed their example in 1264. Afterwards, Iceland, together with Norway, became ſubject to Denmark. They were at firſt governed by an admiral, who was ſent there every year to make the neceſſary regulations: but for theſe many years, a governor has been appointed who is ſtyled *Stiftſamtmann*, and who conſtantly reſides in the country.

The number of the inhabitants of Iceland is computed at about 60,000 which is by no means adequate to the extent of the country. It has been much more populous in former times, but great numbers have been deſtroyed by contagious diſeaſes. The plague carried off many thouſands from 1402 to 1404. Many parts of Iceland have alſo been depopulated by famine; for though the Icelanders cannot in general be ſaid to be in want of neceſſary food, yet the country has ſeveral times been viſited by great famines. Theſe have been chiefly occaſioned by the Greenland floating ice; which, when it comes in great quantities, prevents the graſs from growing, and puts an entire ſtop to their fiſhing. The ſmall-pox has likewiſe been very fatal here; for in the years 1707 and 1708 that diſeaſe deſtroyed 16,000 perſons.

The Icelanders in general are middle-ſized, and well made, though not very ſtrong. They are an honeſt, well-intentioned people, moderately induſtrious, and are very faithful and obliging. Theft is ſeldom heard of among them. They are much inclined to hoſpitality, and exerciſe it as far as their poverty will permit. Their chief employment is attending to fiſhing

and the care of their cattle. On the coaſts the men employ their time in fiſhing both winter and ſummer; and the women prepare the fiſh, and ſew and ſpin. The men alſo prepare leather, work at ſeveral mechanic trades, and ſome few work in gold and ſilver. They likewiſe manufacture a coarſe kind of cloth, which they call Wadmal. They have an uncommonly ſtrong attachment to their native country, and think themſelves no where elſe ſo happy. An Icelander, therefore, ſeldom ſettles in Copenhagen, though the moſt advantageous conditions ſhould be offered him. Their diſpoſitions are ſerious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never paſs a river, or any other dangerous place, without previouſly taking off their hats, and imploring the divine protection; and they are always thankful for their preſervation, when they have paſſed the danger. When they meet together, their chief paſtime conſiſts in reading their hiſtory. The maſter of the houſe begins, and the reſt continue in their turns when he is tired. They are famous for playing at cheſs; and one of their paſtimes conſiſts in reciting verſes. Sometimes a man and woman take one another by the hand, and by turns ſing ſtanzas, which are a kind of dialogue, and in which the company occaſionally join in chorus. The dreſs of the Icelanders is not elegant or ornamental, but is neat, cleanly, and ſuited to the climate. On their fingers the women wear ſeveral gold, ſilver, or braſs rings. The poorer women dreſs in the coarſe cloth, called Wadmal, and always wear black; thoſe who are in better circumſtances wear broad cloth, with ſilver ornaments, gilt. The houſes of the Icelanders are generally bad: in ſome places they are built of drift wood, and in others they are raiſed of lava, with moſs, ſtuffed between the lava. Their roofs are covered with ſods laid over rafters, or ſometimes over ribs of whales. The walls are about three yards high and the entrance ſomewhat lower. Inſtead of glaſs windows, they make uſe of the membranes which ſurround the womb of the ewe. Theſe are ſtretched on a hoop, and laid over a hole in the roof. They have not even a chimney in their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the earth, between three ſtones, and the ſmoke iſſues from a ſquare hole in the top of the houſe. Their food principally conſiſts of dried fiſh, ſour butter, which they conſider as a great dainty, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is ſo ſcarce among them, that there is hardly any peaſant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

Religion.] The only religion tolerated in Iceland is the Lutheran. The churches on the eaſt, ſouth, and weſt quarters of the iſland, are under the juriſdiction of the biſhop of Skallholt (the capital of the iſland) and thoſe of the north quarter are ſubject to the biſhop of Hoolum. The iſland is divided into 189 pariſhes, of which 127 belong to the ſee of Skallholt, and 62 to that of Hoolum. All the miniſters are natives of Iceland, and receive a yearly ſalary of four or five hundred rix-dollars from the king, excluſive of what they have from their congregations.

Language.] The language in Iceland is the ſame as that formerly ſpoken in Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, and has been preſerved ſo pure, that any Icelander underſtands their moſt ancient traditional hiſtories.

Learning and learned men.] It is ſaid that poetry formerly flouriſhed very much in Iceland; and we are informed that Egil Skallagrimſon, Kormack Ormundſon, Glum Geirſon, and Thorlief Jarlaa were celebrated as great poets. But the art of writing was not much in uſe till after the year 1000; though the Runic characters were known in that country before that period, and moſt probably brought thither from Norway. After the reception of the Chriſtian religion, the Latin characters were immediately adopted, as the Runic alphabet, which only conſiſts of ſixteen letters was found inſufficient. The firſt Icelandiſh biſhop Iſlelif, founded a ſchool at Skalholt; and

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ſoon after they founded four other ſchools, in which the youth were inſtructed in the Latin tongue, divinity, and ſome parts of theoretic philoſophy. And from the introduction of the Chriſtian religion here till the year 1264, when Iceland became ſubject to Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, wherein the ſciences were cultivated and held in eſteem.

But this period of time ſeems to have produced more learned men in Iceland than any other period ſince. It appears from their ancient chronicles, that they had conſiderable knowledge in morality, philoſophy, natural hiſtory, and aſtronomy. Moſt of their works were written in the 11th, 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries; and ſome of them have been printed. Mr. Banks, now ſir Joſeph Banks, preſented one hundred and ſixty-two Icelandiſh manuſcripts to the Britiſh Muſeum. That gentleman viſited Iceland in 1772, accompanied by Dr. Solander, Dr. Van Troil, and Dr. Line. Dr. Van Troil, who publiſhed an account of their voyage, obſerves, that he found more knowledge among the lower claſs in Iceland, than is to be met with in moſt other places; that many of them could repeat the works of ſome of their poets by heart; and that a peaſant was ſeldom to be found, who beſides being well inſtructed in the principles of religion, was not alſo acquainted with the hiſtory of his own country; which proceeds from the frequent reading of their traditional hiſtories, that being one of their principal amuſements.

John Areſon, biſhop of Hoolum, employed John Matthieſſon, a native of Sweden, in eſtabliſhed a printing preſs in Iceland, about the year 1530; and the firſt book printed by him there was the Breviarium Nidaroſienſe. He alſo printed an eccleſiaſtical manual, Luther's catechiſm, and other books of that kind. The Icelandic code of laws appeared in 1578, and the Icelandic bible in 1584. A new privileged printing office has lately been eſtabliſhed at Hrappſey in this iſland, and at which ſeveral valuable books have been printed.

[MOUNTAINS, VOLCANOES, AND NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Iceland though ſituated ſo far to the North is remarkable for the earthquakes and volcanoes with which it abounds. To enumerate the ravages of ſo many dreadful volcanoes, which from time immemorial have contributed to render this dreary country leſs habitable than it is from the climate, would greatly exceed our limits. One of the moſt dreadful eruptions happened in 1783; its violence ſeems to be unparalleled in hiſtory; the dreadful ſcene of devaſtation laſted in Iceland for ſeveral days; the whole country was laid waſte, and the inhabitants fled every where to the remoteſt parts of their miſerable country, to ſeek for ſafety from the fury of this unparalleled tempeſt. One of theſe burning mountain, Heckla, is the beſt known, eſpecially to foreigners. This mountain, is ſituated in the ſouthern part of the iſland, about four miles from the ſea-coaſt, and is divided into three points at the top, the higheſt of which is that in the middle; and which is computed to be above 5000 feet higher than the ſea. This mountain has frequently ſent forth flames, and a torrent of burning matter. Its eruptions were particularly dreadful, in 1693, when they occaſioned terrible devaſtations, the aſhes being thrown all round the iſland to the diſtance of 180 Engliſh miles. The laſt eruption of Mount Heckla happened in 1766. It began on the 5th of April, and continued to the 7th of September following. Flames proceeded alſo from it in December 1771, and 1772; but no eruptions of lava.

But amongſt all the curioſities in Iceland, nothing is more worthy of attention than the hot ſpouting water ſprings with which this iſland abounds. The hot ſprings at Aix-la-Chapelle, Carliſbad, Bath, and Switzerland, and

ſeveral others found in Italy, are conſidered as very remarkable; but, excepting in the laſt mentioned country, the water no where becomes ſo hot as to boil; nor is it any where known to be thrown ſo high as the hot ſpouting water-ſprings in Iceland. All thoſe water-works that have been contrived with ſo much art, and at ſo enormous an expence, cannot by any means be compared with theſe. The water-works at St. Cloud, which are thought the greateſt among all the French water-works, caſt up a thin column eighty feet in the air; while ſome ſprings in Iceland ſpout columns of water, of ſeveral feet in thickneſs, to the height of many fathoms; and, as many affirm, of ſeveral hundred feet. Theſe ſprings are of an unequal degree of heat. From ſome, the water flows gently as from other ſprings, and it is then called a bath: from others, it ſpouts boiling water with great noiſe, and it is then called a kettle. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Van Troil ſays, that he does not remember ever to have obſerved it under 188 of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyſer, Rœyhum, and Laugarvatn, he found it at 212; and in the laſt place, in the ground, at a little hot current of water, 213 degrees. It is very common for ſome of the ſpouting-ſprings to ceaſe, and others to riſe up in their ſtead. Frequent earthquakes, and ſubterranean noiſes, heard at the time, cauſed great terror to the people who live in the neighbourhood. In ſeveral of theſe hot-ſprings, the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the fleſh is put in cold water, in the water of the ſpring. They alſo bathe in the rivulets that run from them, which, by degrees, become luke warm, or are cooled by their being mixed with rivulets of cold water. The cows that drink of theſe ſprings are ſaid to yield an extraordinary quantity of milk, and it is likewiſe eſteemed very wholeſome when drank by the human ſpecies.

The largeſt of all the ſpouting-ſprings in Iceland is called Geyſer. It is about two days journey from Heckla, and not far from Skalholt. In approaching towards it, a loud roaring noiſe is heard, like the ruſhing of a torrent, precipitating itſelf from ſtupendous rocks. The water here ſpouts ſeveral times a day, but always by ſtarts, and after certain intervals. Some travellers have affirmed that it ſpouts to the height of ſixty fathoms. The water is thrown up much higher at ſome times than at others; when Dr. Van Troil was there, the utmoſt height to which it mounted was computed to be 92 feet.

Baſaltine pillars are likewiſe very common in Iceland, which are ſuppoſed to have been produced by ſubterraneous fires. The lower ſort of people imagine theſe pillars to have been piled upon one another by giants, who made uſe of ſupernatural force to effect it. They have generally from three to ſeven ſides, and are from four to ſeven feet in thickneſs, and from twelve to ſixteen yards in length, without any horizontal diviſions. In ſome places they are only ſeen here and there among the lava in the mountains: but in ſome other places, they extend two or three miles in length without interruption.

There are immenſe maſſes of ice, by which every year great damage is done to this country, and which affect the climate of it; they arrive commonly with a N. W. or N. N. W. wind from Greenland. The field ice is of two or three fathoms thickneſs, is ſeparated by the winds, and leſs dreaded than the rock or mountain-ice, which is often ſeen fifty and more feet above water, and is at leaſt nine times the ſame depth below water. Theſe prodigious maſſes of ice are frequently left in ſhoal water, fixed, as it were, to the ground, and in that ſtate remain many months, nay, it is ſaid, even years; undiſſolved

diſſolved, chilling all the ambient part of the atmoſphere for many miles round. When many ſuch lofty and bulky maſſes of ice are floating together, the wood that is often drifted along between them, is ſo much chafed and preſſed with violence together, that it takes fire: which circumſtance has occaſioned fabulous accounts of the ice being in flames. The ice cauſed ſo violent a cold in 1753. and 1754, that horſes and ſheep dropped down dead on account of it, as well as for want of food: horſes were obſerved to feed upon dead cattle, and the ſheep to eat of each other's wool. A number of bears arrive yearly with the ice, which commit great ravages, particularly among the ſheep. The Icelanders attempt to deſtroy theſe intruders as ſoon as they get ſight of them: and ſometimes they aſſemble together, and drive them back to the ice, with which they often float off again. For want of fire arms, they are obliged to make uſe of ſpears on theſe occaſions. The government encourages the natives to deſtroy theſe animals, by paying a premium of ten dollars for every bear that is killed. Their ſkins are alſo purchaſed for the king, and are not allowed to be ſold to any other perſon.

It is extraordinary that no wood grows ſucceſsfully in Iceland; nay, there are very few trees to be found on the whole iſland, though there are certain proofs that wood formerly grew their in great abundance. Nor can corn be cultivated here to any advantage; though cabbages, parſley, turnips, and peas, may be met with in five or ſix gardens, which are ſaid to be all that are in the whole iſland.

TRADE.] The commerce of this iſland is monopoliſed by a Daniſh company. The ſoil upon the ſea-coaſt is tolerably good for paſture: and though there is not any conſiderable town in the whole iſland, the Icelanders have ſeveral frequented ports. Their exports conſiſt of dried fiſh, ſalted mutton and lamb, beef, butter, tallow, train-oil, coarſe woollen-cloths, ſtockings, gloves, raw wool, ſheep-ſkins, lamb-ſkins, fox furs of various colours, eider-down, and feathers. Their imports conſiſt of timber, fiſhing-lines and hooks, tobacco, bread, horſe-ſhoes, brandy, wine, ſalt, linen, and a little ſilk; excluſive of ſome neceſſaries and ſuperfluities for the more wealthy.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] As Iceland affords no bait for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely upon his Daniſh majeſty's protection; and the revenue he draws from the country amounts to about 30,000 crowns a year.

THE FARO OR FERRO ISLANDS.

SO called from their lying in a cluſter, and the inhabitants ferrying from one iſland to another. They are about 24 in number, and lie between 61 and 63 deg. N. L. and 6° 10′ W. long, from London. The ſpace of this cluſter, extends about 60 miles in length and 40 in breadth, 300 miles to the weſtward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the ſouth-eaſt, and Greenland and Iceland upon the north and north-weſt. The trade and income of the inhabitants, who may be about 3000 or 4000, add little or nothing to the revenues of Denmark.

NORWAY.

Containing 158,400 ſquare miles, with leſs than 4 inhabitants to each.

NAME, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] THE natural ſignification of Norway is the *Northern-way*. It is bounded on the South by the entrance into the Baltic called the Scaggerac, or Categate; on the Weſt and North by the northern ocean; and on the eaſt it is divided from Sweden by a long ridge of mountains, called at different parts by different names; as Fillefield, Dofrefield, Runfield, and Dourfield. The reader may conſult the table of dimenſions in Denmark for its extent; but it is a country ſo little known to the reſt of Europe, that it is difficult to fix its dimenſions with preciſion.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Norway varies according to its extent, and its poſition towards the ſea. At Bergen the winter is moderate, and the ſea is practicable. The eaſtern parts of Norway are commonly covered with ſnow; and the cold generally ſets in about the middle of October, with intenſe ſeverity to the middle of April; the waters being all that while frozen to a conſiderable thickneſs. In 1719, 7000 Swedes, who were on their march to attack Drontheim, periſhed in the ſnow, on the mountain which ſeparates Sweden from Norway; and their bodies were found in different poſtures. But even froſt and ſnow have their conveniencies, as they facilitate the conveyance of goods by land. As to the more northern parts of this country, called Finmark, the cold is ſo intenſe, that they are but little known. At Bergen the longeſt day conſiſts of about 19 hours, and the ſhorteſt of about five. In ſummer, the inhabitants can read and write at midnight by the light of the ſky; and in the moſt northerly parts, about Midſummer, the ſun is continually in view. In thoſe parts, however, in the middle of winter, there is only a faint glimmering of light at noon for about an hour and a half; owing to the reflection of the ſun's rays on the mountains. Nature, notwithſtanding has been ſo kind to the Norwegians, that in the midſt of their darkneſs, the ſky is ſo ſerene, and the moon and the aurora borealis ſo bright, that they can carry on their fiſhery, and work at their ſeveral trades in the open air.

The air is ſo pure in ſome of the inland parts that it has been ſaid the inhabitants live ſo long as to be tired of life, and cauſe themſelves to be tranſported to a leſs ſalubrious air. Sudden thaws, and ſnow-falls, have, however, ſometimes dreadful effects, and deſtroy whole villages.

MOUNTAINS.] Norway is reckoned one of the moſt mountainous countries in the world; for it contains a chain of unequal mountains running from ſouth to north: to paſs that of Ardanger, a man muſt travel about ſeventy Engliſh miles; to paſs others upwards of fifty. Dofrefield is counted the higheſt mountain, perhaps in Europe. The rivers and cataracts which interſect thoſe dreadful precipices, and that are paſſable only by ſlight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous; though the government is at the expence of providing at different ſtages houſes accomodated with fire, light and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vaſt chain, other immenſe mountains preſent themſelves all over Norway; ſome of them with reſervoirs of water on the top; and the whole forming a moſt ſurpriſing landſcape. The activity of the natives in recovering their ſheep and goats, when penned up, through a falſe ſtep, in one of thoſe rocks, is wonderful. The owner directs himſelf to be lowered down from the top of the mountain, ſitting on a croſs ſtick, tied to

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the end of a long rope; and when he arrives at the place where the creature ſtands, he faſtens it to the ſame cord, and it is drawn up with himſelf. The caverns that are to be met with in theſe mountains, are more wonderful than thoſe, perhaps, in any other part of the world, though leſs liable to obſervation. One of them called Dolſteen was, in 1750, viſited by two clergymen; who reported that they proceeded in it till they heard the ſea daſhing over their heads; that the paſſage was as wide and as high as an ordinary church, the ſides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they deſcended a flight of natural ſtairs; but when they arrived at another, they durſt not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they conſumed two candles going and returning.

FORESTS.] The chief wealth of Norway lies in its foreſts, which furniſh foreigners with maſts, beams, planks, and boards, and ſerve beſides for all domeſtic uſes; particularly the conſtruction of houſes, bridges, ſhips, and for charcoal to the foundries. The timbers growing here are fir, and pine elm, aſh, yew, benreed (a very curious wood), birch, beech, oak, elm or alder, juniper, the aſpin-tree, the comel or ſloe-tree, hazel, elder, and even ebony (under the mountains of Kolen), lime or linden-tree, and willows. The ſums which Norway receives for timber are very conſiderable; but the induſtry of the inhabitants is greatly aſſiſted by the courſe of their rivers, and the ſituation of their lakes; which afford them not only the conveniency already mentioned, of floating down their timber, but that of erecting ſaw-mills, for dividing their large beams into planks and deals. A tenth of all ſawed timber belongs to his Daniſh majeſty, and forms no inconſiderable part of his revenue.

STONES, METALS, AND MINERALS.] Norway contains quarries of excellent marble, as well as many other kinds of ſtones; and the magnet is found in the iron mines. The amianthus, or aſbeſtos, which being of an incombuſtible nature, when its delicate fibres are woven into cloth, is cleaned by burning, is likewiſe found here; as are cryſtals, granates, amethyſts, agate, thunder-ſtones, and eagle-ſtones. Gold found in Norway has been coined into ducats. His Daniſh majeſty is now working, to great advantage, a ſilver mine at Coningſburgh; other ſilver mines have been found in different parts of the country; and one of the many ſilver maſſes that have been diſcovered, weighing 560 pounds, is to be ſeen at the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen. Lead, copper, and iron mines, are common in this country: one of the copper mines at Rorana is thought to be the richeſt in Europe. Norway likewiſe produces quickſilver, ſulphur, ſalt, and coal-mines: vitriol, alum, and various kinds of loam; the different manufactures of which bring in a large revenue to the crown.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers and freſh water lakes in this country are well ſtocked with fiſh, and navigable for ſhips of conſiderable burden. The moſt extraordinary circumſtance attending the lakes is, that ſome of them contain floating iſlands, formed by the coheſion of roots of trees and ſhrubs; and, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees. So late as the year 1702, the noble family ſeat of Borge, near Fredericſtadt, ſuddenly ſunk, with all its towers and battlements, into an abyſs a hundred fathom in depth; and its ſcite was inſtantly filled with a piece of water, which formed a lake 300 ells in length, and about half as broad. This melancholy accident, by which 14 people and 200 head of cattle periſhed, was occaſioned by the foundation being undermined by the waters of a river.

UNCOMMON ANIMALS, FOWLS, AND FISHES.] All the animals that are natives of Denmark are to be found in Norway, with an addition of many

many more. The wild beaſts peculiar to Norway, are the elk, the rein-deer, the hare, the rabbit, the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the fox, the glutton, the leming, the ermine, the martin, and the beaver. The elk is a tall, aſh-coloured animal, its ſhape partaking at once of the horſe and the ſtag; it is harmleſs, and in the winter ſocial; and the fleſh of it taſtes like veniſon. The rein-deer is a ſpecies of ſtag; but we ſhall have occaſion to mention him more particularly afterwards. The hares are ſmall; and are ſaid to live upon mice in the winter time, and to change their colour from brown to white. The Norwegian bears are ſtrong and ſagacious: they are remarkable for not hurting children; but their other qualities are common with the reſt of their ſpecies in northern countries; nor can we much credit the very extraordinary ſpecimens of their ſagacity, recorded by the natives: they are hunted by little dogs; and ſome prefer bear hams to thoſe of Weſtphalia. The Norwegian wolves, though fierce, are ſhy even of a cow or goat, unleſs impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx, by ſome called the goupes, is ſmaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; they are of the cat kind, and have claws like tygers, they dig under ground, and often undermine ſheep folds, where they make dreadful havock. The ſkin of the lynx is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewiſe found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries; they have a particular way of drawing crabs aſhore, by dipping their tails in the water, which the crab lays hold of.

The glutton, otherwiſe called the ervan, or vielfras, reſembles a turnſpit dog; with a long body, thick legs, ſharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is ſo precious that he is ſhot with blunt arrows, to preſerve the ſkin unhurt: he is ſo bold, and ſo ravenous, that it is ſaid he will devour a carcaſe larger than himſelf, and unburthens his ſtomach by ſqueezing himſelf between two cloſe ſtanding trees: when taken, he has been even known to eat ſtone and mortar. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its ſhyneſs and cleanlineſs; and their fur forms a principal part even of royal magnificence. There is little difference between the martin and a large brown foreſt cat, only its head and ſnout are ſharper; it is very fierce, and its bite dangerous. We ſhall have occaſion to mention the beaver in treating of North America.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway. The elks build upon rocks; their numbers often darken the air, and the noiſe of their wings reſembles a ſtorm; their ſize is the bigneſs of a large duck: they are an aquatic fowl, and their fleſh is much eſteemed. No fewer than 30 different kinds of thruſhes reſide in Norway; with various kinds of pigeons, and ſeveral ſorts of beautiful wild ducks. The Norwegian cock-of-the-wood is of a black or dark grey colour, his eye reſembling that of a pheaſant; and he is ſaid to be the largeſt of all eatable birds. Norway produces two kinds of eagles, the land and the ſea; the former is ſo ſtrong, that he has been known to carry off a child of two years old: the ſea or fiſh-eagle, is larger than the other; he ſubſiſts on acquatic food; and ſometimes darts on large fiſhes with ſuch force, that, being unable to free his talons from their bodies, he is dragged into the water and drowned.

Nature ſeems to have adapted theſe aerial inhabitants for the coaſt of Norway: and induſtry has produced a ſpecies of mankind peculiarly fitted for making them ſerviceable to the human race; theſe are the birdmen, or climbers, who are amazingly dexterous in mounting the ſteepeſt rocks, and bring away

away the birds and their eggs; the latter are nutritive food, and are parboiled in vinegar; the flesh is sometimes eaten by the peasants, who generally relish it; while the feathers and down form a profitable commodity. Even the dogs of the farmers, in the northern districts, are trained up to be assistants to these birdmen in seizing their prey.

The Scandinavian lakes and seas are astonishingly fruitful in all fish that are found on the sea coasts of Europe, which need not be here enumerated. Stock-fish innumerable, which are dried upon the rocks without salting. Some fishes in those seas, however, have their peculiarities. The haacmoren, is a species of shark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train oil. The tuella flynder is an excessively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who has fallen overboard, to keep him from rising. The season for herring fishing is announced to the fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales (of which seven different species are mentioned) in following the herring shoals. The large whale resembles a cod, with small eyes, a dark marbled skin, and white belly; they spout out the water, which they take in by inspiration, through two holes or openings in the head. They copulate like land animals, standing upright in the sea. A young whale when first produced is about nine or ten feet long; and the female sometimes brings forth two at a birth. The whale devours such an incredible number of small fish, that his belly is often ready to burst; in which case he makes a most tremendous noise from pain. The smaller fish have their revenge; some of them fasten on his back, and incessantly beat him; others, with sharp horns, or rather bones, on their beak, swim under his belly, and sometimes rip it up; some are provided with long sharp teeth, and tear his flesh. Even the aquatic birds of prey declare war against him when he comes near the surface of the water; and he has been known to be so tortured, that he has beat himself to death on the rocks. The coast of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable are the shoals that come from under the ice at the north pole; and about the latitude of Iceland divide themselves into three bodies: one of these supply the western isles and coasts of Scotland, another directs its course round the eastern part of Great Britain down the Channel, and the third enters the Baltic through the sound. They form great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torsk-fishes follow them, and feed upon their spawn; and are taken in prodigious numbers in 50 or 60 fathoms water: these, especially their roes, and their oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage; and above 150,000 people are maintained by the herring and other fishing on the coast of Norway. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length, and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The most seemingly fabulous accounts of the ancients, concerning sea-monsters, are rendered credible by the productions of the Norwegian seas; and the sea-snake, or the serpent of the ocean, is no longer counted a chimera. In 1756, one of them was shot by a master of a ship; its head resembling that of a horse; the mouth was large and black, as were the eyes; a white main hanging from its neck; it floated on the surface of the water, and held its head at least two feet out of the sea: between the head and neck were seven or eight folds, which were very thick; and the length of this snake was more than a hundred yards, some say fathoms. They have a remarkable aversion to the smell of castor; for which reason, ship, boat,

and bark maſters provide themſelves with quantities of that drug, to prevent being overſet; the ſerpent's olfactory nerves being remarkably exquiſite. The particularities related of this animal would be incredible, were they not atteſted upon oath. Egede (a very reputable author) ſays, that on the 6th day of July, 1734, a large and frightful ſea-monſter raiſed itſelf ſo high out of the water, that its head reached above the main-top-maſt of the ſhip; that it had a long ſharp ſnout, broad paws, and ſpouted water like a whale; that the body ſeemed to be covered with ſcales; the ſkin was uneven and wrinkled, and the lower part was formed like a ſnake. The body of this monſter is ſaid to be as thick as a hogſhead; his ſkin is variegated like a tortoiſe-ſhell; and his excrement, which floats on the ſurface of the water, is corroſive, and bliſters the hands of the ſeamen if they handle it.

The exiſtence of the kraken, or korken, is ſtrongly aſſerted; and, as it is ſaid to exiſt in theſe ſeas, we think it proper to mention it in this place, leaving it to the judgment of the readers to give what credit to it he pleaſes. Its bulk is ſaid to be a mile and a half in circumference; and when part of it appears above the water, it reſembles a number of ſmall iſlands and ſand-banks, on which fiſhes diſport themſelves, and ſea-weeds grow: upon a farther emerging, a number of pellucid antennæ, each about the height, form, and ſize of a moderate maſt, appear; and by their action and re-action he gathers his food, conſiſting of ſmall fiſhes. When he ſinks, which he does gradually, a dangerous ſwell of the ſea ſucceeds, and a kind of whirlpool is naturally formed in the water. In 1680, a young craken periſhed among the rocks and cliffs of the pariſh of Alſtahong; and his death was attended with ſuch a ſtench, that the channel where it died was impaſſable. Without entering into any romantic theories, we may ſafely ſay, that the exiſtence of this fiſh accounts for many of the phenomena of floating iſlands, and tranſitory appearances in the ſea, that have hitherto been held as fabulous by the learned, who could have no idea of ſuch an animal.

The mer-men and mer-women hold their reſidence in the Norwegian ſeas; but I cannot give credit to all that is related concerning them by the natives. The mer-man is about eight ſpans longs, and, undoubtedly, has as much reſemblance as an ape has, to the human ſpecies; a high forehead, little eyes, a flat noſe, and large mouth, without chin or ears, characterize its head; its arms are ſhort, but without joints or elbows, and they terminate in members reſembling a human hand, but of the paw kind, and the fingers connected by a membrane; the parts of generation indicate their ſexes; though their under parts, which remain in the water, terminate like thoſe of fiſhes. The females have breaſts, at which they ſuckle their young ones. It would far exceed the bounds allotted to this article, to follow the Norwegian adventurers through all the different deſcriptions which they have given us of their fiſhes; but they are ſo well authenticated, that I make no doubt a new and very ſurpriſing theory of aquatic animals may in time be formed.

CURIOSITIES.] Thoſe of Norway are only natural. On the coaſt, latitude 67, is that dreadful vortex or whirlpool, called by navigators the navel of the ſea, and by ſome Maleſtrom, or Moſkoeſtrom. The iſland Moſkoe, from whence this ſtream derives its name, lies between the mountain Heſleggen in Lofoden, and the iſland Ver, which are about one league diſtant; and between the iſland and coaſt on each ſide, the ſtream makes its way. Between Moſkoe and Lofoden it is near 400 fathoms deep; but between Moſkoe and Ver, it is ſo ſhallow as not to afford paſſage for a ſmall ſhip. When it is flood, the ſtream runs up the country between Lofoden and Moſkoe with a boiſterous rapidity; and when it is ebb, returns to the ſea with

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a violence and noiſe unequalled by the loudeſt cataracts. It is heard at the diſtance of many leagues, and forms a vortex or whirlpool of great depth or extent; ſo violent that if a ſhip comes near it, it is immediately drawn irreſiſtibly into the whirl, and there diſappears, being abſorbed and carried down to the bottom in a moment, where it is daſhed to pieces againſt the rocks; and juſt at the turn of ebb and flood, when the water becomes ſtill for about a quarter of an hour, it riſes again in ſcattered fragments, ſcarcely to be known for the parts of a ſhip. When it is agitated by a ſtorm, it has reached veſſels at the diſtance of more than a Norway mile, where the crews have thought themſelves in perfect ſecurity. Perhaps it is hardly in the power of fancy to conceive a ſituation of more horror than that of being thus driven forward by the ſudden violence of an impetuous torrent to the vortex of the whirlpool, of which the noiſe and turbulence ſtill increaſing as it is approached, are an earneſt of quick and inevitable deſtruction; while the wretched victims, in an agony of deſpair and terror, cry out for that help which they know to be impoſſible; and ſee before them the dreadful abyſs into which they are to be plunged, and daſhed among the rocks at the bottom.

Even animals, which have come too near the vortex, have expreſſed the utmoſt terror when they find the ſtream irreſiſtible. Whales are frequently carried away; and the moment they feel the force of the water, they ſtruggle againſt it with all their might, howling and bellowing in a frightful manner. The like happens frequently to bears, who attempt to ſwim to the iſland to prey upon the ſheep.

It was the opinion of Kircher, that the Maleſtrom is a ſea vortex, which attracts the flood under the ſhore of Norway, and diſcharges it again in the gulph of Bothnia; but this opinion is now known to be erroneous, by the return of the ſhattered fragments of whatever happens to be ſucked down by it. The large ſtems of firs and pines riſe again ſo ſhivered and ſplintered that the pieces look as if covered with briſtles. The whole phenomena are the effects of the violence of the daily ebb and flow, occaſioned by the contraction of the ſtream in its courſe between the rocks.

PEOPLE, LANGUAGE, RELIGION, AND CUSTOMS OF NORWAY. The Norwegians are a middling kind of people, between the ſimplicity of the Greenlanders and Icelanders, and the more poliſhed manners of the Danes. Their religion is Lutheran; and they have biſhops as thoſe of Denmark, without temporal juriſdiction. Their viceroy, like his maſter, is abſolute: but the farmers and common people in Norway are much leſs oppreſſed than thoſe in Denmark.

The Norwegians in general are ſtrong, robuſt, and brave; but quick in reſenting real or ſuppoſed injuries. The women are handſome and courteous, and the Norwegian forms, both of living, and enjoying property, are mild, and greatly reſembling the Saxon anceſtors of the preſent Engliſh. Every inhabitant is an artizan, and ſupplies his family in all its neceſſaries with his own manufactures; ſo that in Norway there are few by profeſſions who are hatters, ſhoe-makers, taylors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, ſmiths, or joiners. The loweſt Norwegian peaſant is an artiſt and a gentleman, and even a poet. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary ſhifts for ſupplying the place of bread, or farinacious food. The manners of the middling Norweigans form a proper ſubject for contemplation even to a philoſopher, as they lead that kind of life which we may ſay is furniſhed with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: and this

middle ſtate prolongs their ages ſurpriſingly. Though their dreſs is in many reſpects accommodated to their climate, yet, by cuſtom, inſtead of guarding againſt the inclemency of the weather, they outbrave it; for they expoſe themſelves to cold, without any cover upon their breaſts or necks. A Norwegian of an hundred years of age is not accounted paſt his labour; and in 1733, four couples were married and danced before his Daniſh majeſty at Fredericſhall, whoſe ages, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

The funeral ceremonies of the Norwegians contain veſtiges of their former paganiſm; they play on the violin at the head of the coffin, and while the corpſe is carried to the church, which is often done in a boat. In ſome places the mourners aſk the dead perſon why he died; whether his wife and neighbours were kind to him, and other ſuch queſtions frequently kneeling down and aſking forgiveneſs, if ever they had offended the deceaſed.

COMMERCE.] We have little to add to this head, different from what will be obſerved in our account of Denmark. The duties on their exports, moſt of which have been already recounted, amount to about 100,000 rix-dollars a year.

STRENGTH AND REVENUE.] By the beſt calculations, Norway can furniſh out 14,000 excellent ſeamen, and above 30,000 brave ſoldiers for the uſe of their king. The royal annual revenue from Norway amounts to near 200,000l. and till his preſent majeſty's acceſſion, the army, inſtead of being expenſive, added conſiderably to his income, by the ſubſidies it brought him in from foreign princes.

HISTORY.] We muſt refer to Denmark likewiſe for this head. The ancient Norwegians certainly were a very brave and powerful people, and the hardieſt ſeamen in the world. If we are to believe their hiſtories, they were no ſtrangers to America long before it was diſcovered by Columbus. Many cuſtoms of their anceſtors are yet diſcernible in Ireland and the north of Scotland, where they made frequent deſcents, and ſome ſettlements, which are generally confounded with thoſe of the Danes. From their being the moſt turbulent, they are become now the moſt loyal ſubjects in Europe; which we can eaſily account for, from the barbarity and tyranny of their kings, when a ſeparate people. Since the union of Calmar, which united Norway to Denmark, their hiſtory, as well as intereſts, are the ſame with that of Denmark.

DENMARK* PROPER, or JUTLAND, excluſive of the ISLANDS in the BALTIC.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.	
Length. 240 †	between	54 and 58	North latitude.
Breadth 114		8 and 11	Eaſt longitude.

Containing 15,744, ſquare miles with 139 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] IT is divided on the North from Norway by the Scaggerac ſea, and from Sweden on the Eaſt by the Sound; on the South by Germany and the Baltic; and the German ſea divides it from Great Britain on the Weſt.

Denmark proper is divided into two parts; the peninſula of Jutland, anciently called *Cimbrica Cherſoneſus*, and the Iſlands at the entrance of the Baltic, mentioned in the table. It is remarkable, that though all theſe together conſtitute the kingdoms of Denmark, yet not any one of them is ſeparately called by that name. Copenhagen, the metropolis, is in the iſland of Zealand.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, STATE OF AGRICULTURE, &c.] One of the largeſt and moſt fertile of all the provinces of this kingdom is Jutland, which produces abundance of all ſorts of grain and paſturage, and is a kind of magazine for Norway on all occaſions. A great number of ſmall cattle are bred in this province, and afterwards tranſported into Holſtein, to be fed for the uſe of Hamburgh, Lubec and Amſterdam. Jutland is every where interſperſed with hills, and on the eaſt ſide has fine woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees; but the weſt ſide being leſs woody, the inhabitants are obliged to uſe turf and heath for fuel. Zealand is for the moſt part a ſandy ſoil, but rather fertile in grain and paſturage, and agreeably variegated with woods and lakes of water. The climate is more temperate here, on account of the vapours from the ſurrounding ſea, than it is in many more ſoutherly parts of Europe. Spring and autumn are ſeaſons ſcarcely known in Denmark, on account of the ſudden tranſitions from cold to heat, and from heat to cold, which diſtinguiſh the climate of this kingdom. In all the northern provinces of Denmark the winters are very ſevere, ſo that the inhabitants often paſs arms of the ſea in ſledges upon the ice; and during the winter all the harbours are frozen up.

The greateſt part of the lands in Denmark and Holſtein are fiefs, and the ancient nobility, by grants which they extorted at different times from the crown, gained ſuch a power over the farmers, and thoſe who reſided upon their eſtates, that at length they reduced them to a ſtate of extreme ſlavery; ſo that they were bought and ſold with their lands, and were eſteemed the property of their lords. Many of the noble landholders of Sleſwick and Holſtein have the power of life and death. The ſituation of the farmers

* See Mallett's Denmark, p. 1. to 18 vol. v.

† Meaning where longeſt and broadeſt, a method which the author has every where obſerved, and it ſeems to be the practice of other writers on the ſubject. Great allowances muſt therefore be made in moſt countries, as the reader will perceive by looking on the maps. Jutland for inſtance, is 114 miles where broadeſt, though in ſundry other parts it is not 50.

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has, indeed, been made ſomewhat more agreeable by ſome modern edicts, but, they are ſtill, if ſuch an expreſſion may be allowed, chained to their farms, and are diſpoſed of at the will of their lords. When a farmer in Denmark or in Holſtein, happens to be an induſtrious man, and is ſituated upon a poor farm, which by great diligence he has laboured to cultivate advantageouſly, as ſoon as he has performed the toilſome taſk, and expects to reap the profit of what he has ſown, his lord, under pretence of taking it into his own hand, removes him from that farm to another of his poor farms, and expects that he ſhould perform the ſame laborious taſk there, without any other emolument than what he ſhould think proper to give him. This has been ſo long the practice in this country, that it neceſſarily throws the greateſt damp upon the efforts of induſtry, and prevents thoſe improvements in agriculture which would otherwiſe be introduced: the conſequence of which is, that nine parts in ten of the inhabitants are in a ſtate of great poverty. But if the farmers had a ſecurity for their property, the lands of Denmark might have been cultivated to much greater advantage than they are at preſent, and a much greater number of people ſupported by the produce of agriculture.

ANIMALS.] Denmark produces an excellent breed of horſes, both for the ſaddle and carriage; about 5000 are ſold annually out of the country, and of their horned cattle, 30,000. Beſides numbers of black cattle, they have ſheep, hogs, and game; and the ſea coaſts are generally well ſupplied with fiſh.

POPULATION, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] By an actual numeration made in 1759, of his Daniſh majeſty's ſubjects, in his dominions of Denmark, Norway, Holſtein, the iſlands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburgh and Delmenhorſt in Weſtphalia, they were ſaid to amount to 2,444,000 ſouls, excluſive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. The moſt accurate account of the population is that made under the direction of the famous Struenſee; by which

Jutland numbered	358,136	Iceland	46,201
Denmark, Iceland	283,466	Duchy of Slefwick	283,605
Funen	143,988	Duchy of Holſtein	134,665
Norway	723,141	Oldenburgh	62,854
Iſlands of Ferro	4,754	Delmenhorſt	16,217
		Sum Total	2,017,027

Several of the ſmaller iſlands included in the diſtrict of Fionia are omitted in this computation, which may contain a few thouſands.

However diſproportioned this number may ſeem to the extent of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, yet, every thing conſidered, it is far greater than could have been expected, from the uncultivated ſtate of his poſſeſſions. But the trade of Denmark has been ſo ſhackled by the corruption and arbitrary proceedings of her miniſters, and her merchants are ſo terrified by the deſpotiſm of her government, that this kingdom, which might be rendered rich and flouriſhing, is at preſent one of the moſt indigent and diſtreſſed ſtates in Europe; and theſe circumſtances prevent Denmark from being ſo populous as it otherwiſe would be, if the adminiſtration of the government were more mild and equitable, and if proper encouragement were given to foreigners, and to thoſe who engage in agriculture and other arts.

The ancient inhabitants of Denmark poſſeſſed a degree of courage which ap-

approached even to ferocity; but by a continued ſeries of tyranny and oppreſſion their national character is much changed, and from a brave, enterprifing, and warlike people, they are become indolent, timid, and dull of apprehenſion. They value themſelves extremely upon thoſe titles and privileges which they derive from the crown, and are exceedingly fond of pomp and ſhew. They endeavour to imitate the French in their manners, dreſs, and even in their gallantry; though they are naturally the very contraſt of that nation. They fall much into the indolence and timidity which form a conſiderable part of the characters of the modern Danes; but in other reſpects are well-meaning people, and acquit themſelves properly in their reſpective employments. The Danes, like other northern nations, are given to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but their nobility, who now begin to viſit the other courts of Europe, are refining from their provincial habits and vices.

RELIGION.] The religion is Lutheran; and the kingdom is divided into ſix dioceſes; one in Zealand, one in Funen, and four in Jutland; beſides four in Norway and two in Iceland. Theſe dioceſes are governed by biſhops, whoſe profeſſion is entirely to ſuperintend the other clergy; nor have they any other mark of pre-eminency than a diſtinction of their eccleſiaſtical dreſs; for they have neither cathedrals nor eccleſiaſtical courts, nor the ſmalleſt concern with civil affairs: their morals, however, are ſo good, that they are revered by the people. They are paid by the ſtate, as all the church-lands were wiſely appropriated to the government at the reformation.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING.] The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but high Dutch and French are ſpoken at court; and the nobility have lately made great advances in the Engliſh, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen as a neceſſary part of education. A company of Engliſh comedians occaſionally viſit that capital, where they find tolerable encouragement.

The univerſity of Copenhagen has funds for the gratuitous ſupport of 328 ſtudents; theſe funds are ſaid to amount to 300,000 rix-dollars; but the Danes in general make no great figure in literature; though aſtronomy and medicine are highly indebted to their Tycho Brache, Borichius, and the Bartholines; and the round tower and Chriſtian's haven diſplay the mechanical genius of a Longomontanus; not to mention that the Danes begin now to make ſome promiſing attempts in hiſtory, poetry, and the drama. It appears, however, that in general, literature receives very little countenance or encouragement in Denmark; which may be conſidered as the principal cauſe of its being ſo little cultivated by the Danes.

CITIES AND CHIEF BUILDINGS.] Copenhagen, which is ſituated on the fine iſland of Zealand, was originally a ſettlement of ſailors, and firſt founded by ſome wandering fiſhermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis, and makes a magnificent appearance at a diſtance. It is very ſtrong, and defended by four royal caſtles or forts. It contains ten pariſh churches, beſides nine others, belonging to the Calviniſts and other perſuaſions, and ſome hoſpitals. Copenhagen is adorned by ſome public and private palaces, as they are called. Its ſtreets are 186 in number; and its inhabitants amount to 100,000. The houſes in the principal ſtreets are built of brick, and thoſe in their lanes chiefly of timber. Its univerſity has been already mentioned. But the chief glory of Copenhagen is its harbour, formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits indeed but only one ſhip to enter at a time, but is capable of containing 500. Several of the ſtreets have

have canals, and quays for ſhips to lie cloſe to the houſes; and its naval arſenal is ſaid to exceed that of Venice. The road for ſhipping begins about two miles from the town, and is defended by 90 pieces of cannon, as well as the difficulty of the navigation. But notwithſtanding all theſe advantages, there is little appearance of induſtry or trade in this city; and Copenhagen, though one of the fineſt ports in the world, can boaſt of little commerce. The public places are filled with officers either in the land or ſea ſervice; and the number of forces kept up is much too large for this little kingdom. The police of Copenhagen is extremely regular, and people may walk through the whole city at midnight with great ſafety. Indeed, it is uſually almoſt as quiet here at eleven o'clock at night as in a country village, and, at that time there is ſcarcely a coach heard to rattle through the ſtreets.

The apartments of the palace at Copenhagen are grand, and the tapeſtry in many of them beautiful, particularly the ſtory of Eſther, and an aſſortment of wild beaſts, after the manner of Quida. A colonade at each extremity forms the ſtables, which, for their extent and beauty of furniture are equal to any in Europe. But the fineſt palace belonging to his Daniſh majeſty lies about 20 Engliſh miles from Copenhagen, and is called Frederiſburgh. It is a very large building, moated round with a triple ditch, and calculated, like moſt of the ancient reſidences of princes, for defence againſt an enemy. It was built by Chriſtian IVth, and, according to the architecture of the times, partakes of the Greek and Gothic ſtyles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuſcan and Doric pillars, and on the ſummit of the building are ſpires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very ſplendid, though furniſhed in the antique taſte. The Knights' hall is of great length. The tapeſtry repreſents the wars of Denmark, and the cieling is a moſt minute and laboured performance in ſculpture. The chimney-piece was once entirely covered with plates of ſilver, richly ornamented; but the Swedes, who have often landed here, and even beſieged the capital, tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithſtanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. The late unhappy queen Matilda ſpent much of her time at this palace, during the king's tour through Europe. About two miles from Elſineur is another ſmall royal palace, flat roofed, with twelve windows in front, ſaid to be built on the place formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father. In an adjoining garden is ſhewn the very ſpot where, according to that tradition, that prince was poiſoned.

Jagerſburgh is a park which contains a royal country ſeat, called the Hermitage; which is remarkable for the diſpoſition of its apartments and the quaintneſs of its furniture; particularly a machine which conveys the diſhes to and from the king's table in the ſecond ſtory. The chief eccleſiaſtical buildings in Denmark is the cathedral of Roſchild, where the kings and queens of Denmark were formerly buried, and their monuments ſtill remain. Joining to this cathedral, by a covered paſſage, is a royal palace, built in 1733. Elſineur is well-built, contains 5000 inhabitants, and with reſpect to commerce is only exceeded by Copenhagen. It is ſtrongly fortified on the land ſide, and towards the ſea is defended by a ſtrong fort, containing ſeveral batteries of long cannon. Here all veſſels pay a toll, and, in paſſing, lower their top-ſails.

COMMERCE.] Denmark is extremely well ſituated for commerce; her harbours are well calculated for the reception of ſhips of all burdens, and her mariners are very expert in the navigation of the different parts of the ocean. The dominions of his Daniſh majeſty alſo ſupply a great variety of

of timber and other materials for ſhip-building; and ſome of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among theſe, beſides fir and other timber, are black cattle, horſes, butter, ſtock-fiſh, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron, which being the natural product of the Daniſh dominions, are conſequently ranked under the head of exports. To theſe we may add furs; but the exportation of oats is forbidden. The imports are, ſalt, wine, brandy and ſilk from France, Portugal, and Italy. Of late the Danes have had great intercourſe with England, and from thence they import broad cloths, clocks, cabinet, lockwork, and all other manufactures carried on in the great trading towns of England, but nothing ſhews the commercial ſpirit of the Danes in a more favourable light than their eſtabliſhments in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.

In 1612, Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, eſtabliſhed an Eaſt India Company at Copenhagen: and ſoon after, four ſhips ſailed from thence to the Eaſt Indies. The hint of this trade was given to his Daniſh majeſty by James I. of England, who married a princeſs of Denmark; and in 1617, they built and fortified a caſtle and town at Tranquebar, on the coaſt of Coromandel. The ſecurity which many of the Indians found under the cannon of this fort invited numbers of them to ſettle here; ſo that the Daniſh Eaſt India Company were ſoon rich enough to pay their king a yearly tribute of 10,000 rix dollars. The company, however, willing to become rich all of a ſudden, in 1620 endeavoured to poſſeſs themſelves of the ſpice-trade at Ceylon, but were defeated by the Portugueſe. The truth is, they ſoon embroiled themſelves with the native Indians on all hands; and had it not been for the generous aſſiſtance given them by Mr. Pitt, an Engliſh Eaſt India governor, the ſettlement at Tranquebar muſt have been taken by the Rajah of Tanjour. Upon the cloſe of the wars in Europe, after the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, the Daniſh eaſt India company found themſelves ſo much in debt, that they publiſhed propoſals for a new ſubſcripton for enlarging their ancient capital ſtock, and for fitting out ſhips to Tranquebar, Bengal, and China. Two years after, his Daniſh majeſty granted a new charter to his Eaſt India Company, with vaſt privileges: and for ſome time its commerce was carried on with great vigour. I ſhall juſt mention, that the Danes likewiſe poſſeſs the iſlands of St. Thomas and St. Croix, and the ſmall iſland of St. John, in the Weſt Indies, which are free ports, and celebrated for ſmuggling; alſo the fort of Chriſtianburg on the coaſt of Guinea; and carry on a conſiderable commerce with the Mediterranean.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Denmark proper affords fewer of theſe than the other parts of his Daniſh majeſty's dominions, if we except the contents of the Royal Muſeum at Copenhagen, which conſiſts of a numerous collection of both. It contains ſeveral good paintings and a fine collection of coins, particularly thoſe of the conſuls in the time of the Roman republic, and of the emperors after the ſeat of empire was divided into the Eaſt and Weſt. Beſides artificial ſkeletons, ivory carvings, models, clockwork, and a beautiful cabinet of ivory and ebony, made by a Daniſh artiſt who was blind, here are to be ſeen two famous antique drinking veſſels; the one of gold, the other of ſilver, and both of the form of a hunting horn; that of gold ſeems to be of Pagan manufacture; and from the raiſed hieroglyhical figures on its outſide, it probably was made uſe of in religious ceremonies: it is about two feet nine inches long, weighs 102 ounces, contains two Engliſh pints and a half, and was found in the dioceſe of Ripen, in the year 1639. The other, of ſilver, weighs about four pounds, and is termed *Cornu Oldenburgicum;* which they ſay was preſented to Otho I. duke of Oldenburgh, by

a ghoſt. Some, however, are of opinion, that this veſſel was made by order of Chriſtian I. king of Denmark, the firſt of the Oldenburgh race, who reigned 1448. I ſhall juſt mention in this place that ſeveral veſſels of different metals, and the ſame form, have been found in the North of England, and are probably of Daniſh original. This muſeum is likewiſe furniſhed with a prodigious number of aſtronomical, optical, and mathematical inſtruments; ſome Indian curioſities, and a ſet of medals ancient and modern. Many curious aſtronomical inſtruments are likewiſe placed in the round tower at Copenhagen; which is ſo contrived that a coach may drive to its top. The village of Anglen, lying between Flenſburgh and Sleſwick, is alſo eſteemed a curioſity, as giving its name to the Angles, or Anglo-Saxon inhabitants of Great Britain, and the anceſtors of the bulk of the modern Engliſh.

The greateſt rarities in his Daniſh majeſty's dominions are omitted, however, by geographers; I mean thoſe ancient inſcriptions upon rocks, that are mentioned by antiquaries and hiſtorians; and are generally thought to be the old and original manner of writing, before the uſe of paper of any kind, and waxen tables was known. Theſe characters are Runic, and ſo imperfectly underſtood by the learned themſelves, that their meaning is very uncertain; but they are imagined to be hiſtorical. Stephanus, in his notes upon Saxo-Grammaticus, has exhibited ſpecimens of ſeveral of thoſe inſcriptions.

CIVIL CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS. The ancient conſtitution of Denmark was originally much upon the ſame plan with other Gothic governments. The king came to the throne by election; and, in conjunction with the ſenate where he preſided, was inveſted with the executive power. He likewiſe commanded the army, and decided finally all the diſputes which aroſe between his ſubjects. The legiſlative power, together with the right of election of the king, was veſted in the ſtates; who are compoſed, firſt, of the order of nobility; and ſecondly, the order of the citizens and farmers; and after the Chriſtian religion had gained ground in the North, the clergy were alſo admitted, not only to be an order of the ſtates, but to have ſeats likewiſe in the ſenate. Theſe orders had their reſpective rights and privileges, and were independent of each other; the crown had alſo its prerogatives, and a certain fixed revenue ariſing out of lands, which were appropriated to its ſupport. This conſtitution had many evident advantages: but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjuſted; ſo that the nobles very ſoon aſſumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppreſſed the people, as the national aſſemblies were not regularly held to redreſs their grievances. And when the Roman Catholic clergy came to have a ſhare in the civil government, they far ſurpaſſed the nobility in pride and ambition. The repreſentatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who forced the crown to give up its prerogatives, and to oppreſs and tyrannize over the people. Chriſtian the Second, by endeavouring in an imprudent manner to ſtem the torrent of their oppreſſion, loſt his crown and his liberty; but Chriſtian the Third, by uniting himſelf with the nobles and the ſenate, deſtroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppreſſion of the common people by the nobility ſtill remained. At length, in the reign of Frederick the Third, the people, inſtead of exerting themſelves to remedy the defects of the conſtitution, and to maintain their common liberties, were ſo infatuated as to make the king deſpotic, in hopes thereby of rendering themſelves leſs ſubject to the tyranny of the nobility. A ſeries of unſucceſsful wars had brought the nation in general into ſo miſerable a condition, that the public had not money for paying off the army. The diſpute came to a

ſhort

ſhort queſtion, which was, that the nobles ſhould ſubmit to taxes, from which they pleaded an exemption. The inferior people upon this threw their eyes towards the king, for relief and protection from the oppreſſions of the intermediate order of nobility: in this they were encouraged by the clergy. In a meeting of the ſtates, it was propoſed that the nobles ſhould bear their ſhare in the common burden. Upon this, Otta Craeg put the people in mind that the commons were no more than *ſlaves* to the lords.

This was the watch-word which had been concerted between the leaders of the commons, the clergy, and even the court itſelf. Nanſon, the ſpeaker of the commons, catched hold of the term *ſlavery*; the aſſembly broke up in a ferment; and the commons, with the clergy, withdrew to a houſe of their own, where they reſolved to make the king a ſolemn tender of their liberties and ſervices, and formally to eſtabliſh in his family the hereditary ſucceſſion to their crown. This reſolution was executed the next day. The biſhop of Copenhagen officiated as ſpeaker for the clergy and commons. The king accepted of their tender, promiſing them relief and protection. The gates of Copenhagen were ſhut; and the nobility, finding the nerves of their power thus cut, ſubmitted with the beſt grace they could to confirm what had been done.

On the 10th of January, 1661, the three orders of nobility, clergy, and people, ſigned each a ſeparate act; by which they conſented that the crown ſhould be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and by which they inveſted the king with abſolute power, and gave him the right to regulate the ſucceſſion and the regency, in caſe of a minority. This renunciation of their rights, ſubſcribed by the firſt nobility, is ſtill preſerved as a precious relic among the archives of the royal family. A relic, which perpetuates the memory of the humbled inſolence of the nobles, and the hypocriſy of the prince, who, to gratify his revenge againſt them, perſuaded the people that his only wiſhes were to repair a decayed edifice, and then excited them to pull it to the ground, cruſhing themſelves under its ruins.

After this extraordinary revolution in the government, the king of Denmark diveſted the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve thoſe poor people who had been the inſtruments of inveſting him with the ſovereign power, but left them in the ſame ſtate of ſlavery in which they were before, and in which they have remained to the preſent age. When the revolution in the reign of Frederick the Third had been effected, the king re-united in his perſon all the rights of the ſovereign power; but as he could not exerciſe all by himſelf, he was obliged to intruſt ſome part of the executive power to his ſubjects; the ſupreme court of judicature for the kingdoms of Denmark and Norway is holden in the royal palace of Copenhagen, of which the king is the nominal preſident. What they call the German provinces have likewiſe their ſupreme tribunal; which, for the duchy of Holſtein is holden at Gluckſtadt; and for the duchy of Sleſwick, in the town of that name.

As to matters of importance, the king for the moſt part decides in his council, the members of which are named and diſplaced at his will. It is in this council that the laws are propoſed, diſcuſſed, and receive the royal authority, and that any great changes or eſtabliſhments are propoſed, and approved or rejected by the king. It is here likewiſe, or in the cabinet, that he grants privileges, and decides upon the explication of laws, their extenſion, or their reſtriction; and, in fact, it is here that the king expreſſes his will upon the moſt important affairs of his kingdom.

In this kingdom, as in many others, the king is ſuppoſed to be preſent to

adminiſter juſtice in the ſupreme court of his kingdom; and, therefore, the kings of Denmark not only preſide nominally in the ſovereign court of juſtice, but they have a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always addreſs their diſcourſes in pleading, and the judges the ſame in giving their opinion. Every year the king is preſent at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges ſuch inſtructions as he thinks proper. The deciſion of theſe judges is final in all civil actions; but no criminal ſentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution till it is ſigned by the king.

There are many excellent regulations for the adminiſtration of juſtice in Denmark; but notwithſtanding this, it is ſo far from being diſtributed in an equal and impartial manner, that a poor man can ſcarcely ever have juſtice in this country againſt one of the nobility or againſt one who is favoured by the court or by the chief miniſter. If the laws are ſo clearly in favour of the former, that the judges are aſhamed to decide againſt them, the latter, through the favour of the miniſter, obtains an order from the king to ſtop all the law-proceedings, or a diſpenſation from obſerving particular laws, and there the matter ends. The code of laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Denmark was publiſhed by Chriſtian V. founded upon the code of Valdemar, and all the other codes which have ſince been publiſhed, and is nearly the ſame with that publiſhed in Norway. Theſe laws are very juſt and clear; and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial conſequences to the people. But as the king can change and alter the laws, and diſpenſe with them as he pleaſes, and ſupport his miniſters and favourites in any acts of violence and injuſtice, the people of Denmark undergo a great degree of tyranny and oppreſſion, and have abundant reaſon to regret the tameneſs and ſervility with which their liberties have been ſurrendered into the hands of their monarchs.

The peaſants, till 1787, had been in a ſituation little better than the brute creation; they ſcarce could be ſaid to poſſeſs any loco-motive power, inſomuch that they had no liberty to leave one eſtate, and to ſettle on another, without the purchaſed permiſſion from their maſters; and if they chanced to move without their permiſſion, they were claimed as ſtrayed cattle. Such was the ſtate of thoſe wretched beings, who, at beſt, only might be ſaid to vegetate. Theſe chains of feudal ſlavery were now broken, through the intereſt of his royal highneſs the prince, and heir apparent to the crown; and the priſoners, for ſuch I think they might be called, were declared free. Notwithſtanding the remonſtrances which were made againſt this by the landed gentry were very numerous, yet, after the minute examination of the whole, an edict was iſſued which reſtores the peaſants to their long loſt liberty, which once contributed ſo much to the glory of the ſtate: added to this, a number of grievances, under which the peaſantry laboured, were aboliſhed.

Punishments.] The common method of execution in Denmark is beheading and hanging: in ſome caſes, as an aggravation of the puniſhment, the hand is chopped off before the other part of the ſentence is executed. For the moſt atrocious crimes, ſuch as the murder of a father or mother, huſband or wife, and robbery upon the highway, the malefactor is broken upon the wheel. But capital puniſhments are not common in Denmark; and the other principal modes of puniſhment are branding in the face, whipping, condemnation to the raſp-houſe, to houſes of correction, and to public labour and impriſonment; all which are varied in duration and rigour, according to the nature of the crime.

Political

POLITICAL AND NATURAL INTERESTS OF DENMARK.] After the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, his court ſeemed for ſome time to have altered its maxims. His father, it is true, obſerved a moſt reſpectable neutrality during the late war; but never could get rid of French influence, notwithſtanding his connections with Great Britain. The ſubſidies he received maintained his army; but his family-diſputes with Ruſſia concerning Holſtein, and the aſcendancy which the French had obtained over the Swedes, not to mention many other matters, did not ſuffer him to act that deciſive part in the affairs of Europe, to which he was invited by his ſituation; eſpecially about the time when the treaty of Cloſter-Seven was concluded. His preſent Daniſh majeſty's plan ſeemed, ſoon after his acceſſion, to be that of forming his dominions into a ſtate of independency, by availing himſelf of their natural advantages. But ſundry events which have ſince happened, and the general feebleneſs of his adminiſtration, have prevented any farther expectations being formed, that the real welfare of Denmark will be promoted, at leaſt in any great degree, during the preſent reign.

With regard to the external intereſts of Denmark, they are certainly beſt ſecured by cultivating a friendſhip with the maritime powers. The exports of Denmark enable her to carry on a very profitable trade with France, Spain, and the Mediterranean; and ſhe has been particularly courted by the Mahometan ſtates, on account of her ſhip-building ſtores.

The preſent imperial family of Ruſſia has many claims upon Denmark, on account of Holſtein; but there is at preſent ſmall appearance of her being engaged in a war on that account. Were the Swedes to regain their military character, and to be commanded by ſo enterpriſing a prince as Charles XII. they probably would endeavour to repoſſeſs themſelves, by arms, of the fine provinces torn from them by Denmark. But the greateſt danger that can ariſe to Denmark from a foreign power is, when the Baltic ſea (as has happened more than once) is ſo frozen over as to bear not only men but heavy artillery; in which caſe the Swedes have been known to march over great armies, and to threaten the conqueſt of the kingdom.

REVENUES.] His Daniſh majeſty's revenues have three ſources: the impoſitions he lays upon his own ſubjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demeſne lands, including confiſcations. Wine, ſalt, tobacco, and proviſions of all kinds, are taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houſes, and poll-money, alſo raiſe a conſiderable ſum. The expences of fortifications are borne by the people: and when the king's daughter is married, they pay about 100,000 rix-dollars towards her portion. The reader is to obſerve, that the internal taxes of Denmark are very uncertain, becauſe they may be abated or raiſed at the king's will. Cuſtoms, and tolls upon exports and imports, are more certain. The tolls paid by ſtrangers, ariſe chiefly from foreign ſhips that paſs through the Sound into the Baltic, through the narrow ſtrait of half a mile between Schonen and the iſland of Zealand. Theſe tolls are in proportion to the ſize of the ſhip and value of the cargo exhibited in the bills of lading. This tax, which forms a capital part of his Daniſh majeſty's revenue, has more than once thrown the northern parts of Europe into a flame. It was often diſputed by the Engliſh and Dutch, being nothing more originally than a voluntary contribution of the merchants towards the expences of the light-houſes on the coaſt; and the Swedes, who command the oppoſite ſide of the paſs, for ſome time refuſed to pay it: but in the treaty of 1720, between Sweden and Denmark, under the guarantee of his Britannic majeſty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the ſame rates as are paid by the ſubjects of Great Britain and the Netherlands.

lands. The firſt treaty relative to it, was by the emperor Charles V. on behalf of his ſubjects in the Low Countries. The toll is paid at Elſineur, a town ſituated on the Sound, at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, and about 18 miles diſtant from Copenhagen. The whole revenue of Denmark, including what is received at Elſineur, amounts at preſent to above 5,000,000 of rix dollars, or 1,002,000l. ſterling yearly.

The following is a liſt of the king's revenues, excluſive of his private eſtates:

	Rix dollars at 4s. each
Tribute of hard corn or land-tax,	1,000,000
Small taxes, including poll-tax, pound rents, exciſe, marriages, &c.	950,000
Cuſtom-houſe duties,	154,000
Duties of the Sound,	200,000
Duties of Jutland, from ſalt-pits,	27,000
Tythes and poll tax of Norway,	770,000
Tolls of Bergen, Drontheim, Chriſtianſand and Chriſtana,	160,000
Other tolls,	552,000
Revenue from mines,	300,000
Revenue from Sleſwick, Holſtein, Oldenburgh, and Delmenhorſt,	690,000
Taxes on acorns, and maſts from beech,	20,000
Tolls on the Weſer,	7,500
Poſt-office,	70,000
Farms of Iceland and Ferro,	35,000
Farms of Bornholm,	14,800
Oyſter Fiſhery,	22,000
Stamp Paper,	40,000
Sum total,	5,012,300
In Engliſh money,	£. 1,002,460

By a liſt of the revenue taken in 1730, it then only amounted to Engliſh money £. 454,700.

ARMY AND NAVY.] The three laſt kings of Denmark, notwithſtanding the degeneracy of the people in martial affairs, were very reſpectable princes, by the number and diſcipline of their troops, which they kept up with vaſt care. The preſent military force of Denmark conſiſts of 70,000 men, cavalry and infantry, the greateſt part of which conſiſts of a militia who receive no pay, but are regiſtered on the army liſt, and every Sunday exerciſed. The regular troops are about 20,000, and moſtly foreigners, or moſt of whom are officered by foreigners; for Frederick III. was too refined a politician to truſt his ſecurity in the hands of thoſe he had tricked out of their liberty. Though this army is extremely burdenſome to the nation, yet it coſts little to the crown; great part of the infantry lie in Norway, where they live upon the boors at free quarter: and in Denmark the peaſantry are obliged to maintain the cavalry in victuals and lodging, and even to furniſh them with money. The preſent fleet of Denmark is compoſed of 36 ſhips of the line, and 18 frigates; but many of the ſhips being old, and wanting great repairs,

pairs, if they can ſend out 25 ſhips upon the greateſt emergency, this is ſuppoſed to be the moſt they can do. This fleet is generally ſtationed at Copenhagen, where are the dock-yards, ſtore-houſes, and all the materials neceſſary for the uſe of the marine. They have 26,000 regiſtered ſeamen, who cannot quit the kingdom without leave, nor ſerve on board a merchantman without permiſſion from the admiralty; 4000 of theſe are kept in conſtant pay and employed in the dock-yards; their pay, however, ſcarcely amounts to nine ſhillings a month, but then they have a ſort of uniform, with ſome proviſions and lodgings allowed for themſelves and families.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD IN DENMARK.] Theſe are two; that of the *Elephant*, and that of *Daneburgh*; the former was inſtituted by Chriſtian I. in the year 1478, and is deemed the moſt honourable; its badge is an elephant ſurmounted with a caſtle, ſet in diamonds, and ſuſpended to a ſky-blue watered ribbon; worn like the George in England over the right ſhoulder: the number of its members, beſides the ſovereign, are thirty, and the knights of it are addreſſed by the title of excellency. The badges of the Daneburgh order, which is ſaid to be of the higheſt antiquity, inſtituted in the year 1219, but it became obſelete, and was revived in 1671 by Chriſtian V. conſiſt of a white ribbon with red edges worn ſcarf-ways over the right ſhoulder; from which depends a ſmall croſs of diamonds, and an embroidered ſtar on the breaſt of the coat ſurrounded with the motto, *Pietate & Juſtitia*; The badge is a croſs pattee enamelled white, on the centre the leeter C and 5 crowned with a regal crown, and this motto, *Reſtitutor*. The number of knights is numerous, and not limited.

HISTORY.] We owe the chief hiſtory of Denmark to a very extraordinary phænomenon; the revival of the purity of the Latin language in Scandinavia, in the perſon of Saxo-Grammaticus, at a time (the 12th century) when it was loſt in all other parts of the European continent, Saxo, like the other hiſtorians of his age, had adopted, and at the ſame time ennobled by his ſtyle, the moſt ridiculous abſurdities of remote antiquity. We can however collect enough from him to conclude, that the ancient Danes, like the Gauls, the Scots, the Iriſh, and other northern nations, had their bards, who recounted the military atchievements of their heroes; and that their firſt hiſtories were written in verſe. There can be no doubt that the Scandinavians or Cimbri, and the Teutones (the inhabitants of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden) were Scythians by their original; but how far the tracts of land, called either Scythia * or Gaul, formerly reached, is uncertain.

Even the name of the firſt Chriſtian Daniſh king is uncertain; and thoſe of the people whom they commanded were ſo blended together, that it is impoſſible for the reader to conceive a preciſe idea of the old Scandinavian hiſtory. This, undoubtedly was owing to the remains of their Scythian cuſtoms, particularly that of removing from one country to another; and of ſeveral nations or ſepts joining together in expeditions by ſea or land; and the adventurers being denominated after their chief leaders. Thus the terms, Danes, Saxons, Jutes or Goths, Germans, and Normans, were promiſcuouſly uſed long after the time of Charlemagne. Even the ſhort revival of literature,

* By Scythia may be underſtood all theſe northern countries of Europe and Aſia (now inhabited by the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, Ruſſians, and Tartars, ſee the Introduction), whoſe inhabitants overturned and peopled the Roman empire, and continued ſo late as the 13th century to iſſue forth in large bodies, and naval expeditions, ravaging the more ſouthern and fertile kingdoms of Europe; hence by Sir William Temple, and other hiſtorians, they are termed the *Northern Hive, the Mother of Nations, the Storehouſe of Europe.*

under

under that prince, throws very little light upon the Daniſh hiſtory. All we know is, that the inhabitants of Scandinavia, in their maritime expeditions, went generally under the name of Saxons with foreigners; that they were bold adventurers, rude, fierce, and martial: That ſo far back as the year of Chriſt, 500, they inſulted all the ſea-coaſts of Europe; that they ſettled in Ireland, where they built ſtone-houſes; and that they became maſters of England, and ſome part of Scotland; both which kingdoms ſtill retain proofs of their barbarity. When we read the hiſtory of Denmark and that of England, under the Daniſh princes who reigned over both countries, we meet with but a faint reſemblance of events; but the Danes as conquerors, always give themſelves the ſuperiority over the Engliſh.

In the eleventh century under Canute the Great, Denmark may be ſaid to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give ſanction to the expreſſion. Few very intereſting events in Denmark preceded the year 1387, when Margaret mounted the throne; and partly by her addreſs, and partly by hereditary right, ſhe formed the union of Calmar, anno 1397, by which ſhe was acknowledged ſovereign of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway. She held her dignity with ſuch firmneſs and courage, that ſhe was juſtly ſtiled the Semiramis of the north. Her ſucceſſors being deſtitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one ſovereign, fell to nothing; but Norway ſtill continued annexed to Denmark. About the year 1448, the crown of Denmark fell to Chriſtian, count of Oldenburgh, from whom the preſent royal family of Denmark is deſcended.

In 1513, Chriſtian II. king of Denmark, one of the moſt complete tyrants that modern times have produced, mounted the throne of Denmark; and having married the ſiſter of the emperor Charles V. he gave a full looſe to his innate cruelty. Being driven out of Sweden, for the bloody maſſacres he committed there, the Danes rebelled againſt him likewiſe; and he fled, with his wife and children, into the Netherlands. Frederick, duke of Holſtein, was unanimouſly called to the throne, on the depoſition of his cruel nephew, who openly embraced the opinions of Luther, and about the year 1536, the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed in Denmark, by that wiſe and politic prince Chriſtian III.

Chriſtian IV. of Denmark, in 1639, was choſen for the head of the proteſtant league, formed againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but though brave in his own perſon, he was in danger of loſing his dominions; when he was ſucceeded in that command by Guſtavus Adolphus king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Chriſtian, who died in 1648, to lower the duties of the Sound, his ſon Frederick III. conſented to accept of an annuity of 150,000 florins for the whole. The Dutch, after this, perſuaded him to declare war againſt Charles Guſtavus, king of Sweden; which had almoſt coſt him his crown in 1657. Charles ſtormed the fortreſs of Frederickſtadt; and in the ſucceeding winter he marched his army over the ice to the iſland of Funen, where he ſurpriſed the Daniſh troops took Odenſee and Nyburgh and marched over the great Belt to beſiege Copenhagen itſelf. Cromwell, who then governed England under the title of Protector, interpoſed; and Frederick defended his capital with great magnanimity till the peace of Roſchild; by which Frederic ceded the provinces of Halland, Bleking, and Sconia, the iſland of Bornholm, and Bahus and Drontheim in Norway, to the Swedes. Frederick ſought to elude theſe ſevere terms: but Charles took Cronenburgh, and once more beſieged Copenhagen by ſea and land. The ſteady intrepid conduct of Frederick under theſe misfortunes, endeared him

him to his ſubjects; and the citizens of Copenhagen made an admirable defence till a Dutch fleet arrived in the Baltic and beat the Swediſh fleet. The fortune of war was now entirely changed in favour of Frederick, who ſhewed on every occaſion great abilities, both civil and military; and having forced Charles to raiſe the ſiege of Copenhagen, might have carried the war into Sweden, had not the Engliſh fleet under Montague appeared in the Baltic. This enabled Charles to beſiege Copenhagen a third time; but France and England offering their mediation, a peace was concluded in that capital; by which the iſland of Bornholm returned to the Danes; but the iſland of Rugen, Bleking, Halland, and Schonen, remained with the Swedes.

Though this peace did not reſtore to Denmark all ſhe had loſt, yet the magnanimous behaviour of Frederic, under the moſt eminent dangers, and his attention to the ſafety of his ſubjects, even preferable to his own, greatly endeared him in their eyes; and he at length became abſolute, in the manner already related. Frederick was ſucceeded in 1670, by his ſon Chriſtian V. who obliged the duke of Holſtein Gottorp to renounce all the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roſchild. He then recovered a number of places in Schonen; but his army was defeated in the bloody battle of Lunden, by Charles XI. of Sweden. This defeat did not put an end to the war; which Chriſtian obſtinately continued, till he was defeated entirely at the battle of Lendſcroon: and having almoſt exhauſted his dominions in military operations, and being in a manner abandoned by all his allies, he was forced to ſign a treaty, on the terms preſcribed by France, in 1679. Chriſtian, however, did not deſiſt from his military attempts; and at laſt he became the ally and ſubſidiary of Lewis XIV. who was then threatening Europe with chains. Chriſtian after a vaſt variety of treating and fighting with the Holſteiners, Hamburgers, and other northern powers, died in 1699. He was ſucceeded by Frederick IV. who, like his predeceſſors, maintained his pretenſions upon Holſtein; and probably muſt have become maſter of that duchy, had not the Engliſh and Dutch fleets raiſed the ſiege of Touningen, while the young king of Sweden, Charles XII. who was then no more than ſixteen years of age, landed within eight miles of Copenhagen, to aſſiſt his brother in law the duke of Holſtein. Charles probably would have made himſelf maſter of Copenhagen, had not his Daniſh majeſty agreed to the peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty concluded with the States General, Charles obliged himſelf to furniſh a body of troops, who were to be paid by the confederates; and afterwards did great execution againſt the French in the wars of queen Anne.

Notwithſtanding this peace, Frederic was perpetually engaged in wars with the Swedes, and while Charles XII. was an exile at Bender, he made a deſcent upon the Swediſh Pomerania; and another in the year 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadeſbuch, who laid his favourite city of Altena in aſhes. Frederic revenged himſelf by ſeizing great part of the Ducal Holſtein, and forcing the Swediſh general count Steinbock, to ſurrender himſelf priſoner, with all his troops. In the year 1716, the ſucceſſes of Frederic were ſo great, by taking Toningen and Stralſund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wiſmar in Pomerania, that his allies began to ſuſpect he was aiming at the ſovereignty of all Scandinavia. Upon the return of Charles of Sweden from his exile, he renewed the war againſt Denmark with a moſt imbittered ſpirit; but on the death of that prince, who was killed at the

ſiege of Fredericſhal, Frederic durſt not refuſe the offer of his Britannic majeſty's mediation between him and the crown of Sweden; in conſequence of which a peace was concluded at Stockholm, which left him in poſſeſſion of the duchy of Sleſwick. Frederic died in the year 1730, after having two years before ſeen his capital reduced to aſhes by an accidental fire. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Chriſtian-Frederic, or Chriſtian VI. made no other uſe of his power, and the advantages, with which he mounted the throne, than to cultivate peace with all his neighbours, and to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, whom he eaſed of many oppreſſive taxes.

In 1734, after guaranteeing the Pragmatic Sanction *, Chriſtian ſent 6000 men to the aſſiſtance of the emperor, during the diſpute of the ſucceſſion to the crown of Poland. Though he was pacific, yet he was jealous of his rights, eſpecially over Hamburgh. He obliged the Hamburghers to call in the mediation of Pruſſia, to aboliſh their bank, to admit the coin of Denmark as current, and to pay him a million of ſilver marks. He had, two years after, viz. in 1738, a diſpute with his Britannic majeſty about the little lordſhip of Steinhorſt, which had been mortgaged to the latter by a duke of Holſtein Lawenburgh, and which Chriſtian ſaid belonged to him. Some blood was ſpilt during the conteſt; in which Chriſtian, it is thought, never was in earneſt. It brought on, however a treaty, in which he availed himſelf of his Britannic majeſty's predelection for his German dominions; for he agreed to pay Chriſtian a ſubſidy of 70,000l. ſterling a year, on condition of keeping in readineſs 7000 troops for the protection of Hanover: this was a gainful bargain for Denmark. And two years after, he ſeized ſome Dutch ſhips, for trading without his leave to Iceland; but the difference was made up by the mediation of Sweden. Chriſtian had ſo great a party in that kingdom, that it was generally thought he would revive the union of Calmar, by procuring his ſon to be declared ſucceſſor to his then Swediſh majeſty. Some ſteps for that purpoſe were certainly taken; but whatever Chriſtian's views might have been, the deſign was fruſtrated by the jealouſy of other powers, who could not bear the thoughts of ſeeing all Scandinavia ſubject to one family. Chriſtian died in 1746, with the character of being the father of his people.

His ſon and ſucceſſor, Frederic V. had, in 1743, married the princeſs Louiſa, daughter to his Britannic majeſty George II. He improved upon his father's plan, for the happineſs of his people; but took no concern, except that of a mediator, in the German war. For it was by his intervention that the treaty of Cloſter-Seven was concluded between his royal highneſs the late duke of Cumberland, and the French general Richlieu. Upon the death of his firſt queen, who was mother to his preſent Daniſh majeſty, he married a daughter of the duke of Brunſwic-Wolfenbuttle; and died in 1766.

His ſon, Chriſtian VII. was born the 29th of January, 1749; and married his preſent Britannic majeſty's youngeſt ſiſter, the princeſs Carolina-Matilda. This alliance, though it wore at firſt a very promiſing appearance, had a very unfortunate termination. This is partly attributed to the intrigues of the queen dowager, mother-in-law to the preſent king, who has a ſon named Frederic, and whom ſhe is repreſented as deſirous of raiſing to the throne. She poſſeſſes a great degree of diſſimulation, and when the princeſs Carolina-Matilda came to Copenhagen, ſhe received her with all the appearance

* An agreement by which the princes of Europe engaged to ſupport the Houſe of Auſtria in favour of the queen of Hungary, daughter of the emperor Charles VI. who had no male iſſue.

of

of friendſhip and affection, acquainting her with all the king's faults, and at the ſame time telling her, that ſhe would take every opportunity as a mother to aſſiſt her in reclaiming him. By this conduct, ſhe became the depoſitory of all the young queen's ſecrets, whilſt at the ſame time it is ſaid ſhe placed people about the king, to keep him conſtantly engaged in all kinds of riot or debauchery, to which ſhe knew he was naturally too much inclined: and at length it was ſo ordered, that a miſtreſs was thrown in the king's way, whom he was perſuaded to keep in his palace. When the king was upon his travels, the queen dowager uſed frequently to viſit the young queen Matilda; and under the maſk of friendſhip and affection, told her often of the debaucheries and exceſſes which the king had fallen into in Holland, England, and France, and often perſuaded her not to live with him. But as ſoon as the king returned, the queen reproaching him with his conduct, though in a gentle manner, his mother-in-law immediately took his part, and endeavoured to perſuade the king to give no ear to her counſels, as it was preſumption in a queen of Denmark to direct the king. Queen Matilda now began to diſcover the deſigns of the queen dowager, and afterwards lived upon very good terms with the king, who for a time was much reclaimed. The young queen alſo now aſſumed to herſelf the part which the queen dowager had been complimented with, the management of public affairs. This ſtung the old queen to the quick; and her thoughts were now entirely occupied with ſchemes of revenge. She at length found means to gratify it in a very ample manner. About the end of the year 1770, it was obſerved that Brandt and Struenſee were particularly regarded by the king; the former as a favourite, and the latter as a miniſter, and that they paid great court to queen Matilda, and were ſupported by her. This opened a new ſcene of intrigue at Copenhagen; all the diſcarded placemen paid their court to the queen-dowager, and ſhe became the head and patroneſs of the party. Old count Molke, an artful diſplaced ſtateſman, and others, who were well verſed in intrigues of this nature, perceiving that they had unexperienced young perſons to contend with, who though they might mean well, had not ſufficient knowledge and capacity to conduct the public affairs, very ſoon predicted their ruin. Struenſee and Brandt wanted to make a reform in the adminiſtration of public affairs at once, which ſhould have been the work of time: and thereby made a great number of enemies, among thoſe whoſe intereſt it was that things ſhould continue upon the ſame footing that they had been for ſome time before. After this queen Matilda was delivered of a daughter, but as ſoon as the queen-dowager ſaw her, ſhe immediately turned back, and with a malicious ſmile, declared, that the child had all the features of Struenſee: on which her friends publiſhed it among the people, that the queen muſt have had an intrigue with Struenſee; which was corroborated by the queen's often ſpeaking with this miniſter in public. A great variety of evil reports were now propagated againſt the reigning queen; and another report was alſo induſtriouſly ſpread, that the governing party had formed a deſign to ſuperſede the king, as being incapable of governing; that the queen was to be declared regent during the minority of her ſon; and that Struenſee was to be her prime-miniſter. Whatever Struenſee did to reform the abuſes of the late miniſtry, was repreſented to the people as ſo many attacks upon, and attempts to deſtroy, the government of the kingdom. By ſuch means the people began to be greatly incenſed againſt this miniſter: and as he alſo wanted to make a reform in the military, he gave great offence to the troops, at the head of which were ſome of the creatures of the queen dowager, who took every opportunity to make their inferior officers believe, that

it was the deſign of Struenſee to change the whole ſyſtem of government. It muſt be admitted, that this miniſter ſeems in many reſpects to have acted very imprudently, and to have been too much under the guidance of his paſſions; his principles alſo appear to have been of the libertine kind.

Many councils were held between the queen-dowager and her friends, upon the proper meaſures to be taken for effectuating their deſigns: and it was at length reſolved to ſurpriſe the king in the middle of the night, and force him immediately to ſign an order, which was to be prepared in readineſs, for committing the perſons before mentioned to ſeparate priſons, to accuſe them of high treaſon in general, and in particular of a deſign to poiſon, or dethrone the king; and that if that could not be properly ſupported by torture or otherwiſe, to procure witneſſes to confirm the report of a criminal commerce between the queen and Struenſee. This was an undertaking of ſo hazardous a nature, that the wary count Moltke, and moſt of the queen-dowager's friends, who had any thing to loſe, drew back, endeavouring to animate others, but excuſing themſelves from taking any open and active part in this affair. However the queen-dowager at laſt procured a ſufficient number of active inſtruments for the execution of her deſigns. On the 16th of January, 1772, a maſked ball was given at the court of Denmark. The king had danced at this ball, and afterwards played at quadrille with general Gahler, his lady and counſellor Struenſee, brother to the count. The queen, after dancing as uſual one country-dance with the king, gave her hand to count Struenſee during the remainder of the evening. She retired about two in the morning, and was followed by him and count Brandt. About four the ſame morning, prince Frederic, who had alſo been at the ball, got up and dreſſed himſelf, and went with the queen dowager to the king's bed chamber, accompanied by general Eichſtedt and count Rantzau. They ordered his majeſty's valet-de-chambre to awake him, and in the midſt of the ſurprize and alarm, that this unexpected intruſion excited, they informed him, that queen Matilda and the two Struenſees were at that inſtant buſy in drawing up an act of renunciation of the crown, which they would immediately after compel him to ſign: and that the only means he could uſe to prevent ſo imminent a danger, was to ſign thoſe orders without loſs of time, which they had brought with them, for arreſting the queen and her accomplices. It is ſaid, that the king was not eaſily prevailed upon to ſign theſe orders; but at length complied, though with reluctance and heſitation. Count Rantzau, and three officers, were diſpatched at that untimely hour to the queen's apartments, and immediately arreſted her. She was put into one of the king's coaches, in which ſhe was conveyed to the caſtle of Cronenburgh, together with the infant princeſs, attended by lady Moſtyn, and eſcorted by a party of dragoons. In the mean time, Struenſee and Brandt were alſo ſeized in their beds, and impriſoned in the citadel. Struenſee's brother, ſome of his adherents, and moſt of the members of the late adminiſtration, were ſeized the ſame night, to the number of about eighteen, and thrown into confinement. The government after this ſeemed to be entirely lodged in the hands of the queen-dowager and her ſon, ſupported and aſſiſted by thoſe who had the principal ſhare in the revolution; while the king appeared to be little more than a pageant, whoſe perſon and name it was neceſſary occaſionally to make uſe of. All the officers who had a hand in the revolution were immediately promoted, and an almoſt total change took place in all the departments of adminiſtration. A new council was appointed, in which prince Frederic preſided, and a commiſſion of eight members, to examine the papers of the priſoners, and to com-

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mence a proceſs againſt them. The ſon of queen Matilda, the prince royal who was entered into the fifth year of his age, was put into the care of a lady of quality, who was appointed governeſs under the ſuperintendency of the queen-dowager. Struenſee and Brandt were put in irons, and very rigorouſly treated in priſon: they both underwent long and frequent examinations, and at length received ſentence of death. They were beheaded on the 28th of April, having their right hands previouſly cut off: but many of their friends and adherents were afterwards ſet at liberty. Struenſee at firſt had abſolutely denied having any criminal intercourſe with the queen; but this he afterwards confeſſed; and though he is ſaid by ſome to have been induced to do this only by the fear of torture, the proofs of his guilt in this reſpect were eſteemed notorious, and his confeſſions full and explicit. Beſides, no meaſures were adopted by the court of Great Britain to clear up the queen's character in this reſpect. But in May, his Britannic majeſty ſent a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips to convey that princeſs to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell, in his electoral dominions, for the place of her future reſidence. She died there, of a malignant fever, on the 10th of May, 1775, aged 23 years and 10 months.

In 1780, his Daniſh majeſty acceded to the armed neutrality propoſed by the empreſs of Ruſſia. He appears at preſent to have ſuch a debility of underſtanding, as to diſqualify him for the proper management of public affairs; but on the 16th of April, 1784, another court revolution took place. The queen-dowager's friends were removed, a new council formed under the auſpices of the prince royal, ſome of the former old members reſtored to the cabinet, and no regard is to be paid for the future to any inſtrument, unleſs ſigned by the king, and counterſigned by the prince royal.

The conduct of this prince is ſtamped with that conſiſtency of behaviour, which enables him to purſue, with unremitting zeal, the prudent and benevolent ſchemes, which he has planned for the benefit of his grateful country. The reſtoration of the peaſantry to their long-loſt liberty, and the abolition of many grievances under which they laboured, have already been diſtinctly mentioned. To this may be added the exertions he makes for the general diffuſion of knowledge; the patronage he affords to ſocieties of learning, arts, and ſcience; the excellent meaſures he has adopted for the ſuppreſſion of beggars, with whom the country was over-run, and the encouragement of induſtry, by the moſt extenſive enquiries into the ſtate of the poor throughout the kingdom; the wiſe regulations he has introduced into the corn-trade, equally beneficial to the landed intereſt and to the poor; and the judicious laws, which under his influence have been made to encourage foreigners to ſettle in Iceland. If any thing is wanting to compleat his happineſs, his late matrimonial choice crowns it. The princeſs of Heſſe Caſſel, whom he has choſen, is ſaid to poſſeſs the moſt amiable diſpoſition and goodneſs of heart.

Count Schimmelman, miniſter of ſtate, finances, and commerce, has the merit of accompliſhing the abolition of the ſlave-trade among the ſubjects of Denmark. His plan was approved by the king on the 22d of February, 1792, and is to be gradual; and in 1803, all trade in negroes is to ceaſe on the part of Daniſh ſubjects. The diſintereſtedneſs of this miniſter, who poſſeſſes large eſtates in the Daniſh Weſt India iſlands, recommends his exertions to greater praiſe. The above ordinance does not ſeem to have cauſed any ſtir in Denmark among the Weſt India merchants, and it is not thought it will cauſe any in the iſlands.

A ſcheme for defraying the national debt has been ſuggeſted and followed. One million has already been diſcharged.

Denmark, has as yet refuſed to join any confederacy againſt France. Whether the Daniſh monarch, will acquieſce in her uſurpation and robberies is uncertain.

Chriſtian VII. reigning king of Denmark and Norway, LL. D. and F. R. S. was born in 1749; in 1756 he was married to the princeſs Carolina Matilda of England; and has iſſue, 1. Frederic, prince-royal of Denmark, born January 28, 1768, and married in 1790, to the princeſs Mary-Anne Frederica, of Heſſe. 2. Louiſa Auguſta, princeſs-royal, born July 7, 1771, and married May 27, 1786, to Frederic, prince of Sleſwick-Holſtein, by whom ſhe has iſſue.

Brothers and ſiſters to the king. 1. Sophia Magdalene, born July 3, 1746, married to the late king of Sweden, Guſtavus III.—2. Wilhelmina, born July 10, 1747; married Sept. 1, 1764, William, the preſent prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.——3. Louiſa, born Jan. 30, 1750; married Aug. 30, 1766, Charles, brother to the prince of Heſſe-Caſſel.——4. Frederic, born Oct. 28, 1753.

His Daniſh Majeſty's GERMAN DOMINIONS.

HOLSTEIN, a duchy of Lower Saxony, about 100 miles long and 50 broad, and a fruitful country, was formerly divided between the empreſs of Ruſſia (termed Ducal Holſtein), the king of Denmark, and the imperial cities of Hamburg and Lubeck; but on the 16th of November, 1773, the Ducal Holſtein, with all the rights, prerogatives, and territorial ſovereignty, was formally transferred to the king of Denmark, by virtue of a treaty between both courts. The duke of Holſtein Gottorp is joint ſovereign of great part of it now, with the Daniſh monarch. Kiel is the capital of Ducal Holſtein, and is well built, has a harbour, and neat public edifices. The capital of the Daniſh Holſtein is Gluckſtadt, a well-built town and fortreſs, but in a marſhy ſituation on the right of the Elbe, and has ſome foreign commerce.

Altena, a large populous and handſome town, of great traffic, is commodiouſly ſituated on the Elbe, in the neighbourhood of Hamburgh. It was built profeſſedly in that ſituation by the kings of Denmark, that it might ſhare in the commerce of the former. Being declared a free port, and the ſtaple of the Daniſh Eaſt India company, the merchants alſo enjoying liberty of conſcience, great numbers flock to Altena from all parts of the North, and even from Hamburg itſelf.

The famous city of Hamburg lies, in a geographical ſenſe, in Holſtein; but is an imperial, free, and Hanſeatic city, lying on the verge of that part of Holſtein, called Stormar. It has the ſovereignty of a ſmall diſtrict round it, of about ten miles circuit: it is one of the moſt flouriſhing commercial towns in Europe; and though the kings of Denmark ſtill lay claim to certain privileges within its walls, it may be conſidered as a well-regulated commonwealth. The number of its inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 180,000; and it is furniſhed with a vaſt variety of noble edifices, both public and private: it has two ſpacious harbours, formed by the river Elbe, which runs through the town, and 84 bridges are thrown over its canals. Hamburg has the good fortune of having been peculiarly favoured in its commerce by Great Britain, with whom it ſtill carries on a great trade. The

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Hamburgers maintain twelve companies of foot, and one troop of dragoons, beſides an artillery company.

Lubec, an imperial city, with a good harbour, and once the capital of the Hanſe towns, and ſtill a rich and populous place, is alſo in this duchy, and governed by its own magiſtrates. It has 20 pariſh churches beſides a large cathedral. Lutheraniſm is the eſtabliſhed religion of the whole duchy.

In WESTPHALIA, the king of Denmark has the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhurſt, about 2000 ſquare miles; they lie on the ſouth ſide of the Weſer; their capitals have the ſame name; the firſt has the remains of a fortification, and the laſt is an open place. Oldenburg gave a title to the firſt royal anceſtor of his preſent Daniſh majeſty. The country abounds with marſhes and heaths, but its horſes are the beſt in Germany.

LAPLAND.

THE northern ſituation of Lapland, and the diviſion of its property, require, before I proceed farther, that I ſhould treat of it under a diſtinct head, and in the ſame method that I obſerve in other countries.

SITUATION, EXTENT, DIVISION, AND NAME.] The whole country of Lapland extends, ſo far as it is known, from the North Cape in 71° 30′ N. lat. to the White Sea, under the arctic circle. Part of Lapland belongs to the Danes, and is included in the government of Wardhuys; part to the Swedes, which is by far the moſt valuable; and ſome parts in the eaſt, to the Muſcovites or Ruſſians. It would be little better than waſting the reader's time, to pretend to point out the ſuppoſed dimenſions of each. That belonging to the Swedes may be ſeen in the table of dimenſions given in the account of Sweden: but other accounts ſay, that it is about 100 German miles in length, and 90 in breadth: it comprehends all the country from the Baltic, to the mountains that ſeparate Norway from Sweden. The Muſcovite part lies towards the eaſt, between the lake Enarak and the White Sea. Thoſe parts, notwithſtanding the rudeneſs of the country, are divided into ſmaller diſtricts, generally taking their names from rivers: but, unleſs in the Swediſh part, which is ſubject to a prefect, the Laplanders can be ſaid to be under no regular government. The Swediſh Lapland, therefore, is the object chiefly conſidered by authors in deſcribing this country. It has been generally thought, that the Laplanders are the deſcendants of Finlanders driven out of their own country, and that they take their name from *Lappes*, which ſignifies exiles. The reader, from what has been ſaid in the Introduction, may eaſily conceive that in Lapland, for ſome months in the ſummer, the ſun never ſets; and during winter, it never riſes: but the inhabitants are ſo well aſſiſted by the twilight and the aurora borealis, that they never diſcontinue their work through darkneſs.

CLIMATE.] In winter it is no unuſual thing for their lips to be frozen to the cup in attempting to drink; and in ſome thermometers, ſpirits of wine are concreted into ice: the limbs of the inhabitants very often mortify with cold: drifts of ſnow threaten to bury the traveller, and cover the ground four or five feet deep. A thaw ſometimes takes place, and then the froſt that ſucceeds, preſents the Laplander with a ſmooth level of ice, over which he travels with a rein-deer in a ſledge with inconceivable ſwiftneſs. The heats of ſummer are exceſſive for a ſhort time; and the cataracts,

aracts, which daſh from the mountains, often preſent to the eye the moſt picturesque appearances.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The reader muſt form in his mind a vaſt maſs of mountains, irregularly crowded together, to give him an idea of Lapland; they are, however, in ſome interſtices, ſeparated by rivers and lakes, which contain an incredible number of iſlands, ſome of which form delightful habitations, and are believed by the natives to be the terreſtrial Paradiſe; even roſes and other flowers grow wild on their borders in the ſummer; though this is but a ſhort gleam of temperature, for the climate in general is exceſſively ſevere. Duſky foreſts, and noiſome, unhealthy moraſſes, and barren plains, cover great part of the flat country, ſo that nothing can be more uncomfortable than the ſtate of the inhabitants.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Silver and gold mines, as well as thoſe of iron copper and lead, have been diſcovered and worked in Lapland to great advantage; beautiful cryſtals are found here, as are ſome amethyſts and topazes; alſo various ſorts of mineral ſtones, ſurpriſingly poliſhed by the hand of nature; valuable pearls have likewiſe been ſometimes found in theſe rivers, but never in the ſeas.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS.] We muſt refer to our accounts of Denmark and Norway for great part of this article, as its contents are in common with all the three countries. The *zibelin*, a creature reſembling the marten, is a native of Lapland; and its ſkin, whether black or white, is ſo much eſteemed, that it is frequently given as preſents to royal and diſtinguiſhed perſonages. The Lapland hares grow white in the winter; and the country produces a large black cat, which attends the natives in hunting. By far the moſt remarkable, however of the Lapland animals, is the *rein-deer*; which nature ſeems to have provided to ſolace the Laplanders for the privations of the other comforts of life. This animal, the moſt uſeful perhaps of any in the creation, reſembles the ſtag, only it ſomewhat droops the head, and the horns project forward. All deſcribers of this animal have taken notice of the cracking noiſe that they make when they move their legs, which is attributed to their ſeparating and afterwards bringing together the diviſions of the hoof. The under part is entirely covered with hair, in the ſame manner that the claw of the *Ptarmigan* is with feathery briſtles, which is almoſt the only bird that can endure the rigour of the ſame climate. The hoof however is not only thus protected; the ſame neceſſity which obliges the Laplanders to uſe ſnow ſhoes, makes the extraordinary width of the rein's hoof to be equally convenient in paſſing over ſnow, as it prevents their ſinking too deep, which they continually would, did the weight of their body reſt only on a ſmall point. This quadruped hath therefore an inſtinct to uſe a hoof of ſuch a form in a ſtill more advantageous manner, by ſeparating it when the foot is to touch the ground ſo as to cover a larger ſurface of ſnow. The inſtant however the leg of the animal is raiſed, the hoof is immediately contracted, and the colliſion of the parts occaſions the ſnapping which is heard on every motion of the rein. And probably the cracking which they perpetually make, may ſerve to keep them together when the weather is remarkably dark. In ſummer, the rein-deer provide themſelves with leaves and graſs, and in the winter they live upon moſs: they have a wonderful ſagacity at finding it out, and when found, they ſcrape away the ſnow that covers it with their feet. The ſcantineſs of their fare is inconceivable, as is the length of their journies which they can perform without any other ſupport. They fix the rein-deer to a kind of ſledge, ſhaped like

like a ſmall boat, in which the traveller well ſecured from cold, is laced down with the reins in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the other, to keep the carriage clear of ice and ſnow. The deer, whoſe harneſſing is very ſimple, ſets out, and continues the journey with prodigious ſpeed; and is ſo ſafe and tractable, that the driver is at little or no trouble in directing him. At night they look out for their own provender; and their milk often helps to ſupport their maſter. Their inſtinct in chooſing their road, and directing their courſe, can only be accounted for by their being well acquainted with the country during the ſummer months, when they live in woods. Their fleſh is a well taſted food, whether freſh or dried; their ſkin forms excellent cloathing both for the bed and body; their milk and cheeſe are nutritive and pleaſant; and their inteſtines and tendons ſupply their maſters with thread and cordage. When they run about wild in the fields, they may be ſhot at as other game. But it is ſaid that if one is killed in a flock, the ſurvivors will gore and trample him to pieces; therefore ſingle ſtragglers are generally pitched upon. Were I to recount every circumſtance, related by the credulous, of this animal, the whole would appear fabulous. With all their excellent qualities, however, the rein-deer have their inconveniences.

It is difficult in ſummer to keep them from ſtraggling; they are ſometimes buried in the ſnow; and they frequently grow reſtive, to the great danger of the driver and his carriage. Their ſurpriſing ſpeed (for they are ſaid to run at the rate of 200 miles a-day) ſeems to be owing to their impatience to get rid of their incumbrance. None but a Laplander could bear the uneaſy poſture in which he is placed, when he is confined in one of theſe carriages or pulkhas; or would believe, that, by whiſpering the rein-deer in the ear, they know the place of their deſtination. But after all theſe abatements, the natives would have difficulty to ſubſiſt without the rein-deer, which ſerve them for ſo many purpoſes.

PEOPLE, CUSTOMS, AND MANNERS.] The language of the Laplanders is of Finniſh origin, and comprehends ſo many dialects, that it is with difficulty they underſtand each other. They have neither writing nor letters among them, but a number of hieroglyphics, which they make uſe of in their Rounes, a ſort of ſtick that they call Piſtave, and which ſerve them for an almanack. Theſe hieroglyphics are alſo the marks they uſe inſtead of ſignatures, even in matters of law. Miſſionaries from the chriſtianized parts of Scandinavia introduced among them the Chriſtian religion; but they cannot be ſaid even yet to be Chriſtians, though they have among them ſome religious ſeminaries, inſtituted by the king of Denmark. Upon the whole the majority of the Laplanders practice as groſs ſuperſtitions and idolatries as are to be found among the moſt uninſtructed pagans; and ſo abſurd, that they ſcarcely deſerve to be mentioned, were it not that the number and oddities of their ſuperſtitions have induced the northern traders to believe that they are ſkilful in magic and divination. For this purpoſe their magicians, who are a peculiar ſet of men, make uſe of what they call a drum, made of the hollow trunk of a fir, pine, or birch tree, one end of which is covered with a ſkin; on this they draw with a kind of red colour, the figures of their own gods, as well as of Jeſus Chriſt, the apoſtles, the ſun, moon, ſtars, birds, and rivers; on theſe they place one or two braſs rings, which, when the drum is beaten with a little hammer, dance over the figures; and according to their progreſs the ſorcerer prognoſticates. Theſe frantic operations are generally performed for gain; and the northern ſhip-maſters are ſuch dupes to the arts of theſe impoſtors, that they often buy from them a magic cord, which contains a number of knots, by opening of which, according to the

magician's directions they gain what wind they want. This is alſo a very common traffic on the banks of the Red Sea, and is managed with great addreſs on the part of the ſorcerer, who keeps up the price of his knotted taliſman. The Laplanders ſtill retain the worſhip of many of the Teutonic gods; but have among them great remains of the Druidical inſtitutions. They believe the tranſmigration of the ſoul, and have feſtivals ſet apart for the worſhip of certain genii, called Jeuhles, who they think inhabit the air, and have great power over human actions; but being without form or ſubſtance, they aſſign to them neither images nor ſtatues.

Agriculture is not much attended to in Lapland. The ſoil of Lapland is generally ſo chilled and barren, that it produces little or no grain or fruit-trees of any kind. This ſterility, however, is not ſo much owing to the ſoil, which is in many places of a rich mould, as to want of induſtry. They are chiefly divided into Lapland fiſhers, and Lapland mountaineers. The former always make their habitations on the brink, or in the neighbourhood of ſome lake, from whence they draw their ſubſiſtence. The others ſeek their ſupport upon the mountains, and their environs, poſſeſſing herds of rein-deer more or leſs numerous, which they uſe according to the ſeaſon, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very induſtrious herdſmen, and are rich in compariſon of the Lapland fiſhers. Some of them poſſeſs ſix hundred or a thouſand rein-deer, and have often money and plate beſides. They mark every rein-deer on the ears, and divide them into claſſes; ſo that they inſtantly perceive whether any one is ſtrayed, though they cannot count to ſo great a number as that to which their ſtock often amounts. Thoſe who poſſeſs but a ſmall ſtock, give to every individual a proper name. The Lapland fiſhers, who are alſo called Laplanders of the Woods, becauſe in ſummer they dwell upon the borders of the lakes, and in winter in the foreſts, live by fiſhing and hunting, and chooſe their ſituation by its convenience for either. The greateſt part of them, however, have ſome rein-deer. They are active and expert in the chace: and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almoſt entirely aboliſhed the uſe of the bow and arrow. Beſides looking after the rein-deer, the fiſhery, and the chace, the men employ themſelves in the conſtruction of their canoes, which are ſmall, light, and compact. They alſo make ſledges, to which they give the form of a canoe, harneſs for the rein-deer, cups, bowls, and various other utenſils, which are ſometimes neatly carved, and ſometimes ornamented with bones, braſs, or horn. The employment of the women conſiſts in making nets for the fiſhery, in drying fiſh and meat, in milking the rein-deer, in making cheeſe, and tanning hides: but it is underſtood to be the buſineſs of the men to look after the kitchen; in which, it is ſaid, the women never interfere.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is about twenty-five to thirty feet in diameter, and not much above ſix in height. They cover them according to the ſeaſon, and the means of the poſſeſſor; ſome with briars, bark of birch, and linen; others with turf, coarſe cloth, or felt, or the old ſkins of rein-deer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains which open aſunder. A little place ſurrounded with ſtones is made in the middle of the hut, for the fire, over which a chain is ſuſpended to hang the kettle upon. They are ſcarcely able to ſtand upright in their huts, but conſtantly ſit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and, to ſeparate the apartments, they place upright ſticks at ſmall diſtances. They cover themſelves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter, they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their houſhold furniture conſiſts of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, ſpoons, and ſometimes tin, or even

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ſilver baſons; to theſe may be added, the implements of fiſhing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry ſuch a number of things with them in their excurſions, they build in the foreſts, at certain diſtances, little huts, made like pigeon-houſes, and placed upon a poſt, which is the trunk of a tree, cut off at the height of about a fathom or ſix feet from the root. In theſe elevated huts they keep their goods and proviſions; and though they are never ſhut, yet they are never plundered. The rein-deer ſupply the Laplanders with the greateſt part of their proviſions; the chace and the fiſhery ſupply the reſt. Their principal diſhes are the fleſh of the rein-deer, and puddings which they make with their blood, by putting it either alone or mixed with wild berries, into the ſtomach of the animal from whence it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the fleſh of the bear is conſidered by them as their moſt delicate meat. They eat every kind of fiſh, even the ſea-dog; as well as all kinds of wild animals, not excepting birds of prey, and carnivorous animals. Their winter proviſions conſiſt chiefly of fleſh and fiſh dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without any ſort of dreſſing. Their common drink is water, ſometimes mixed with milk; they make alſo broths and fiſh-ſoups. Brandy is very ſcarce with them, but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family ſpreads a carpet on the ground; and then men and women ſquat round this mat, which is covered with diſhes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a ſpoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion ſeparately given him, that no perſon may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a ſhort prayer: and, as ſoon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

The ſummer garb of the men conſiſts of a long coat of coarſe cloth, reaching down the middle of the leg, and girded round the waiſt with a belt or girdle; from which hang a Norway knife, and a pouch containing flints, matches, tobacco, and other neceſſaries; the girdle itſelf being decorated with braſs rings and chains. Their caps are made of the ſkin of the northern diver, with the feathers on; and their ſhoes of the rein-deer ſkin, with the hair outwards. They wear no linen; but the garments of the better ſort are of a finer cloth, and they delight in a variety of colours, though red, as the moſt glaring, is the moſt agreeable. In winter they are totally caſed up in coats, caps, boots, and gloves, made of the rein-deer ſkins.

The women's apparel differs very little from that of the other ſex; only their girdles are more ornamented with rings, chains, needle-caſes, and toys that ſometimes weigh 20 pounds. In winter, both men and women lie in their furs; in ſummer they cover themſelves entirely with coarſe blankets to defend them from the gnats which are intolerable. The Laplanders are not only well diſpoſed, but naturally ingenious. They make all their own furniture, their boats, ſledges, bows and arrows. They form neat boxes of thin birch boards, and inlay them with the horn of the rein-deer.

The Laplanders make ſurpriſing excurſions upon the ſnow in their hunting expeditions. They provide themſelves each with a pair of ſkates, or ſnow-ſhoes, which are no other than fir-boards covered with the rough ſkin of the rein-deer, turned in ſuch a manner that the hair riſes againſt the ſnow, otherwiſe they would be too ſlippery. One of theſe ſhoes is uſually as long as the perſon who wears it; the other is about a foot ſhorter. The feet ſtand in the middle, and to them the ſhoes are faſtened by thongs or withes. The Laplander thus equipped wields a long pole in his hand, near the end of which there is a round ball of wood to prevent its piercing too deep in the ſnow; and with this he ſtops himſelf occaſionally. By means of theſe

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accoutrements he will travel at the rate of 60 miles a-day without being fatigued; aſcending ſteep mountains, and ſliding down again with amazing ſwiftneſs.

Lapland is but poorly peopled, owing to the general barrenneſs of its ſoil. The whole number of its inhabitants may amount to about 60,000. Both men and women are conſiderably ſhorter than more ſouthern Europeans. Maupertuis meaſured a woman who was ſuckling her child, whoſe height did not exceed four feet two inches and a half; they make, however, a much more agreeable appearance than the men, who are often ill-ſhaped and ugly, and their heads too large for their bodies. Their women are complaiſant, chaſte, often well made, and extremely nervous; which is alſo obſervable among the men, although more rarely. It frequently happens, that a Lapland woman will faint away, or even fall into a fit of frenzy, on a ſpark of fire flying towards her, an unexpected noiſe, or the ſudden light of an unexpected object, though in its own nature not in the leaſt alarming: in ſhort, at the moſt trifling things imaginable. During theſe paroxyſms of terror, they deal about blows with the firſt thing that preſents itſelf; and on coming to themſelves are utterly ignorant of all that has paſſed.

When a Laplander intends to marry a female, he, or his friends court her father with brandy, when, with ſome difficulty, he gains admittance to his fair one, he offers her a beaver's tongue, or ſome other eatable; which ſhe rejects before company, but accepts of in private. Cohabitation often precedes marriage; but every admittance to the fair one is purchaſed from her father, by her lover, with a bottle of brandy, and this prolongs the courtſhip ſometimes for three years. The prieſt of the pariſh at laſt celebrates the nuptials; but the bridegroom is obliged to ſerve his father-in-law for four years after. He then carries his wife and her fortune home.

Commerce.] Little can be ſaid of the commerce of the Laplanders. Their exports conſiſt of fiſh, rein-deer, furs, baſkets, and toys; with ſome dried pikes, and cheeſes made of rein-deer milk. They receive for theſe rixdollars, woollen cloths, linnen, copper, tin, flour, oil, hides, needles, knives, ſpirituous liquors, tobacco and other neceſſaries. Their mines are generally worked by foreigners, and produce no inconſiderable profit. The Laplanders travel in a kind of caravan, with their families, to the Finland and Norway fairs. The reader may make ſome eſtimate of the medium of commerce among them, when he is told, that fifty ſquirrel ſkins, or one fox ſkin, and a pair of Lapland ſhoes, produce one rixdollar; but no computation can be made of the public revenue, the greateſt part of which is allotted for the maintenance of the clergy. With regard to the ſecurity of their property, few diſputes happen; and their judges have no military to enforce their decrees, the people having a remarkable averſion to war; and, ſo far as we know, are never employed in any army.

SWEDEN.

Extent and Situation.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	800	between	56 and 69 North latitude.
Breadth	500		10 and 30 East longitude.

Containing 220,000 ſquare miles, with 14 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries and divisions. THIS country is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate or Scaggerac, on the ſouth; by the impaſſable mountains of Norway, on the weſt; by Daniſh or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; and by Muſcovy on the eaſt. It is divided into ſeven provinces: 1. Sweden Proper. 2. Gothland. 3. Livonia. 4. Ingria. (Theſe two laſt provinces belong now, however, to the Ruſſians, having been conquered by Peter the Great, and ceded by poſterior treaties.) 5. Finland. 6. Swediſh Lapland: and, 7. The Swediſh iſlands. Great abatement muſt be made for the lakes and unimproved parts of Sweden; which are ſo extenſive, that the habitable part is confined to narrow bounds. The following are the dimenſions given us of this kingdom.

Sweden.	Square Miles	Sum total.	Length.	Breadth.	Capital Cities.
	76,835	228,715			
Sweden Proper — —	47,900		342	194	Stockholm, N. Lat. 59—30. E. Long. 19—15.
Gothland — —	25 975		253	160	Ca'mar.
Schonen — —	2,960		77	56	Lunden.
		76 835			
Lapland and W. Bothnia	76,000		420	340	Torne. Uma.
Swediſh Finland, and Eaſt Bothnia	73,000		395	225	Abo. Cajenburgh.
Gothland I. —	1000		80	23	Wiſby.
Oeland I. — —	560		84	9	Barkholm.
		150,560			
Upper Saxony — Pomerania, P.	960		47	24	Stralſund.
Upper Saxony — Rugen I.	360		24	21	Bergen.
		1 320			

Of Sweden Proper, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Uplandia,
Sudermania,
Weſtmania,
Nericia,
Geſtricia,
Helſingia,
Dalicarlia,
Medelpedia,
Angermania,
Jemptia.

Of

Of Gothland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Eaſt Gothland,	Dalia
Weſt Gothland,	Schonen,
Smaland,	Bleking,
Wermeland,	Halland

Of Swediſh Lapland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Thorne Lapmark,	Pithia Lapmark,
Kimi Lapmark,	Uma Lapmark.
Lula Lapmark.	

The principal places in Weſt Bothnia are Umea, Pitea, and Tornea.

Of Finland, the following are the ſubdiviſions:

Eaſt Bothnia,	Nyland,
Cajania,	Travaſtia,
Savoloxia,	Finland Proper.

The Swediſh iſles are Gothland, Oeland, Aland, and Rugen.

The face of Sweden is pretty ſimilar to thoſe of its neighbouring countries; only it has the advantage of navigable rivers.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The ſame may be ſaid with regard to this article. Summer burſts from winter; and vegetation is more ſpeedy than in ſouthern climates; for the ſun is here ſo hot, as ſometimes to ſet foreſts on fire. Stoves and warm furs mitigate the cold of winter, which is ſo intenſe, that the noſes and extremities of the inhabitants are ſometimes mortified; and in ſuch caſes, the beſt remedy that has been found out, is rubbing the affected part with ſnow. The Swedes, ſince the days of Charles XII. have been at incredible pains to correct the native barrenneſs of their country, by erecting colleges of agriculture, and in ſome places with great ſucceſs. The ſoil is much the ſame with that of Denmark, and ſome parts of Norway, generally very bad, but in ſome vallies ſurpriſingly fertile. The Swedes, till of late years, had not induſtry ſufficient to remedy the one, nor improve the other. The peaſants now follow the agriculture of France and England; and ſome late accounts ſay, that they raiſe almoſt as much grain as maintains the natives. Gothland produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas and beans; and in caſe of deficiency, the people are ſupplied from Livonia and the Baltic provinces. In ſummer, the fields are verdant, and covered with flowers, and produce ſtrawberries, raſberries, currants, and other ſmall fruits. The common people knew, as yet, little of the cultivation of apricots, peaches, nectarines, pine-apples, and the like high flavoured fruits; but melons are brought to great perfection in dry ſeaſons.

MINERALS AND METALS.] Sweden produces chryſtals, amethyſts, topazes, porphry, lapis-lazuli, agate, cornelian, marble, and other foſſils. The chief wealth of Sweden, however ariſes from her mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron. The laſt mentioned metal employs no fewer than 450 forges, hammering mills, and ſmelting-houſes. A kind of a gold mine has likewiſe been diſcovered in Sweden, but ſo inconſiderable, that from the

year

year 1741 to 1747, it produced only 2,389 gold ducats, each valued at 9s. 4d. ſterling. The firſt gallery of one ſilver mine is 100 fathoms below the ſurface of the earth; the roof is ſupported by prodigious oaken beams; and from thence the miners deſcend about 40 fathoms to the loweſt vein. This mine is ſaid to produce 20,000 a year. The product of the copper-mines is uncertain; but the whole is loaded with vaſt taxes and reductions to the government, which has no other reſources for the exigencies of ſtate. Theſe ſubterraneous manſions are aſtoniſhingly ſpacious, and at the ſame time commodious for their inhabitants, ſo that they ſeem to form a hidden world. The water-falls in Sweden afford excellent conveniency for turning mills for forges; and ſome years, the exports of Sweden for iron brought in 300,000 l. ſterling. Dr. Buſching thinks that they conſtituted two-thirds of the national revenue. It muſt, however, be obſerved that the extortions of the Swediſh government, and the importation of American bar-iron into Europe, and ſome other cauſes, have greatly diminiſhed this manufacture of Sweden; ſo that the Swedes will be obliged to apply themſelves to other branches of trade and improvements, eſpecially in agriculture.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL] A few leagues from Gottenburgh there is a hideous precipice, down which a dreadful cataract of water ruſhes with ſuch impetuoſity, from the height into ſo deep a bed of water, that large maſts, and other bodies of timber, that are precipitated down it, diſappear, ſome for half an hour, and others for an hour, before they are recovered; the bottom of this bed has never been found, though ſounded by lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms. A remarkable ſlimy lake which ſinges things put into it, has been found in the ſouthern parts of Gothland: and ſeveral parts of Sweden contain a ſtone, which being of a yellow colour, intermixed with ſeveral ſtreaks of white, as if compoſed of gold and ſilver, affords ſulphur, vitriol, alum, and minium. The Swedes pretend to have a manuſcript of a tranſlation of the Goſpels into Gothic, done by a biſhop 1300 years ago.

SEAS.] Their ſeas are the Baltic, and the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, which are arms of the Baltic; and on the weſt of Sweden are the Categate ſea, and the Sound, a ſtrait about four miles over, which divides Sweden from Denmark.

Theſe ſeas have no tides, and are frozen up uſually four months in the year; nor are they ſo ſalt as the ocean, never mixing with it, becauſe a current ſets always out of the Baltic ſea into the ocean.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS AND FISHES.] Theſe differ little from thoſe already deſcribed in Norway and Denmark, to which I muſt refer; only the Swediſh horſes are known to be more ſerviceable in war than the German. The Swediſh hawks, when carried to France, have been known to reviſit their native country; as appears from one that was killed in Finland, with an inſcription on a ſmall gold plate, ſignifying that he belonged to the French king. The fiſhes found in the rivers and lakes of Sweden, are the ſame with thoſe in other northern countries, and taken in ſuch quantities, that their pikes (particularly) are ſalted and pickled for exportation. The train-oil of the ſeals taken in the gulf of Finland, is a conſiderable article of exportation.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] There is a great diverſity of characters among the people of Sweden; and what is peculiarly remarkable among them, they are known to have had different characters in different ages. At preſent, their peaſants ſeem to be a heavy plodding race of men, ſtrong and hardy; but, without any other ambition than that of ſubſiſting them

themſelves and their families as well as they can: the mercantile claſſes are much of the ſame caſt; but great application and perſeverance is diſcovered among them all. One could, however, form no idea that the modern Swedes are deſcendants of thoſe, who, under Guſtavus Adolphus and Charles XII. carried terror in their names, through diſtant countries, and ſhook the foundations of the greateſt empires. The intrigues of their ſenators dragged them to take part in the late war againſt Pruſſia; yet their behaviour was ſpiritleſs, and their courage contemptible. The principal nobility and gentry of Sweden are naturally brave, polite, and hoſpitable; they have high and warm notions of honour, and are jealous of their national intereſts. The dreſs, exerciſes, and diverſions, of the common people, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Denmark: the better ſort are infatuated with French modes and faſhions. The women go to the plough, threſh out the corn, row upon the water, ſerve the bricklayers, carry burdens, and do all the common drudgeries in huſbandry.

RELIGION.] Chriſtianity was introduced here in the 9th century. Their religion is Lutheran, which was propagated amongſt them by Guſtavus Vaſa, about the year 1523. The Swedes are ſurpriſingly uniform and unremitting in religious matters; and have ſuch averſion to popery, that caſtration is the fate of every Roman catholic prieſt diſcovered in their country. The archbiſhop of Upſal has a revenue of about 400l. a-year; and has under him 13 ſuffragans, beſides ſuperintendents, with moderate ſtipends. No clergyman has the leaſt direction in the affairs of ſtate; but their morals and the ſanctity of their lives endear them ſo much to the people, that the government would repent making them its enemies. Their churches are neat, and often ornamented. A body of eccleſiaſtical laws and canons direct their religious œconomy. A converſion to popery, or a long continuance under excommunication, which cannot paſs without the king's permiſſion, is puniſhed by impriſonment and exile.

LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] The Swediſh language is a dialect of the Teutonic, and reſembles that of Denmark. The Swediſh nobility and gentry are, in general, more converſant in polite literature than thoſe of many other more flouriſhing ſtates. They have of late exhibited ſome noble ſpecimens of their munificence for the improvement of literature; witneſs their ſending, at the expence of private perſons, that excellent and candid natural philoſopher Haſſelquiſt, into the eaſtern countries for diſcoveries, where he died. This noble ſpirit is eminently encouraged by the royal family; and her Swediſh majeſty purchaſed, at no inconſiderable expence for that country, all Haſſelquiſt's collection of curioſities. That able civilian, ſtateſman, and hiſtorian Puffendorff, was a native of Sweden; and ſo was the late celebrated Linnæus, who carried natural philoſophy, in ſome branches at leaſt, particularly botany, to the higheſt pitch. The paſſion of the famous queen Chriſtina for literature is well known to the public; and ſhe may be accounted a genius in many branches of knowledge. Even in the midſt of the late diſtractions of Sweden, the fine arts, particularly drawing, ſculpture, and architecture, were encouraged and protected. Agricultural learning, both in theory and practice, is now carried to a conſiderable height in that kingdom; and the character given by ſome writers, that the Swedes are a dull heavy people, fitted only for bodily labour, is in a great meaſure owing to their having no opportunity of exerting their talents.

UNIVERSITIES.] The principal is that of Upſal, inſtituted near 400 years ago, and patronized by ſucceſſive monarchs, particularly by the great

Guſtavus Adolphus, and his daughter queen Chriſtina. There are near 1500 ſtudents in this univerſity; but for the moſt part they are extremely indigent, and lodge five or ſix together, in very poor hovels. The profeſſors in different branches of literature are about twenty-two; of whom the principal are thoſe of divinity, eloquence, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, natural philoſophy, aſtronomy, and agriculture. Their ſalaries are from 70l. to 100l. per annum. This univerſity, juſtly called by Stillingfleet, "that great and hitherto unrivalled ſchool of natural hiſtory," is certainly the firſt ſeminary of the North for academical education; and has produced, from the time of its inſtitution, perſons eminent in every branch of ſcience. The learned publications, which have lately been given to the world by its members, ſufficiently prove the flouriſhing ſtate of literature in theſe parts; and the theſes, compoſed by the ſtudents on their admiſſion to their degrees would form a very intereſting collection. Many of theſe tracts upon various ſubjects of polite literature, antiquities, languages, &c. evidence the erudition and taſte of the reſpective authors; among the works of this ſort which have widely diffuſed the fame of this learned ſociety throughout Europe, are the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, or a Collection of Theſes upon Natural Hiſtory, held under the celebrated Linnæus, and chiefly ſelected by that maſter.

There is another univerſity at Abo, in Finland, but not ſo well endowed nor ſo flouriſhing; and there was a third at Lunden, in Schonen, which is now fallen into decay. Every dioceſe is provided with a free ſchool, in which boys are qualified for the univerſity *.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS. The Swediſh commonality ſubſiſt by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fiſhing. Their materials for traffic are bulky and uſeful commodities of maſts, beams, deal-boards, and other ſorts of timber for ſhipping; tar, pitch, bark of trees, pot-aſh, wooden utenſils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper, lead, iron, cordage, and fiſh. Even the manufacturing of iron was introduced into Sweden ſo late as the 16th century; for till that time they ſold their own crude ore to the Hanſe towns, and brought it back again manufactured into utenſils. About the middle of the 17th century, by the aſſiſtance of the Dutch and Flemings, they ſet up ſome manufactures of glaſs, ſtarch, tin, woollen, ſilk, ſoap, leather-dreſſing, and ſaw-mills. Bookſelling was at that time a trade unknown in Sweden. They have ſince had ſugar-baking, tobacco-plantations, and manufactures of ſail-cloth, cotton, fuſtian, and other ſtuffs; of linnen, alum, and brimſtone; paper-mills, and gunpowder-mills; vaſt quantities of copper, braſs, ſteel, and iron, are now wrought in Sweden. They have alſo foundaries for cannon, forges for fire-arms and anchors, armories, wire and ſlatting mills*; mills alſo for fulling, and for boring and ſtamping; and of late they have built many ſhips for ſale.

Certain towns in Sweden, 24 in number, are called Staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ſhips. Thoſe towns which have no foreign commerce, though lying near the ſea, are called land-towns. A third kind are termed mine-towns, as belonging to the mine diſtricts. The Swedes, about the year 1752, had greatly increaſed their exports, and diminiſhed their imports, moſt part of which arrive or are ſent off, in Swediſh ſhips; the Swedes having now a kind of navigation act, like that of the Engliſh. Theſe promiſing appear-

* An academy of arts and ſciences was ſome years ſince eſtabliſhed at Stockholm and is now in a flouriſhing condition. They have publiſhed ſeveral volumes of memoirs, which have been well received by the public.

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ances, were, however, blaſted, by the madneſs and jealouſies of the Swediſh government.

Stockholm is a ſtaple-town, and the capital of the kingdom: it ſtands about 760 miles north-eaſt of London, upon ſeven ſmall rocky iſlands, beſides two peninſulas, and built upon piles. It ſtrikes a ſtranger with its ſingular and romantic ſcenery. A variety of contraſted and enchanting views are formed by numberleſs rocks of granite, riſing boldly from the ſurface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houſes, or feathered with wood. The harbour, which is ſpacious and convenient, though difficult of acceſs, is an inlet of the Baltic: the water is clear as cryſtal, and of ſuch depth that ſhips of the largeſt burthen can approach the quay, which is of conſiderable breadth, and lined with ſpacious buildings and warehouſes. At the extremity of the harbour, ſeveral ſtreets riſe one above another in the form of an amphitheatre; and the palace, a magnificent building, crowns the ſummit. Towards the ſea, about two or three miles from the town, the harbour is contracted into a narrow ſtrait, and, winding among high rocks, diſappears from the ſight; and the proſpect is terminated by diſtant hills, overſpread with foreſt. It is far beyond the power of words, or of the pencil, to delineate theſe ſingular views. The central iſland, from which the city derives its name, and the Ritterholm, are the handſomeſt parts of the town.

Excepting in the ſuburbs, where the houſes are of wood, painted red, the generality of the buildings are of ſtone, or brick, ſtuccoed white. The royal palace which ſtands in the centre of Stockholm, and upon the higheſt ſpot of ground, was begun by Charles XI.; it is a large quadrangular ſtone edifice, and the ſtyle of architecture is both elegant and magnificent *.

The number of houſe-keepers who pay taxes are 60,000. This city is furniſhed with all the exterior marks of magnificence, and erections for manufactures and commerce that are common to other great European cities, particularly a national bank, the capital of which is 466,666l. 13s. 4d. ſterling.

Government.] The government of Sweden has undergone many changes. The Swedes, like the Danes, were originally free, and during the courſe of many centuries the crown was elective; but after various revolutions, which will be hereafter mentioned, Charles XII. who was killed in 1718, became deſpotic. He was ſucceeded by his ſiſter Ulrica; who conſented to the abolition of deſpotiſm, and reſtored the ſtates to their former liberties; and they, in return aſſociated her huſband, the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, with her in the government. A new model of the conſtitution was then drawn up, by which the royal power was brought, perhaps, too low; for the king of Sweden could ſcarcely be called by that name, being limited in every exerciſe of government, and even in the education of his own children. The diet of the ſtates appointed the great officers of the kingdom; and all the employments of any value, eccleſiaſtical, civil or military, were conferred by the king, only with the approbation of the ſenate. The eſtates were formed of deputies from the four orders, nobility, clergy, burghers, and peaſants. The repreſentatives of the nobility which included the gentry, amounted to above 1000, thoſe of the clergy to 200, the burghers to about 150, and the peaſants to 250. Each order ſat in its own houſe, and had its own ſpeaker; and each choſe a ſecret committee for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſtates were to be convoked once in three years, in the month of

* Coxe, vol. ii. p. 317, 318.

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January, and their collective body had greater powers than the parliament of Great Britain; becauſe as it has been obſerved, the king's prerogative was far more bounded.

When the ſtates were not ſitting, the affairs of the public were managed by the king and the ſenate, which were no other than a committee of the ſtates, but choſen in a particular manner; the nobility, or upper houſe appointed 24 deputies, the clergy 12, and the burghers 12; theſe chooſe three perſons, who were to be preſented to the king, that he might nominate one out of the three for each vacancy. The peaſants had no vote in electing a ſenator. Almoſt all the executive power was lodged in the ſenate, which conſiſted of 14 members, beſides the chief governors of the provinces, the preſident of the chancery, and the grand-marſhal. Thoſe ſenators, during the receſs of the ſtates, formed the king's privy-council; but he had no more than a caſting vote in their deliberations. Appeals lay to them from different courts of judicature; but each ſenator was accountable to the ſenate for his conduct to the ſtates. Thus, upon the whole, the government of Sweden might be called republican, for the king's power was not ſo great as that of a ſtadtholder. The ſenate had even a power of impoſing upon the king a ſub-committee of their number, who were to attend upon his perſon, and to be a check upon all his proceedings, down to the very management of his family. It would be endleſs to recount the numerous ſubordinate courts, boards, commiſſions, and tribunals, which the jealouſy of the Swedes had introduced into the civil, military, commercial, and other departments; it is ſufficient to ſay, that though nothing could be more plauſible, yet nothing was leſs practicable, than the whole plan of their diſtributive powers. Their officers and miniſters, under the notion of making them checks upon one another, were multiplied to an inconvenient degree; and the operations of government were greatly retarded, if not rendered ineffectual, by the tedious forms through which they muſt paſs.

But in Auguſt, 1772, the whole ſyſtem of the Swediſh government was totally changed by the late king, by force, and in the moſt unexpected manner. The circumſtances which attended this extraordinary revolution, will be found at the cloſe of our review of the hiſtory of Sweden. By that event the Swedes, inſtead of having the particular defects of their conſtitution rectified, found their king inveſted with a degree of authority little inferior to that of the moſt deſpotic princes of Europe. By the new form of government, the king isto aſſemble and ſeparate the ſtates whenever he pleaſes; he is to have the ſole diſpoſal of the army, the navy, finances, and all employments, civil and military; and though by this new ſyſtem the king does not openly claim a power of impoſing taxes on all occaſions, yet ſuch as already ſubſiſt are to be perpetual; and in caſe of invaſion, or preſſing neceſſity, the king may impoſe ſome taxes till the ſtates can be aſſembled. But of this neceſſity he is to be the judge, and the meeting of the ſtates depends wholly upon his will and pleaſure. And when they are aſſembled, they are to deliberate upon nothing but what the king thinks proper to lay before them. It is eaſy to diſcern, that a government thus conſtituted, can be little removed from one of the moſt deſpotic kind. However, the Swediſh nation is ſtill amuſed with ſome ſlight appearances of a legal and limited government. For in the new ſyſtem, which conſiſts of fifty-ſeven articles, a ſenate is appointed, conſiſting of ſeventeen members, comprehending the great officers of the crown and the governor of Pomerania: and they are required to give their advice in all the affairs of the ſtate, whenever the king ſhall demand it. In that caſe, if the queſtions agitated are of

great importance, and the advice of the ſenators ſhould be contrary to the opinion of the king, and they unanimous therein, the king, it is ſaid, ſhall follow their advice. But this, it may be obſerved, is a circumſtance that can hardly ever happen, that all the members of a ſenate, conſiſting chiefly of officers of the crown, ſhould give their opinions againſt the king; and in every other caſe the king is to hear their opinions, and then to act as he thinks proper. There are ſome other apparent reſtraints of the regal power in the new ſyſtem of government, but they are in reality very inconſiderable. It is ſaid, indeed, that the king cannot eſtabliſh any new law, nor aboliſh any old one, without the knowledge and conſent of the ſtates: but the king of Sweden, according to the preſent conſtitution, is inveſted with ſo much authority, power, and influence, that it is hardly to be expected that any perſon will venture to make an oppoſition to whatever he ſhall propoſe.

Punishments.] The common method of execution in Sweden is beheading and hanging; for murder, the hand of the criminal is firſt chopped off, and he is then beheaded, and quartered; women, after beheading, inſtead of being quartered are burned. No capital puniſhment is inflicted without the ſentence being confirmed by the king. Every priſoner is at liberty to petition the king, within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjuſt condemnation, and in ſuch a caſe demands a reviſal of the ſentence; or elſe prays for pardon, or a mitigation of puniſhment. Malefactors are never put to death, except for very atrocious crimes, ſuch as murder, houſebreaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in ſome countries are conſidered as capital, are chiefly puniſhed by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, impriſonment, and hard labour, either for life, or for a ſtated time, according to the nature of the crime. Criminals were tortured to extort confeſſion till the reign of the preſent king; but, in 1773, his late Swediſh majeſty aboliſhed this cruel and abſurd practice.

Political interests of Sweden.] In the reign of Guſtavus Vaſa, a treaty of alliance firſt took place between Sweden and France; and afterwards Sweden alſo entered into a ſubſidiary treaty with France, in the reign of Guſtavus Adolphus. In conſequence of theſe treaties, France by degrees acquired an aſcendency in Sweden, which was very pernicious to the intereſts of that kingdom. This crown has generally received a ſubſidy from France for above 100 years paſt, and has much ſuffered by it. During the reign of Charles the XIth and Charles the XIIth, Sweden was ſacrificed to the intereſt of France; and during the laſt war with the king of Pruſſia, for the ſake of a ſmall ſubſidy from France, the crown of Sweden was forced to contract a debt of 3,500,000l. which has ſince been conſiderably augmented, ſo that this debt now amounts to near five millions. Some of their wiſeſt men have perceived the miſchievous tendency of their connection with France, and have endeavoured to put an end to it. But the influence of the French court in Sweden, in conſequence of their ſubſidies and intrigues, has occaſioned conſiderable factions in that kingdom. In 1738, a moſt powerful party appeared in the diet, in favour of French meaſures. The perſons who compoſed it went under the denomination of *Hatts*. The object held out to the nation was, the recovery of ſome of the dominions yielded to Ruſſia; and conſequently the ſyſtem they were to proceed upon, was to break with that power, and connect themſelves with France. The party directly oppoſed to them was headed by count Horn, and thoſe who had contributed to eſtabliſh the new form of government, which was ſettled after the death of Charles XII. Their object was peace, and the promotion

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of the domeſtic welfare of the nation. The ſyſtem therefore, which they adopted, was to maintain a cloſe correſpondence with Ruſſia, and to avoid all farther connection with France. Theſe were ſtyled the *Caps*. There was beſides a third party, called the *Hunting Caps*, compoſed of perſons who were as yet undetermined to which of the other two they would join themſelves. Theſe parties long continued, but the French party generally prevailed, greatly to the detriment of the real intereſts of the kingdom. Some efforts were employed by the Engliſh court to leſſen or deſtroy the French influence in Sweden, and for ſome time they were ſucceſsful: but the Hat party again acquired the aſcendancy. Theſe parties, however, are now aboliſhed, in conſequence of the late king of Sweden having made ſuch a total change in the conſtitution of the government.

Revenue and coin.] The revenue of Sweden, by the unfortunate wars of Charles XII. and with the Ruſſians ſince, has been greatly reduced. Livonia, Bremen, Verdun, and other places that kingdom was ſtripped of, contained about 78,000 ſquare miles. Her gold and ſilver ſpecie in the late reign, aroſe chiefly from the king's German dominions. Formerly, the crown-lands, poll-money, tithes, mines, and other articles, are ſaid to have produced one million ſterling. The payments that are made in copper, which is here the chief medium of commerce, is extremely inconvenient; ſome of thoſe pieces being as large as tiles; and a cart or wheelbarrow is often required to carry home a moderate ſum. The Swedes, however, have gold ducats, and eight-mark pieces of ſilver, valued each at 5s. 2d. but theſe are very ſcarce, and the inhabitants of Sweden have now very little ſpecie in circulation: large pieces of copper ſtamped, and ſmall bank notes, being almoſt their only circulating money.

Strength and forces.] I have already hinted, that no country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes; and yet they cannot be ſaid to maintain a ſtanding army, as their forces conſiſt of a regulated militia. The cavalry is clothed, armed, and maintained, by a rate raiſed upon the nobility and gentry, according to their eſtates; and the infantry by the peaſants. Each province is obliged to find its proportion of ſoldiers, according to the number of farms it contains; every farm of 60 or 70l. per annum, is charged with a foot-ſoldier, furniſhing him with diet, lodging, and ordinary cloaths, and about 20s. a year in money; or elſe a little wooden houſe is built him by the farmer, who allows him hay and paſturage for a cow, and ploughs and ſows land enough to ſupply him with bread. When embodied, they are ſubject to military law, but otherwiſe to the civil law of the country. It may therefore literally be ſaid, that every Swediſh ſoldier has a property in the country he defends. This national army is thought to amount to above 40,000 men, but before the loſs of Livonia to 60,000; and Sweden formerly could have fitted out 40 ſhips of the line; but of late years their ſhips together with their docks, have been ſuffered greatly to run to decay.

Royal-style.] The king's ſtyle is king of the Goths and Vandals, great prince of Finland, duke of Schonen, Pomerania, &c.

Orders of knighthood.] Theſe are the order of the *North* or *Polar Star*, conſiſting of 24 members; the order of *Vaſa*; and the order of the *Sword*; the laſt created in 1772.

History of Sweden.] The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, &c. have had the reputation of ſubduing the Roman empire, and all the ſouthern nations of Europe. I ſhall not here follow the wild romances of the Swediſh hiſto-

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rians through the early ages, from Magog, the great-grand-ſon of Noah. It is ſufficient to ſay, that Sweden has as good a claim to be an ancient monarchy, as any we know of. Nor ſhall I diſpute her being the paramount ſtate of Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, and Norway,) and that ſhe borrowed her name from one of her princes. The introduction of Chriſtianity by Anſgarius biſhop of Bremen, in 829, ſeems to preſent the firſt certain period of the Swediſh hiſtory.

The hiſtory of Sweden, and indeed of all the northern nations, even during the firſt ages of Chriſtianity, is confuſed and unintereſting, and often doubtful; but ſufficiently replete with murders, maſſacres, and ravages. That of Sweden is void of conſiſtency till about the middle of the fourteenth century, when it aſſumes an appearance more regular, and affords wherewith to recompenſe the attention of thoſe who chuſe to make it an object of their ſtudies. At this time, however, the government of the Swedes was far from being clearly aſcertained, or uniformly adminiſtered. The crown was elective, though in this election the rights of blood were not altogether diſregarded. The great lords poſſeſſed the moſt conſiderable part of the wealth of the kingdom, which conſiſted chiefly in land; commerce being unknown or neglected, and even agriculture itſelf in a very rude and imperfect ſtate. The clergy, particularly thoſe of a dignified rank, from the great reſpect paid to their character among the inhabitants of the North, had acquired an immenſe influence in all public affairs, and obtained poſſeſſions of what lands had been left unoccupied by the nobility. Theſe two ranks of men, enjoying all the property of the ſtate, formed a council called the Senate, which was maſter of all public deliberations. This ſyſtem of government was extremely unfavourable to the national proſperity. The Swedes periſhed in the diſſenſions between their prelates and lay-barons, or between thoſe and their ſovereign; they were drained of the little riches they poſſeſſed, to ſupport the indolent pomp of a few magnificent biſhops; and, what was ſtill more fatal, the unlucky ſituation of their internal affairs expoſed them to the inroads and oppreſſion of a foreign enemy. Theſe were the Danes, who by their neighbourhood and power were always able to avail themſelves of the diſſenſions of Sweden, and to ſubject under a foreign yoke, a country weakened and exhauſted by its domeſtic broils. In this deplorable ſituation Sweden remained for more than two centuries; ſometimes under the nominal ſubjection of its own princes, ſometimes united to the kingdom of Denmark, and in either caſe equally oppreſſed and inſulted.

Magnus Ladelus, crowned in 1276, ſeems to have been the firſt king of Sweden who purſued a regular ſyſtem to increaſe his authority; and to ſucceed in this, he made the augmentation of the revenues of the crown his principal object. He was one of the ableſt princes who had ever ſat on the Swediſh throne; by his art and addreſs he prevailed upon the convention of eſtates to make very extraordinary grants to him for the ſupport of his royal dignity. The augmentation of the revenues of the crown was naturally followed by a proportionable increaſe of the regal power; and whilſt, by the ſteady and vigorous exertion of this power, Magnus humbled the haughty ſpirit of the nobles, and created in the reſt of the nation a reſpect for the royal dignity, with which they appear before to have been but little acquainted; he, at the ſame time, by employing his authority in many reſpects for the public good, reconciled his ſubjects to acts of power, which in former monarchs they would have oppoſed with the utmoſt violence. The ſucceſſors of Magnus did not maintain their authority with equal ability; and ſeveral commotions and revolutions followed, which threw the nation into great

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diſorder and confuſion, and the government was for a long time in the moſt unſettled ſtate.

In the year 1387, Margaret, daughter of Valdemar, king of Denmark, and widow of Huguin, king of Norway, reigned in both theſe kingdoms. That princeſs, to the ordinary ambition of her ſex, added a penetration and enlargement of mind, which rendered her capable of conducting the greateſt and moſt complicated deſigns. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, becauſe, like Semiramis, ſhe found means to reduce by arms, or by intrigue, an immenſe extent of territory; and became queen of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, being elected to this laſt in 1394. She projected the union of Calmar, ſo famous in the North, by which theſe kingdoms were for the future to remain under one ſovereign, elected by each kingdom in its turn, and who ſhould divide his reſidence between them all. Several revolutions enſued after the death of Margaret; and at length Chriſtian II. the laſt king of Denmark, who, by virtue of the treaty of Calmar, was alſo king of Sweden, engaged in a ſcheme to render himſelf entirely abſolute. The barbarous policy by which he attempted to effect this deſign no leſs barbarous, proved the deſtruction of himſelf, and afforded an opportunity for changing the face of affairs in Sweden. In order to eſtabliſh his authority in that kingdom, he laid a plot for maſſacring the principal nobility. This horrid deſign was actually carried into execution, Nov. 8, 1520. Of all thoſe who could oppoſe the deſpotic purpoſes of Chriſtian, no one remained in Sweden, but Guſtavus Vaſa, a young prince, deſcended of the ancient kings of that country, and who had already ſignalized his arms againſt the king of Denmark. An immenſe price was laid on his head. The Daniſh ſoldiers were ſent in purſuit of him; but by his dexterity and addreſs he eluded all their attempts, and eſcaped, under the diſguiſe of a peaſant, to the mountains of Dalecarlia. This is not the place to relate his dangers and fatigues, how to prevent his diſcovery he wrought in the braſs-mines, how he was betrayed by thoſe in whom he repoſed his confidence, and in fine ſurmounting a thouſand obſtacles, engaged the ſavage, but warlike inhabitants of Dalecarlia, to undertake his cauſe, to oppoſe and to conquer his tyrannical oppreſſor. Sweden by his means, again acquired independence. The ancient nobility were moſtly deſtroyed. Guſtavus was at the head of a victorious army who admired his valour, and were attached to his perſon. He was created therefore firſt adminiſtrator, and afterwards king of Sweden, by the univerſal conſent, and with the ſhouts of the whole nation. His circumſtances were much more favourable than thoſe of any former prince who had poſſeſſed this dignity. The maſſacre of the nobles, had rid him of thoſe proud and haughty enemies, who had ſo long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no leſs powerful than dangerous; but the opinions of Luther which began at this time to prevail in the North, the force with which they were ſupported, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious ſyſtem of that country; and the exerciſe of the Roman catholic religion was prohibited in the year 1544, under the ſevereſt penalties, which have never yet been relaxed. Inſtead of a Gothic ariſtocracy, the moſt turbulent of all governments, and, when empoiſoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the moſt wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were ſoon viſible: arts and manufactures were eſtabliſhed and improved; navigation and commerce began to flouriſh; letters and civility were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the reſt of Europe, began to be known by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties or deliberations.

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Guſtavus died in 1559; while his eldeſt ſon Eric, was preparing to embark for England to marry queen Elizabeth.

Under Eric, who ſucceeded his father Guſtavus Vaſa, the titles of count and baron were introduced into Sweden, and made hereditary. Eric's miſerable and cauſeleſs jealouſy of his brothers forced him to take up arms; and the ſenate ſiding with them, he was depoſed in 1566. His brother John ſucceeded him, and entered into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-eſtabliſh the catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made ſtrong efforts for that purpoſe, and even reconciled himſelf to the pope, he was oppoſed by his brother Charles, and the ſcheme proved ineffectual. John's ſon Sigiſmund, was, however, choſen king of Poland in 1587, upon which he endeavoured again to reſtore the Roman catholic religion in his dominions; but he died in 1592.

Charles brother to king John, was choſen adminiſtrator of Sweden; and being a ſtrenuous proteſtant, his nephew, Sigiſmund, endeavoured to drive him from the adminiſtratorſhip, but without effect; till at laſt he and his family was excluded from the ſucceſſion to the crown, which was conferred upon Charles in 1599. The reign of Charles, through the practices of Sigiſmund, who was himſelf a powerful prince, and at the head of a great party both in Sweden and Ruſſia, was turbulent; which gave the Danes encouragement to invade Sweden. Their conduct was checked by the great Guſtavus Adolphus, though then a minor, and heir apparent to Sweden. Upon the death of his father, which happened in 1611, he was declared of age by the ſtate, though then only in his eighteenth year. Guſtavus, ſoon after his acceſſion, found himſelf, through the power and intrigues of the Poles, Ruſſians, and Danes, engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite diſadvantages; all which he ſurmounted. He narrowly miſſed being maſter of Ruſſia: but the Ruſſians were ſo tenacious of their independency, that his ſcheme was baffled. In 1617 he made a peace, under the mediation of James I. of England, by which he recovered Livonia, and four towns in the prefecture of Novogorod, with a ſum of money beſides.

The ideas of Guſtavus began now to extend. He had ſeen a vaſt deal of military ſervice, and he was aſſiſted by the counſels of La Gardie, one of the beſt generals and wiſeſt ſtateſmen of his age. His troops, by perpetual war, had become the beſt diſciplined and moſt warlike in Europe; and he carried his ambition farther than hiſtorians are willing to acknowledge. The princes of the houſe of Auſtria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterprizing ſpirit, and ſupported his ancient implacable enemy Sigiſmund, whom Guſtavus defeated. In 1627, he formed the ſiege of Dantzick, in which he was unſucceſsful; but the attempt which was defeated only by the ſudden riſe of the Viſtula, added ſo much to his military character, that the proteſtant cauſe placed him at the head of the confederacy for reducing the houſe of Auſtria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of the moſt rapid and wonderful ſucceſſes: even the mention of each would exceed our bounds. It is ſufficient to ſay, that after taking Riga, and over-running Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious; and from thence, in 1630, he landed in Pomerania, drove the Germans out of Mecklenburg, defeated the famous count Tilly the Auſtrian general, who was till then thought invincible; and over-ran Franconia. Upon the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenſtein, another Auſtrian general, of equal reputation, was appointed to command againſt Guſtavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a battle; which, had he ſurvived, would probably have put a period to the Auſtrian greatneſs.

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The amazing abilities of Guſtavus Adolphus, both in the cabinet and the field, never appeared ſo fully as after his death. He left behind him a ſet of generals, trained by himſelf, who maintained the glory of the Swediſh army with moſt aſtoniſhing valour and ſucceſs. The names of duke Bernard, Bannier, Torſtenſon, Wrangel, and others, and their prodigious actions of war, never can be forgotten in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what courſe Guſtavus would have purſued, had his life been prolonged, and his ſucceſſes continued; but there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that he had in his eye ſomewhat more than the relief of the proteſtants, and the reſtoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor Oxenſtiern was as conſummate a politician as he was a warrior; and during the minority of his daughter Chriſtina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with ſuch ſucceſs, that he in a manner dictated the peace of Weſtphalia, 1648, which threw the affairs of Europe into a new ſyſtem.

Chriſtina was but ſix years of age when her father was killed. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon, and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court, Deſcartes, Salmaſius, and other learned men; to whom ſhe was not, however, extremely liberal. She expreſſed a value for Grotius; and ſhe was an excellent judge of the polite arts: but illiberal, and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the ſame time diſcharged all the duties of her high ſtation; and though her generals were baſely betrayed by France, ſhe continued to ſupport the honour of her crown. Being reſolved not to marry, ſhe reſigned her crown to her couſin Charles Guſtavus, ſon to the duke of Deux-Ponts, in 1654.

Charles had great ſucceſs againſt the Poles: he drove their king, John Caſimir, into Sileſia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their uſual inconſtancy, they broke. His progreſs upon the ice againſt Denmark has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever in 1660. His ſon and ſucceſſor, Charles XI. was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it neceſſary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours, by which the Swedes gave up the iſland of Bornholm, and Drontheim, in Norway. All differences were accommodated at the ſame time with Ruſſia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very reſpectable figure in the affairs of Europe. When Charles came to be of age, he received a ſubſidy from the French king, Lewis XIV. but perceiving the liberties of Europe to be in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland againſt him. He afterwards joined with France againſt the houſe of Auſtria; but being beaten in Germany at Felem-Bellin, a powerful confederacy was formed againſt him. The elector of Brandenburgh made himſelf maſter of the Swediſh Pomerania; the biſhop of Munſter over-ran Bremen and Verdun, and the Danes took Wiſmar, and ſeveral places in Schonen. They were afterwards beaten; and Charles, by the treaty of St. Germains, which followed that of Nimeguen in 1678, recovered all he had loſt, except ſome places in Germany. He then married Ulrica Leonora, the king of Denmark's ſiſter; but made a very bad uſe of the tranquillity he had regained: for he enſlaved and beggared his people, that he might render his power deſpotic, and his army formidable. The ſtates loſt all their power; and Sweden was now reduced to the condition of Denmark. He ordered the brave Patkul, who was at the head of the Livonian deputies, to loſe his head and his right hand, for the boldneſs of his remonſtrance in favour of his countrymen; but he ſaved himſelf by flight: and Charles

became ſo powerful, that the conferences for a general peace at Ryſwick, 1697, were opened under his mediation.

Charles XI. died in 1697, and was ſucceeded by his minor ſon, the famous Charles XII. The hiſtory of no prince is better known than that of this hero. His father's will had fixed the age of his majority to eighteen, but it was ſet aſide for an earlier date by the management of count Piper, who became thereby his firſt miniſter. Soon after his acceſſion, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muſcovy, formed a powerful confederacy againſt him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He made head againſt them all; and beſieging Copenhagen, he dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Daniſh majeſty, by which the duke of Holſtein was re-eſtabliſhed in his dominions. The czar Peter was at this time ravaging Ingria, at the head of 80,000 men, and had beſieged Narva. The army of Charles did not exceed 20,000 men; but ſuch was his impatience, that he advanced at the head 8000, entirely routed the main body of the Ruſſians, and raiſed the ſiege. Such were his ſucceſſes, and ſo numerous his priſoners, that the Ruſſians attributed his actions to necromancy. Charles from thence marched into Saxony, where his warlike atchievements equalled, if they did not excel, thoſe of Guſtavus Adolphus. He dethroned Auguſtus king of Poland: but ſtained all his laurels by putting the brave count Patkul to a death equally painful and ignominious. He raiſed Staniſlaus to the crown of Poland in 1705, and his name carried with it ſuch terror, that he was courted by all the powers of Europe; and among others, by the duke of Marlborough, in the name of queen Anne, amidſt the full career of her ſucceſſes againſt France. His ſtubbornneſs and implacable diſpoſition, however, were ſuch, that he cannot be conſidered in a better light than that of an illuſtrious madman; for he loſt in the battle of Pultowa, 1709, which he fought in his march to dethrone the czar, more than all he had gained by his victories. His brave army was ruined, and he was forced to take refuge among the Turks at Bender. His actions there, in attempting to defend himſelf with 300 Swedes againſt 30,000 Turks, prove him to have been worſe than frantic. The Turks found it however convenient for their affairs to ſet him at liberty. But his misfortunes did not cure his military madneſs; and after his return to his dominions, he proſecuted his revenge againſt Denmark, till he was killed by a cannon-ſhot, as it is generally ſaid, at the ſiege of Frederic-ſhall, in Norway, belonging to the Danes, in 1718, when he was no more than thirty-ſix years of age. It has been ſuppoſed, that Charles was not in reality killed by a ſhot from the walls of Fredericſhall, but that a piſtol from ſome nearer hand, from one of thoſe about him, gave the deciſive blow, which put an end to the life of this celebrated monarch. This opinion is ſaid to be very prevalent among the beſt informed perſons in Sweden. And it appears that the Swedes were tired of a prince under whom they had loſt their richeſt provinces, their braveſt troops, and their national riches; and who yet, untamed by adverſity, purſued an unſucceſsful and pernicious war, nor would ever have liſtened to the voice of peace, or conſulted the internal tranquillity of his country.

Charles XII. was ſucceeded, as had been already mentioned, by his ſiſter, the princeſs Ulrica Eleanora, wife to the hereditary prince of Heſſe. We have alſo ſeen in what manner the Swedes recovered their liberties; and given ſome account of the capitulation ſigned by the queen and her huſband, when they entered upon the exerciſe of government. Their firſt care was to make a peace with Great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded The Swedes then, to prevent their farther-loſſes by the progreſs of the Ruſ-

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ſian, the Daniſh, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great ſacrifices to obtain peace from thoſe powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed that dangerous party in the kingdom, under the name of the *Hats*, which hath been already ſpoken of; which not only broke the internal quiet of the kingdom, but led it into a ruinous war with Ruſſia. Their Swediſh majeſties having no children, it was neceſſary to ſettle the ſucceſſion; eſpecially as the duke of Holſtein was deſcended from the queen's eldeſt ſiſter, and was at the ſame time the preſumptive heir to the empire of Ruſſia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holſtein Gottorp, prince Frederic of Heſſe Caſſel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holſtein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Ruſſia. The czarina interpoſed, and offered to reſtore all the conqueſts ſhe had made from Sweden, excepting a ſmall diſtrict in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holſtein's uncle, the biſhop of Lubeck, as their hereditary prince and ſucceſſor to their crown. This was agreed to, and a peace was concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty. This peace was ſo firmly adhered to by the czarina, that his Daniſh majeſty thought proper to drop all the effects of his reſentment, and forget the indignity done to his ſon. The prince's ſucceſſor, Adolphus Frederic, married the princeſs Ulrica, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia; and entered into the poſſeſſion of his new dignity in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, and much haraſſed by the contending Swediſh factions, and found his ſituation extremely troubleſome, in conſequence of the reſtraints and oppoſition which he met with from the ſenate. He paſſed the greateſt part of his reign very diſagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died diſpirited in February, 1771, after a turbulent reign of twenty years and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Guſtavus the Third, the late king, a prince both in abilities and intrepidity greatly ſuperior to his father.

He was about five and twenty years of age when he was proclaimed king of Sweden, his underſtanding had been much cultivated, he had an inſinuating addreſs, and a graceful and commanding elocution. He was at Paris at the time of his father's death, from whence he wrote in the moſt gracious terms to the ſenate, repeatedly aſſuring them that he deſigned to govern according to the laws. In conſequence of the death of his predeceſſor, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to ſettle the form of the coronation oath. Some time after his arrival in Sweden, on the 28th of March, 1772, his majeſty ſolemnly ſigned and ſwore to obſerve twenty-four articles, relative to his future adminiſtration of government. This was termed a capitulation; and among the articles were the following: "The king promiſes before God to ſupport the government of the king, as then eſtabliſhed; to maintain the rights and liberties of the ſtates, the liberty and ſecurity of all his ſubjects, and to reign with gentleneſs and equity according to the laws of the kingdom, the form of the regency as it was eſtabliſhed in the year 1720, and conformable to the preſent act of capitulation. The moſt remarkable tranſaction of this reign, is the revolution which took place in the government in the year 1772, by which the king from being the moſt limited, became one of the moſt deſpotic monarchs in Europe.

Ever ſince the death of Charles XII the whole power of the kingdom had been lodged in the ſtates and this power they had on all occaſions moſt grievouſly abuſed; it is probable therefore that notwithſtanding his having accepted the crown on theſe conditions, he had then or ſoon after determined either

either to ſeize that power of which they made ſuch a bad uſe, or periſh in the attempt. To pave the way for this hazardous enterprize, he made uſe of all the dexterity and addreſs he was ſo fitted to practiſe. At his firſt arrival at Stockholm, he adopted every method which could increaſe his popularity. Three times a week he regularly gave audience to all who preſented themſelves. Neither rank, fortune, nor intereſt, were neceſſary to obtain acceſs to him; it was ſufficient to have been injured, and to have a legal cauſe of complaint to lay before him. He liſtened to the meaneſt of his ſubjects with affability, and entered into the minuteſt details that concerned them: he informed himſelf of their private affairs, and ſeemed to intereſt himſelf in their happineſs. This conduct made him conſidered as truly the father of his people, and the Swedes began to idolize him. In the mean time, there happened ſome contentions between the different orders of the Swediſh ſtates; and no methods were left untried to foment theſe jealouſies. Emiſſaries were likewiſe planted in every part of the kingdom, for the purpoſe of ſowing diſcontent among the inhabitants, of rendering them diſaffected to the eſtabliſhed government, and of exciting them to an inſurrection. At length, when the king found his ſcheme ripe for execution, on the morning of the 19th of Auguſt 1772, a conſiderable number of officers, as well as ſoldiers * known to be attached to the royal cauſe, had been ſummoned to attend his majeſty. Before ten he was on horſeback, and viſited the regiment of artillery. As he paſſed through the ſtreets he was more than uſually courteous to all he met, bowing familiarly to the loweſt of the people. On the king's return to his palace, the detachment which was to mount guard that day being drawn up together with that which was to be relieved, his majeſty retired with the officers into the guard-room. He then addreſſed them with all that eloquence of which he is ſaid to have been a perfect maſter; and after inſinuating to them that his life was in danger, he expoſed to them in the ſtrongeſt colours the wretched ſtate of the kingdom, the ſhackles in which it was held by means of foreign gold, and the diſſenſions and troubles ariſing from the ſame cauſe which had diſtracted the diet during the courſe of fourteen months. He aſſured them that his only deſign was to put an end to theſe diſorders; to baniſh corruption, reſtore true liberty, and revive the ancient luſtre of the Swediſh name, which had been long tarniſhed by a venality as notorious as it was diſgraceful. Then aſſuring them in the ſtrongeſt terms that he diſclaimed for ever all abſolute power, or what the Swedes call ſovereignty, he concluded with theſe words: "I am obliged to defend my own liberty and that of the kingdom, againſt the ariſtocracy which reigns. Will you be faithful to me, as your forefathers were to Guſtavus Vaſa and Guſtavus Adolphus? I will then riſk my life for your welfare and that of my country."

The officers immediately conſented to every thing, and took an oath of fidelity to him; then they received their orders from the king; the firſt of which was, that the two regiments of guards and of artillery ſhould be immediately aſſembled, and that a detachment of 36 grenadiers ſhould be poſted at the door of the council-chamber to prevent any of the ſenators from coming out.

* The fidelity which was manifeſted by a private ſoldier, on this occaſion, deſerves to be recorded. The night preceding the revolution, the king being deſirous of viſiting the arſenal, went thither, and ordered the centinel to admit him. The latter refuſed. "Do you know who you are ſpeaking to?" ſaid the king. "Yes;" replied the ſoldier, "but I likewiſe know my duty."—*Vide* a very judicious and well-written account of this extraordinary revolution in Sweden, publiſhed by Charles Francis Sheridan, eſq. who was ſecretary to the Britiſh envoy in Sweden at the time of the revolution.

and

The ſenators were now immediately ſecured. They had from the windows of the council-chamber beheld what was going forward on the parade before the palace; and, at a loſs to know the meaning of the ſhouts they heard, were coming down to inquire into the cauſe of them, when 30 grenadiers, with their bayonets fixed, informed them it was his majeſty's pleaſure they ſhould continue where they were. They began to talk in a high tone, but were anſwered only by having the door ſhut and locked upon them.

The king proceeded in his courſe, and in leſs than an hour made himſelf maſter of all the military force in Stockholm. In the mean time the heralds by proclamation in the ſeveral quarters of the city, ſummoned an aſſembly of the States for the enſuing morning, and declared all members traitors to their country who ſhould not appear. Thither his majeſty repaired in all the pomp of royalty, ſurrounded by his guards, and holding in his hand the ſilver ſceptre of Guſtavus Adolphus. In a very forcible ſpeech, he lamented the unhappy ſtate to which the country was reduced by the conduct of a party ready to ſacrifice every thing to its ambition, and reproached the ſtates with adapting their actions to the views of foreign courts, from whom they received the wages of perfidy. "If any one dare contradict this, let him riſe and ſpeak."—Conviction, or fear, kept the aſſembly ſilent, and the ſecretary read the new form of government, which the king ſubmitted to the approbation of the ſtates. It conſiſted of fifty-ſeven articles.

When all the articles were gone through, the king demanded if the ſtates approved of them, and was anſwered by a general acclammation. He then diſmiſſed all the ſenators from their employments, adding, that in a few days he would appoint others; and concluded this extraordinary ſcene by drawing out of his pocket a ſmall book of pſalms, from which, after taking off the crown, he gave out Te Deum. All the members very devoutly added their voices to his, and the hall reſounded with thankſgivings, which, it is to be feared, never roſe to heaven, if ſincerity was neceſſary to their paſſport.

The power thus obtained the king employed for the good of his ſubjects. He took care that the law ſhould be adminiſtered with impartiality to the richeſt noble and to the pooreſt peaſant, making a ſevere example of ſuch judges as were proved to have made juſtice venal. He gave particular attention and encouragement to commerce, was a liberal and enlightened patron of learning and ſcience, and laboured ſtrenuouſly to introduce into his kingdom the moſt valuable improvements in agriculture that had been made in foreign countries.

The change which was thus introduced into the conſtitution was very inimical to the intrigues of the court of Peterſburgh; and the Ruſſian ambaſſador exerted himſelf openly to bring about a rupture betwixt the king and the diſcontented nobles; he was therefore ordered to quit the kingdom in eight days, and war with Ruſſia was immediately reſolved on. It is needleſs to enter into a detail of the particulars of that war, which, as well as the aſtoniſhing activity and military ſkill diſplayed by the Swediſh monarch are freſh in the memory of moſt readers. It continued from the year 1787 to 1790 when peace was reſtored between the courts of Peterſburgh and Stockholm.

The nobles, however, continued diſcontented, and a conſpiracy was planned againſt Guſtavus under his own roof. On the 16th of March 1792 he received an anonymous letter, warning him of his immediate danger from a plot that was laid to take away his life, requeſting him to remain at home,

The

and avoid balls for a year; and aſſuring him that, if he ſhould go to the maſquerade for which he was preparing, he would be aſſaſſinated that very night. The king read the note with contempt, and at a late hour entered the ball room. Juſt as he was preparing to retire in company with the Pruſſian ambaſſador, he was ſurrounded by ſeveral perſons in maſks, one of whom fired a piſtol at the back of the king, and lodged the contents in his body. He languiſhed in great pain from the 17th to the 29th of March and then expired in the forty fifth year of his age and twentieth of his reign.

During his illneſs, and particularly after he was made acquainted with the certainty of his approaching diſſolution, Guſtavus continued to diſplay that unſhaken courage which he had manifeſted on every occaſion during his life. A few hours before his deceaſe he made ſome alterations in the arrangement of public affairs. He had before, by his will, appointed a council of regency; but convinced, by recent experience, how little he could depend on the attachment of his nobles, and being alſo aware of the neceſſity of a ſtrong government in difficult times, he appointed his brother, the duke of Sudermania, ſole regent, till his ſon, who was then about fourteen, ſhall have attained the age of eighteen years. His laſt words were a declaration of pardon to the conſpirators againſt his life. The actual murderer alone was excepted; and he was excepted only at the ſtrong inſtance of the regent, and thoſe who ſurrounded his majeſty in his dying moments. Immediately on the death of the king, the young prince was proclaimed by the title of Guſtavus IV.

The mild and equal conduct of the regent, has preſerved the country from the horrors of internal war, and hitherto he has avoided becoming a party in any coalition formed againſt the ferocious ambition of France, whether the ſame policy will prevail on him to keep clear of the combination which is ſaid to be now forming againſt the preſent ruling power in that country a little time will ſhew.

Guſtavus Adolphus IV. the preſent king of Sweden, was born Nov. 1, 1778, and ſucceeded his father Guſtavus III. who was ſhot the 16th, and died the 29th March, 1792; born Jan. 24, 1746; married Oct. 17, 1766, to the princeſs royal of Denmark, by whom he had iſſue Guſtavus Adolphus, the preſent king.

Brothers and ſiſters to the late king.

1. Charles, duke of Sudermania, born Oct. 7. 1748.
2. Frederic Adolphus, duke of Weſt-Gothland, born July 18, 1750.
3. Sophia Albertina, abbeſs of Quedlinburgh, born in Oct. 1753.

MUSCOVY OR THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN EUROPE.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1500	between	23 and 65 East longitude.
Breadth	1100		47 and 72 North latitude.

Ruſſia in Europe contains 1,194,976 ſquare miles, with 17 inhabitants to each.

DIVISIONS AND NAMES.

ACCORDING to the moſt authentic accounts of this mighty empire, it conſiſts of fifteen (Mr Vol-

taire says sixteen) provinces, or governments: which are comprehended again under nineteen general governments *; besides part of Carelia, Esthonia, Ingria, Livonia, and part of Finland, which were conquered from Sweden; the Crimea, or Crim Tartary, anciently the Taurica Chersonesus, a peninsula in the Euxine sea, subject to the Turks formerly, but added in the year 1783 to the Russian Empire, with the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban †; also the duchy of Courland in Poland, of which the empress of Russia has now the entire disposal.

The following table will give some idea of the Russian empire, properly so called, or Russia in Europe, with its acquisitions from Sweden in the present century. And also of the Russian empire in its most extensive sense, for we must also include all the acquisitions in Tartary, now known by the name of Siberia: the whole comprehending the northern parts of Europe and Asia, stretching from the Baltic and Sweden on the West, to Kamtschatka, and the Eastern Ocean; and on the North, from the Frozen Ocean to the forty-seventh degree of latitude, where it is bounded by Poland, Little Tartary, Turkey, Georgia, the Euxine and Caspian seas, Great Tartary, Chinese Tartary, and other unknown regions in Asia.

The country now comprised under the name of Russia or the Russias, is of an extent nearly equal to all the rest of Europe, and greater than the Roman empire in the zenith of its power, or the empire of Darius subdued by Alexander, or both put together, as may be seen by turning to the table, page 27, to which we may add the authority of Voltaire.

Russian Empire in Europe.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Greek Church	Ruf. or Muf.	784,650	1160	1050	Moscow.	
	Belgorod,	72,900	375	285	Waronetz.	
	Don Cossacs,	57,000	400	280	Panchina.	
	Uk. Cossacs,	45,000	330	205	Kiow.	
	Lapland,	72,000	405	270	Kola.	
Conquered from Sweden since 1700.	Ruf. Finl.	41,310	320	180	Wyburg.	
	Livonia,	21,525	218	145	Riga.	
	Ingria.	9,100	175	90	PETERSBURGH	N. Lat. 60. E. L. 30-25.
Seized from the Turks in 1783.	Crim. Tar.	8,200	160	15	Kaffa.	
Russian emp. in Asia.						
Christians and Idolaters.	Muscovy, Tartary, & Siberia,	2,000,000	3150	1500	Tobolsky.	
	Kalm. Tart.	850,000	2100	750	Astrachan.	
By the partition Treaty between the Emperor, Prussia, and	Lithuania in Poland.	64,000	300	250	Grodno.	
	Total	4,025,685				

* Zimmermann, p. 25.

† The Russians are supposed to have gained above a million of subjects by this cession.

Ruſſia has been alſo ſubdivided into thirty-one provinces, viz.

Northern Provinces.
1. Lapland,
2. Samoida,
3. Ballamorenſhy,
4. Meſeen,
5. Dwina,
6. Syrianes,
7. Permia,
8. Rubeninſki,
9. Belaeſeda.

Eaſtern Provinces.
17. Bulgar,
18. Kaſan,
19. Tſcheremiſſi,
20. Little Novogorod,
21. Don Coſſacs.

Weſtern Provinces.
22. Great Novogorod,
23. Ruſſian Finland,
24. Kexholm,
25. Kaleria,
26. Ingria.

Middle Provinces.
10. Rezan, or Pereſlaf,
11. Belozero,
12. Wolagda,
13. Jeraſlaf,
14. Tweer,
15. Moſcow,
16. Belgorod,

Southern Provinces.
27. Livonia,
28. Smolenſko,
29. Zernigof,
Seefſk,
Ukraine or country of the old Coſſacs.

Mr. Tooke, chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Peterſburgh, who has lately publiſhed an account of Ruſſia, has enumerated the following nations as comprehended in this great empire:

The Monguls,
The Kalmucs,
The Tartars,
The Samoides,
The Oſtiacs,
The Burattians,
The Jakutans,
The Tunguſians,
The Voguls,
The Laplanders,
The Finns,
The Lettonians,
The Eſtonians,
The Lieffs,
The Ingrians,
The Tſcheremiſſes,
The Tſcouwaſches,
The Mordvines,
The Votiaks,
The Terptyaireis,
The Tartars of Kaſan and Orenburgh,
The Tartars of Tobolſk,
The Tartars of Tomſk,
The Nogayan Tartars,
The Tartars of the Ob,
The Tſchoulym Tartars,
The Katſchintz Tartars,
The Teleutes,
The Abinzes,
The Biryouſſes,
The Coſſacs,
The Kourilians,
The Kiſtim and Toulibert Tartars,
The Vergo Tomſkoi Tartars,
The Sayan Tartars,
The Touralinzes,
The Bougharians,
The Baſchkirians,
The Meſtſceraiks,
The Barabinzes,
The Kirkgulſians,
The Beltirians,
The Yakoutes,
The Kamtſchadales,

and various others; but ſome of which muſt be conſidered rather as diſtinct tribes than as diſtinct nations.

As to the names of Ruſſia and Muſcovy, by which this empire is arbitrarily called, they probably are owing to the ancient inhabitants, the Ruſſi, or Boruſſi, and the river Moſca, upon which the ancient capital Moſcow was built: but of this we know nothing certain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, VEGETABLES, MINES, AND MINERALS. In the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, or Muſcovy, the longeſt day does not exceed fifteen hours and a half; whereas, in the moſt northern, the ſun is ſeen in ſummer two months above the horizon. The reader from this will naturally conclude, that there is in Muſcovy a vaſt diverſity


MAP OF
RUSSIA
Engraved
for the New System of
UNIVERSAL
GEOGRAPHY.
Engraved for D. Crosby by Wm Faden
Bolton
1799
LAPLAND
SWEDEN
FINLAND
GULF OF BOTHNIA
BALTIC SEA
GULF OF FINLAND
STOCKHOLM
ABO
WIBORG
ST PETERSBURG
INGRIA
CARELIA
ESTHONIA
LIVONIA
COURLAND
POLAND
MOSCOW
SMOLENSK
NOVOGOROD
BELOGOROD
CRIMEA
LITTLE TARTARY
WHITE SEA
FROZEN OCEAN


FROZEN OCEAN
SAMOIEDI
SIBERIA
G. of Obikaia
WHITE SEA
GOVT. of ARCHANGEL
Archangel
Mezen
Pechora R.
R. Obi
Pustozerk
Wishnitzki
Lovensk
Dwina R.
Ustsyssolsk
Kotlas
Ustsyssolsk
Kotlas
Kargopol
Wologda
Totma
Ustsyssolsk
Totma
Ustsyssolsk
Totma
Ustsyssolsk


LAPLAN
G. of Obkaia
Torneå
SWEDEN
GULF OF BOTHNIA
Vasa
FINLAND
Abo
Frederickshamn
STOCKHOLM
G. of Finland
Revel
Narva
Ehstonia
Dorpat
Ehstonia

ſity of ſoil as well as climate, and the extremes of both are ſeen and felt in this vaſt empire.

The ſeverity of the climate, however, in Ruſſia properly ſo called, is very great. Dr. John Glen King, who reſided eleven years in Ruſſia, obſerves, that the cold in St. Peterſburgh, by Fahrenheit's ſcale, is, during the months of January, and February, uſually from 8 to 15 or 20 degrees below 0; that is, from 40 to 52 degrees below the freezing point; though commonly in the courſe of the winter, it is for a week or ten days ſome degrees lower. The ſame writer remarks that it is very difficult for an inhabitant of our temperate climate to have any idea of a cold ſo great; but it may help to give ſome notion of it to inform the reader, that when a perſon walks out in that ſevere weather, the cold makes the eyes water, and that water freezing, hangs in little icicles on the eye laſhes. As the common peaſants uſually wear their beards, you may ſee them hanging at the chin like a ſolid lump of ice. But even in that ſtate, the beard is found very uſeful in protecting the glands of the throat: and the ſoldiers, who do not wear their beards, are obliged to tie a handkerchief under the chin to ſupply their place. All the parts of the face which are expoſed, are very liable to be frozen: though it has often been obſerved, that the perſon himſelf does not know when the freezing begins; but is commonly told of it firſt by thoſe who meet him, and who call out to him to rub his face with ſnow, the uſual way to thaw it. It is alſo remarked that the part, which has once been frozen is ever after moſt liable to be frozen again. In ſome very ſevere winters, ſparrows, though a hardy ſpecies of birds, have been ſeen quite numbed by the intenſe cold, and unable to fly; and drivers, when ſitting on their loaded carriages, have ſometimes been found frozen to death in that poſture. When the thermometer has ſtood at 25 degrees below 0, boiling water thrown up into the air by an engine, ſo as to ſpread, has fallen down perfectly dry, formed into ice. A pint bottle of common water was found by Dr. King frozen into a ſolid piece of ice in an hour and a quarter. A bottle of ſtrong ale has alſo been frozen in an hour and a half: but in this ſubſtance there was about a tea cup full in the middle unfrozen, which was as ſtrong and inflammable as brandy and ſpirits of wine. But notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the cold in Ruſſia, the inhabitants have ſuch various means and proviſions to guard againſt it, that they ſuffer much leſs from it than might be expected. The houſes of perſons of tolerable circumſtances are ſo well protected, both without doors and within, that they are ſeldom heard to complain of cold. The method of warming the houſes in Ruſſia is by an oven conſtructed with ſeveral flues, and the country abounds with wood, which is the common fuel. Theſe ovens conſume a much ſmaller quantity of wood than might be imagined, and yet they ſerve at the ſame time for the ordinary people to dreſs their food. They put a very moderate faggot into them, and ſuffer it to burn only till the thickeſt black ſmoke is evaporated; they then ſhut down the chimney to retain all the reſt of the heat in the chamber; by this method the chamber keeps its heat 24 hours, and is commonly ſo warm that they ſit with very little covering, eſpecially children, who are uſually in their ſhirts. The windows in the huts of the poor are very ſmall, that as little cold may be admitted as poſſible: in the houſes of perſons of condition, the windows are caulked up againſt winter and commonly have double glaſs frames. In ſhort, they can regulate the warmth in their apartments by a thermometer with great exactneſs, opening or ſhutting the flues to increaſe or diminiſh the heat. When the Ruſſians go out, they are clothed ſo warmly, that they almoſt bid defiance to froſt and ſnow; and it is obſervable that the wind is ſeldom violent in the winter; but when there is much wind, the cold is exceedingly piercing.

One advantage, which the Ruſſians derive from the ſeverity of their climate, is the preſerving of proviſions by the froſt. Good houſewives, as ſoon as the froſt ſets in for the winter, about the end of October, kill their poultry, and keep them in tubs packed up with a layer of ſnow between them, and then take them out for uſe as occaſion requires: by which means they ſave the nouriſhment of the animal for ſeveral months. Veal frozen at Archangel, and brought to Peterſburgh, is eſteemed the fineſt they have, nor can it be diſtinguiſhed from what is freſh killed, being equally juicy. The markets in Peterſburgh are by this means ſupplied in winter with all manner of proviſions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwiſe be poſſible; and it is not a little curious to ſee the vaſt ſtacks of whole hogs, ſheep, fiſh, and other animals, which are piled up in the markets for ſale. The method of thawing frozen proviſions in Ruſſia, is by immerging them in cold water; for when the operation of thawing them is effected by heat, it ſeems to occaſion a violent fermentation, and almoſt a ſudden putrefaction; but when produced by cold water, the ice ſeems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a tranſparent incruſtation round it. If a cabbage, which is thoroughly frozen, be thawed by cold water, it is as freſh as if juſt gathered out of the garden; but if it be thawed by fire or hot water, it becomes ſo rancid and ſtrong that it cannot be eaten.

The quickneſs of vegetation in Ruſſia is pretty much the ſame as has been deſcribed in Scandinavia, or Sweden and Denmark. The ſnow is the natural manure of Ruſſia, where grain grows in plenty, near Poland, and in the warmer provinces. The bulk of the people, however, are, miſerably fed; the ſoil produces a vaſt number of muſhrooms for their ſubſiſtence; and in ſome places, beſides oaks and firs, Ruſſia yields rhubarb, flax, hemp, paſture for cattle, wax, honey, rice, and melons. The boors are particularly careful in the cultivation of honey, which yields them plenty of metheglin, their ordinary drink; they likewiſe extract a ſpirit from rye, which they prefer to brandy.

That a great part of Ruſſia was populous in former days, is not to be diſputed; though it is equally certain, that the inhabitants, till lately, were but little acquainted with agriculture; and ſupplied the place of bread, as the inhabitants of Scandinavia do now, with a kind of ſaw-duſt and a preparation of fiſh-bones. Peter the Great, and his ſucceſſors down to the preſent empreſs, have been at incredible pains to introduce agriculture into their dominions; and though the ſoil is not every where proper for corn, yet its vaſt fertility in ſome provinces, bids fair to make grain as common in Ruſſia as it is in the ſouthern countries of Europe. The vaſt communication by means of rivers, which the inland parts of that empire have with each other, ſerve to ſupply one province with thoſe products of the earth in which another may be deficient. As to mines and minerals, they are as plentiful in Ruſſia as in Scandinavia; and the people are daily improving in working them. Mountains of rich iron ore are found in ſome places, moſt of which produce the load-ſtone, and yield from 50 to 70 per cent. Rich ſilver and copper mines are found on the confines of Siberia.

MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, FORESTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } Ruſſia is in general a flat level country, except towards the north, where lie the Zimnopoias mountains, thought to be the famous Montes Riphæi of the ancients, now called the Girdle of the Earth. On the weſtern ſide of the Dnieper comes in part of the Carpathian mountains, and between the Black Sea and the Caſpian, Mount Caucaſus borders a range of vaſt plains extending on the ſea of Oral. And here we may obſerve, that from Peterſ-

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burgh to Pekin, one ſhall hardly meet with a mountain on the road through Independent Tartary; and from Peterſburgh to the north part of France, by the road of Dantzic, Hamburgh, and Amſterdam, we ſcarcely can perceive the ſmalleſt hill.

The moſt conſiderable rivers are the Wolga, or Volga, running eaſt and ſouth, which, after traverſing the greateſt part of Muſcovy, and winding a courſe of 3000 Engliſh miles, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea; it is not only reckoned the largeſt, but one of the moſt fertile rivers of Europe; it produces all kinds of fiſh, and fertilizes all the lands on each ſide with the richeſt trees, fruits, and vegetables; and it is remarkable, that in all this long courſe there is not a ſingle cataract to interrupt the navigation, but the nearer it approaches to its mouth, multiplies its quantities of iſles as it divides itſelf into a greater number of arms than any known river in the world; and all theſe arms divide themſelves into others ſtill leſs, which join and meet again, ſo that the Wolga diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian Sea by more than 70 mouths. By means of this noble river, the city of Moſcow preſerves a communication, not only with all the ſouthern parts of Ruſſia, but even with Perſia, Georgia, Tartary, and other countries bordering on the Caſpian Sea. The Don, or Tanais, which divides the moſt eaſtern part of Ruſſia from Aſia; and in its courſe towards the eaſt, comes ſo near the Wolga, that the late czar had undertaken to have a communication between them by means of a canal: this grand project, however, was defeated by the irruptions of the Tartars. This river, excluſive of its turnings and windings, diſcharges itſelf into the Palus Mæotis, or ſea of Aſoph, about four hundred miles from its riſe. The Boriſthenes, or Dnieper, which is likewiſe one of the largeſt rivers in Europe, runs through Lithuania, the country of the Zaporog Coſſacs, and that of the Nagaiſch Tartars, and falls into the Euxine, or Black Sea, at Kinburn, near Oczakow; it has thirteen cataracts within a ſmall diſtance. To theſe may be added the two Dwinas, one of which empties itſelf at Riga into the Baltic; the other has its ſource near Uſtiug, and dividing itſelf into two branches near Archangel, there falls into the White Sea.

Foreſts abound in this extenſive country; and the northern and north-eaſtern provinces are in a manner deſert; nor can the few inhabitants they contain be called Chriſtians rather than Pagans.

QUADRUPEDS, BIRDS, FISHES, AND INSECTS. } Theſe do not differ greatly from thoſe deſcribed in the Scandinavian provinces to which we muſt refer the reader. The lynx, famous for its piercing eye, is a native of this empire; it makes prey of every creature it can maſter; and is ſaid to be produced chiefly in the fir-tree foreſts. The hyænas, bears, wolves, foxes, and other creatures already deſcribed afford their furs for cloathing the inhabitants; but the furs of the black foxes and ermine are more valuable in Ruſſia than elſewhere. The dromedary and camel were formerly almoſt the only beaſts of burden known in many parts of Ruſſia. The czar Peter encouraged a breed of large horſes for war and carriages; but thoſe employed in the ordinary purpoſes of life are but ſmall; as are their cows and ſheep.

We know of few or no birds in Ruſſia, that have not been already deſcribed. The ſame may be ſaid of fiſhes, only the Ruſſians are better provided than their neighbours with ſturgeon, cod, ſalmon, and beluga; the latter reſembles a ſturgeon, and is often called the large ſturgeon; it is from twelve to fifteen feet in length, and weighs from 9 to 16 and 18 hundred weight; its fleſh is white and delicious. Of the roe, of the ſturgeon, dan

the beluga, the Ruſſians make the famous cavear ſo much eſteemed for its richneſs and flavour, that it is often ſent in preſents to crowned heads. In cutting up the belugas they often find what is called the beluga-ſtones, which is concealed in that maſs of glandular fleſh which covers the poſterior parts of the dorſal ſpine, ſupplying the place of a kidney in fiſh. The inſtant it is taken from the fiſh, it is ſoft and moiſt, but quickly hardens in the air. Its ſize is that of a hen's egg, ſhape ſometimes oval and ſometimes flatted, and commonly ſells for a ruble. This ſtone is ſuppoſed by profeſſor Pallas to belong to the genitals of the fiſh: it holds a conſiderable rank, though with little merit, among the domeſtic remedies of the Ruſſians, who ſcrape it, and, mixed with water, give it in difficult labours, in the diſeaſes of children, and other diſorders.

POPULATION, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] Nothing can be more injudicious, or remote from truth than the accounts we have from authors, of the population of this vaſt empire; the whole of which, they think, does not exceed, at moſt, ſeven millions. It is ſurpriſing that ſuch a miſtake ſhould have continued ſo long, when we conſider the immenſe armies brought into the field by the ſovereigns of Ruſſia, and the bloody wars they maintained in Aſia and Europe. Mr. Voltaire is, perhaps, the firſt author who has attempted to undeceive the public in this reſpect; and has done it upon very authentic grounds, by producing a liſt, taken in 1747, of all the males who paid the capitation or poll-tax, and which amount to ſix millions ſix hundred and forty-ſix thouſand three hundred and ninety. In this number are included boys and old men; but girls and women are not reckoned, or boys born between the making one regiſter of the lands and another. Now if we only reckon triple the number of heads ſubject to be taxed, including women and girls, we ſhall find near twenty millions of ſouls. To this account may be added three hundred and fifty thouſand ſoldiers, and two hundred thouſand nobility and clergy; and foreigners of all kinds, who are likewiſe exempted from the poll-tax; as alſo (ſays Mr. Voltaire) the inhabitants of the conquered countries, namely Livonia, Eſthonia, Ingria, Carelia, and a part of Finland; the Ukraine, and the Don Coſſacs, the Kalmucs, and other Tartars; the Samoides, the Laplanders, the Oſtiacs, and all the idolatrous people of Siberia, a country of greater extent than China, are not included in this liſt. The new regiſter in 1764 contains 8,500,000 ſubject to the poll-tax; and a late ingenious writer, reſident ſome time in Ruſſia, gives the following eſtimate:

Lower claſs of people paying capitation tax,	18,000,000
Conquered provinces,	1,200,000
Noble families,	60,000
Clergy,	100,000
Military,	360,000
Civil,	30,000
Ukraine, Siberia, Coſſacs, &c.	350,000
	20,100,000

To theſe muſt now be added near a million more by the acquiſitions of the Crimea, and part of Cuban Tartary; and, at leaſt, 1,500,000 in the provinces, diſmembered from Poland.

As her imperial majeſty of all the Ruſſians poſſeſſes many of the countries from whence the prodigious ſwarms of barbarians who overthrew the Roman empire

empire iſſued, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe, that her dominions muſt have been better peopled formerly than they are at preſent; twenty-four millions are but a thin population for the immenſe tract of country ſhe poſſeſſes. As the like decreaſe of inhabitants is obſervable in many other parts of the globe, we are to look for the reaſon in natural cauſes, which we cannot diſcuſs here. Perhaps the introduction of the ſmall pox and the venereal diſeaſe may have aſſiſted in the depopulation; and it is likely that the prodigious quantity of ſtrong and ſpirituous liquours, conſumed by the inhabitants of the North, is unfriendly to generation.

The Ruſſians, properly ſo called, are in general a perſonable people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour, eſpecially in the field, to an incredible degree. Their complexions differ little from thoſe of the Engliſh or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty. Their eye-ſight ſeems to be defective, occaſioned, probably, by the ſnow, which for a long time of the year is continually preſent to their eyes. Their officers and ſoldiers always poſſeſſed a large ſhare of paſſive valour; but in the late war with the king of Pruſſia, they proved as active as any troops in Europe; and in the late war with the Turks they greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves. They are implicitly ſubmiſſive to diſcipline, let it be ever ſo ſevere; they endure extreme hardſhips with great patience; and can content themſelves with very hard fare.

Before the days of Peter the Great, the Ruſſians were in general barbarous, ignorant, mean, and much addicted to drunkenneſs; no leſs than 4000 brandy ſhops have been reckoned in Moſcow. Not only the common people but many of the boyars, or nobles, lived in a continual ſtate of idleneſs and intoxication; and the moſt complete objects of miſery and barbarity preſented themſelves upon the ſtreets, while the court of Moſcow was by far the moſt ſplendid of any upon the globe. The czar and the grandees dreſſed after the moſt ſuperb Aſiatic manner; and their magnificence exceeded every idea that can be conceived from modern examples. The earl of Carliſle, in the account of his embaſſy, ſays, that he could ſee nothing but gold and precious ſtones in the robes of the czar and his courtiers. The manufactures, however, of thoſe and all other luxuries, were carried on by Italians, Germans, and other foreigners. Peter ſaw the bulk of his ſubjects, at his acceſſion to the throne, little better than beaſts of burden, to ſupport the pomp of the court. He forced his great men to lay aſide their long robes, and dreſs in the European manner; and he even obliged the laity to cut off their beards. The other improvements in learning and the arts, which he made ſhall be mentioned elſewhere. The Ruſſians, before his days, had hardly a ſhip upon their coaſts. They had no convenience for travelling, no pavements in their ſtreets, no places of public diverſion; and they entertained a ſovereign contempt for all improvements of the mind. At preſent a French or Engliſh gentleman may make a ſhift to live as comfortably and ſociably in Ruſſia as in moſt part of Europe. Their polite aſſemblies, ſince the acceſſion of the preſent empreſs, have been put under proper regulations; and few of the ancient uſages remain. It is, however, to be obſerved, that notwithſtanding the ſeverities of Peter, and the prudence of ſucceeding governments, drunkenneſs ſtill continues among all ranks; nor are even prieſts or ladies aſhamed of it on holidays.

The Ruſſians were formerly noted for ſo ſtrong an attachment to their native ſoil, that they ſeldom viſited foreign parts. This, however, was only the conſequence of their pride and ignorance; for Ruſſian nobility, beſides thoſe who are in a public character, are now found at every court in Europe.

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Her imperial majeſty even intereſts herſelf in the education of young men of quality in the knowledge of the world, and foreign ſervices, particularly that of the Britiſh fleet.

It is ſaid that the Ruſſian ladies were formerly as ſubmiſſive to their huſbands in their families as the latter are to their ſuperiors in the field; and that they thought themſelves ill treated if they were not often reminded of their duty by the diſcipline of a whip, manufactured by themſelves, which they preſented to their huſbands on the day of their marriage. Their nuptial ceremonies are peculiar to themſelves; and formerly conſiſted of ſome very whimſical rites, many of which are now diſuſed. When the parents are agreed upon a match, though the parties perhaps have never ſeen each other, the bride is examined ſtark naked by a certain number of females, who are to correct, if poſſible, any defects they find in her perſon. On her wedding-day ſhe is crowned with a garland of wormwood; and after the prieſt has tied the nuptial knot, his clerk or ſexton throws a handful of hops upon the head of the bride, wiſhing that ſhe may prove as fruitful as that plant. She is then led home, with abundance of coarſe and indeed indecent ceremonies, which are now wearing off even amongſt the loweſt ranks; and the barbarous treatment of wives by their huſbands, which extended even to ſcourging or broiling them to death, is either guarded againſt by the laws of the country, or by particular ſtipulations in the marriage-contract.

Funerals.] The Ruſſians entertain many fantaſtic notions with regard to the ſtate of departed ſouls. After the dead body is dreſſed, a prieſt is hired to pray for his ſoul, to purify it with incenſe, and to ſprinkle it with holy water while it remains above ground, which, among the better ſort, it generally does for eight or ten days. When the body is carried to the grave, which is done with many geſticulations of ſorrow, the prieſt produces a ticket, ſigned by the biſhop, and another clergyman, as the deceaſed's paſſport to heaven. When this is put into the coffin between the fingers of the corpſe, the company return to the deceaſed's houſe, where they drown their ſorrow in intoxication; which laſts among the better ſort, with few intervals, forty days. During that time, a prieſt every day ſays prayers over the grave of the deceaſed; for though the Ruſſians do not believe in purgatory, yet they imagine that their departed friend may be aſſiſted by prayer, in his long journey to the place of his deſtination after this life.

Puniſhments.] The Ruſſians are remarkable for the ſeverity and variety of their puniſhments, which are both inflicted and endured with a wonderful inſenſibility. Peter the Great uſed to ſuſpend the robbers upon the Wolga, and other parts of his dominions, by iron hooks fixed to their ribs, on gibbets, where they writhed themſelves to death, hundreds, nay thouſands, at a time. The ſingle and double knout were lately inflicted upon ladies, as well as men of quality. Both of them are excruciating: but in the double knout the hands are bound behind the priſoner's back, and the cord being fixed to a pully, lifts him from the ground, with the diſlocation of both his ſhoulders; and then his back is in a manner ſcarified by the executioner, with a hard thong cut from a wild aſs's ſkin. This puniſhment has been ſo often fatal, that a ſurgeon generally attends the patient, to pronounce the moment that it ſhould ceaſe. It is not always the number of the ſtrokes, but the method of applying them, which occaſions the death of the criminal; for the executioner can kill him in three or four blows, by ſtriking him upon the ribs; though perſons are ſometimes recovered, in a few weeks, who have received three hundred ſtrokes moderately inflicted. The boring and cutting out of the tongue are likewiſe practiſed in Ruſſia; and even the late em-

empreſs Elizabeth, though ſhe prohibited capital puniſhments, was forced to give way to the ſuppoſed neceſſity of thoſe tortures.

According to the ſtrict letter of the law, there are no capital puniſhments in Ruſſia; except in the caſe of high-treaſon: but when this matter is thoroughly inveſtigated, there is much leſs humanity in it than has been ſuppoſed. For there are many felons who die under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journies to Siberia, and from the hardſhips they ſuffer in the mines; ſo that there is reaſon to believe, that no fewer criminals ſuffer death in Ruſſia than in thoſe countries where capital puniſhments are authoriſed by the laws.

Felons, after receiving the knout, and having their cheeks and forehead marked, are ſometimes ſentenced for life to the public works at Crouſtadt, Viſhnei, Voloſhock, and other places; but the common practice is to ſend them into Siberia, where they are condemned for life to the mines at Nerſhink. There are upon an average from 1600 to 2000 convicts at theſe mines. The greateſt part are confined in barracks, excepting thoſe who are married: the latter are permitted to build huts, near the mines, for themſelves and families. The prohibition of torture does honour to the humanity of the preſent empreſs.

TRAVELLING.] Among the many conveniencies introduced of late into Ruſſia, that of travelling is extremely remarkable, and the expence very trifling. Nothing ſtrikes either a reader or a ſtranger more than the facility with which the Ruſſians perform the longeſt and moſt uncomfortable journies. Like their Scandinavian neighbours already deſcribed, they travel in ſledges made of the bark of the linden-tree, lined with thick felt, drawn by rein-deer, when the ſnow is frozen hard enough to bear them. In the internal parts of Ruſſia horſes draw their ſledges; and the ſledgeway towards February, becomes ſo well beaten, that they erect a kind of coach upon the ſledges, in which they may lie at full length, and ſo travel night and day, wrapt up in good furs; thus they often perform a journey of about 400 miles, ſuch as that between Peterſburgh and Moſcow, in three days and nights. Her imperial majeſty, in her journies, is drawn in a houſe which contains a bed, a table, chairs, and other conveniencies for four people, by 24 poſt horſes; and the houſe itſelf is fixed on a ſledge.

DIFFERENT NATIONS SUBJECT TO RUSSIA.] As the preſent ſubjects of the Ruſſian empire in its moſt extenſive ſenſe, are the deſcendants of many different people, and inhabit prodigious tracts of country, ſo we find among them a vaſt variety of character and manners; and the great reformations introduced of late years, as well as the diſcoveries made, render former accounts to be but little depended upon. Many of the Tartars, who inhabit large portions of the Ruſſian dominions, now live in fixed houſes and villages cultivate the land, and pay tribute like other ſubjects. Till lately they were not admitted into the Ruſſian armies; but now they make excellent ſoldiers. Other Ruſſian Tartars retain their old wandering lives. Both ſides of the Wolga are inhabited by Tſchermiſes and Morduars a peaceable, induſtrious people. The Baſkirs are likewiſe fixed inhabitants of the tract that reaches from Kaſan to the frontiers of Siberia; and have certain privileges of which they are tenacious. The wandering Kalmucs occupy the reſt of the tract to Aſtrachan, and the frontiers of the Uſbecs: and in conſideration of certain preſents they received from her imperial majeſty they ſerve in her armies without pay, but are apt to plunder equally friends or foes.

The *Coſſacs* who lately made a figure in the military hiſtory of Europe, were originally Poliſh peaſants, and ſerved in the Ukraine, as a militia againſt the Tar-

Tartars. Being oppreſſed by their unfeeling lords, a part of them moved to the uncultivated banks of the Don, or Tanais, and there eſtabliſhed a colony. They were ſoon after joined, in 1637, by two other detachments of their countrymen; and they reduced Aſoph, which they were obliged to abandon to the Turks, after laying it in aſhes. They next put themſelves under the protection of the Ruſſians, built Circaſka, on an iſland in the Don; and their poſſeſſions which conſiſted of thirty nine towns on both ſides that river, reached from Ribna to Aſoph. They there lived in a country which they took care to cultivate; and they were ſo wedded to their original cuſtoms, that they were little better than nominal ſubjects to the czars, till the time of Peter the Great. They profeſſed the Greek religion; their inclinations were warlike, and they occaſionally ſerved againſt the Tartars and Turks on the Palus Mæotis.

The mien and character of the Tartars of Kaſan, and of thoſe derived from them, are very uniform, and may ſerve for the characteriſtic marks of all the Mahometan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally ſtraight and well made, have ſmall faces, with freſh complexions, and a ſprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of a very moderate capacity. They are ſober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatneſs. The Tartarian women are of a wholeſome complexion rather than handſome, and of a good conſtitution: from their earlieſt infancy they are accuſtomed to labour, retirement, modeſty, and ſubmiſſion. The Tartars of Caſan take great care of the education of their children. They habituate their youth to labour, to ſobriety, and to a ſtrict obſervance of the manners of their anceſtors. They are taught to read and write, and are inſtructed in the Arabic tongue, and the principles of their religion. Even the ſmalleſt village has its chapel, ſchool, prieſt and ſchool-maſter; though ſome of theſe prieſts and ſchool-maſters are not much ſkilled in the Arabic language. The beſt Tartarian academies in the Ruſſian empire are thoſe of Kaſan, Tobolſk, and Aſtrachan, which are under the directions of the gagouns, or high-prieſts. It is not uncommon to find ſmall collections of hiſtorical anecdotes in manuſcript, in the huts of the boors: and their merchants, beſides what thoſe little libraries contain, are pretty extenſively acquainted with the hiſtory of their own people, and that of the circumjacent ſtates, with the antiquities of each. Such as chooſe to make a progreſs in theology, enter themſelves into the ſchools of Bougharia, which are more complete than the others.

The Tartar citizens of Kaſan, Orenberg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exerciſe ſeveral trades, and have ſome manufactories. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely ſeen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterpriſing; but as they extend their connections by partners and clerks, many of them carry on a great deal of buſineſs, which their parſimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kaſan they make a trade of preparing what is called in England, Morocco-leather. The villages of theſe people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Moſt of them alſo contain tanners, ſhoe-makers, taylors, dyers, ſmiths, and carpenters.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartar citizens and villagers of Aſtrachan are perfectly ſimilar with thoſe of the Tartars of Kaſan. In the city of Aſtrachan they have a large magazine for goods, built of bricks, and ſeveral ſhops upon arches. They carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Perſians, Indians, and Bougharians: and their manufac-

nufactories of Morocco leather, cottons, camelots, and ſilks, are in a very thriving ſtate.

The *Finns* are of Aſiatic origin, and have a cloſe reſemblance to the Laplanders, only they are more civiliſed, and better informed. They live in towns and villages, have ſchools and academies, and make ſome progreſs in the arts and ſciences. They profeſs the Lutheran faith, and uſe the Chriſtian æra in their chronology. They carry on commerce, and exerciſe moſt of the common trades. The boors are chiefly employed in agriculture, hunting, aud fiſhing. They are great eaters, making five meals a day, and are immoderately fond of brandy. They enjoy a conſiderable degree of freedom, as the Ruſſian government has continued to them the enjoyment of the privileges which they formerly had under the crown of Sweden.

The *Votiacks*, who are a Finniſh race, chiefly inhabit the provinces of Viatik, in the government of Kaſan. Some of the Votiaks are Chriſtians; but great part of them are heathens and idolaters; though even theſe believe the doctrine of a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments.

The *Oſtiaks*, who are likewiſe a Finniſh race, are one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were in ſubjection to Ruſſia, they were governed by princes of their own nation, and their deſcendants are ſtill reputed noble. Theſe people divide themſelves into different ſtocks or tribes, they chooſe their chiefs among the progeny of their ancient rulers. Theſe maintain peace and good order, and ſuperintend the payment of the taxes.

They are entirely unacquainted with the uſe of letters and are extremely ignorant; they can reckon as far as ten, but no farther, as is the caſe of other Finniſh nations.

The *Vogouls* are rather below the middle ſtature, have generally black hair, and a ſcanty beard. Their principal occupation is in the chace, in which they diſcover much eagerneſs and addreſs; uſing indiſcriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the ſpear. They are alſo ſkilful in contriving traps, ſnares, and gins, and all the lures of game.

The *Tſchouwaſches* dwell along the two ſides of the Wolga, in the governments of Niſchnei, Novogorod, Kaſan, and Orenberg. They never live in towns, but aſſemble in ſmall villages, and chooſe the foreſts for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpoſe ſcrew-barrel muſkets, which they prefer to the bow. One of their marriage ceremonies is, that on the wedding night the bride is obliged to pull off her huſband's boots. A late writer ſays, "Among the Tſchouwaſches the huſ-"band is maſter of the houſe; he orders every thing himſelf; and it is the "duty of the wife to obey without reply: a cuſtom calculated to prevent "domeſtic broils. Accordingly quarrels are very uncommon in the fami-"lies of the Tſchouwaſches.

The *Kirguiſians* have a frank and prepoſſeſſing air, ſimilar to that which characteriſes the Tartars of Kaſan. They have a ſharp but not a fierce look; and ſmaller eyes than thoſe Tartars. They have good natural ſenſe, and are affable, and high-ſpirited; but fond of their eaſe, and voluptuous. They dwell always in portable huts, wandering about their deſerts in ſearch of paſturage for their flocks and herds, which conſtitute their principal occupation. The decoration of their horſes employs them almoſt as much as that of their perſons; they have generally elegant ſaddles, handſome houſings, and ornamented bridles. They are great eaters; and they alſo ſmoke tobacco to exceſs. Men, women, and children, all ſmoke, and take ſnuff: they keep the latter in little horns faſtened to their girdles. The great and wealthy live perfectly in the ſame manner as the reſt of the people, and are diſtin-

guiſhed only by the numerous trains that accompany them in their cavalcades, and the quantity of huts which ſurround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and ſlaves.

The *Tunguſians* form one of the moſt numerous nations of Siberia. They are of a middle ſtature, well made, and of a good mien. Their ſight and hearing are of a degree of acuteneſs and delicacy that is almoſt incredible; but their organs of ſmelling and feeling are conſiderably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almoſt every tree and ſtone within the circuit of their uſual perambulations; and they can even deſcribe a courſe of ſome hundred miles by the configurations of the trees and ſtones they meet with, and can enable others to take the ſame route by ſuch deſcriptions. They alſo diſcover the tracts of the game by the compreſſion of the graſs or moſs. They alſo learn foreign languages with eaſe, are alert on horſeback, good hunters, and dextrous at the bow.

The *Kalmucs* are a courageous tribe, and numerous: for the moſt part raw-boned and ſtout. Their viſage is ſo flat, that the ſkull of a Kalmuc may be eaſily known from others. They have thick lips, a ſmall noſe, a ſhort chin, the complexion a reddiſh and yelloviſh brown. Their cloathing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chineſe. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their noſtriis. Their principal food is animals, tame and wild, and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of diſtemper or age, and let it ſtink ever ſo much; ſo that in every hord the fleſh market hath the appearance of a lay-ſtall of carrion; they eat likewiſe the roots and plants of their deſarts. They are great eaters; but can endure want for a long time without complaint. Both ſexes ſmoke continually: during the ſummer they keep to the north, and in the winter to the ſouthern deſarts. They ſleep upon felt or carpeting, and cover themſelves with the ſame.

The *Kamtſchadales* have a lively imagination, a ſtrong memory, and a great genius for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fiſhing. The chace furniſhes them with ſables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fiſhing, and are well acquainted with the proper ſeaſons for it. They eat and drink great quantities; but as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domeſtic animals, and they put a high value upon them. Some of them travel in ſmall carriages drawn by dogs; and a complete Kamtſchadalian equipage, dog's harneſs, and all, coſts in that country 4l. 10s. or near twenty rubles. The Kamtſchadales believed the immortality of the ſoul, before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Chriſtian religion. They are ſuperſtitious to extravagance, and extremely ſingular and capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the *Siberians* were formerly ſo barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater puniſhment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by baniſhing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swediſh officers and ſoldiers introduced European uſages and manufactures into the country, and thereby acquired a comfortable living. In this wide and forlorn region, that was ſo long unknown to Europe, ſome new mines have lately been diſcovered, which, upon their firſt opening, have yielded 45,000 pounds of fine ſilver, and which is ſaid to have been obtained with little difficulty or expence. But Kamtſchatka is now conſidered as the moſt horrid place of exile in the vaſt empire of Ruſſia, and here ſome of the greateſt criminals are ſent.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Ruſſia is that of the Greek church, the tenets of which are by far too numerous and complicated to be

be diſcuſſed here. It is ſufficient to ſay, that they deny the pope's ſupremacy; and though they diſclaim image-worſhip, they retain many idolatrous and ſuperſtitious cuſtoms. Their churches are full of pictures of ſaints, whom they conſider as mediators. They obſerve a number of faſts and lents, ſo that they live half the year very abſtemiouſly: an inſtitution which is extremely convenient for the ſoil and climate. They have many peculiar notions with regard to the ſacraments and Trinity. They oblige their biſhops, but not their prieſts, to celibacy. Peter the Great ſhewed his profound knowledge in government in nothing more than in the reformation of his church. He broke the dangerous powers of the patriarch, and the great clergy. He declared himſelf the head of the church; and preſerved the ſubordinations of metropolitans, archbiſhops, and biſhops. Their prieſts have no fixed income, but depend for ſubſiſtence upon the benevolence of their flocks and hearers. Peter, after eſtabliſhing this great political reformation, left his clergy in full poſſeſſion of all their idle ceremonies: nor did he cut off the beards of his clergy; that impolitic attempt was reſerved for the late emperor, and greatly contributed to his fatal cataſtrophe. Before his days, an incredible number of both ſexes were ſhut up in convents; nor has it been found prudent entirely to aboliſh thoſe ſocieties. The abuſes of them, however, are in a great meaſure removed; for no male can become a monk till he is turned of thirty; and no female a nun, till ſhe is fifty; and even then not without permiſſion of their ſuperiors.

The conquered provinces, as already obſerved, retain the exerciſe of their own religion; but ſuch is the extent of the Ruſſian empire, that many of its ſubjects are Mahometans, and more of them no better than Pagans, in Siberia and the uncultivated countries. Many ill-judged attempts have been made to convert them by force, which have only tended to confirm them in their infidelity. On the banks of the river Sarpa, is a flouriſhing colony of Moravian brethren, to which the founders have given the name of Serepta; the beginning of the ſettlement was in 1765, with diſtinguiſhed privileges from the imperial court.

LANGUAGE.] The common language of Ruſſia is a mixture of the Poliſh and Sclavonian; their prieſts, however, and the moſt learned clergy, make uſe of what is called modern Greek; and they who know that language in its purity, are at no loſs for underſtanding it in its corrupted ſtate. The Ruſſians have thirty-ſix letters, the forms of which have a ſtrong reſemblance to the old Greek alphabet.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Ruſſians have hitherto made but an inconſiderable figure in the republic of letters: but the great encouragement given by their ſovereigns of late, in the inſtitution of academies, and other literary boards, has produced ſufficient proofs, that they are no way deficient as to intellectual abilities. The papers exhibited by them, at their academical meetings, have been favourably received all over Europe; eſpecially thoſe that relate to aſtronomy, the mathematics, and natural philoſophy. The ſpeeches pronounced by the biſhop of Turer, the metropolitan of Novogorod, the vice chancellor, and the marſhal, at the opening of the commiſſion for a new code of laws, are elegant and claſſical; and the progreſs which learning has made in that empire, ſince the beginning of this century, with the ſpecimens of literature publiſhed both at Peterſburgh and Moſcow, is an evidence, that the Ruſſians are not unqualified to ſhine in the arts and ſciences. However, the efforts to civilize them did not begin with Peter the Great, but were much older. A ſmall glimmering, like the firſt day break, was ſeen under Czar Iwan, in the middle of the 16th century. This became

more conſpicuous under Alexius Michaelowitz; but under Peter it burſt forth with the ſplendor of a riſing ſun, and hath continued ever ſince to aſcend towards its meridian.

UNIVERSITIES.] Three colleges were founded by Peter the Great at Moſcow; one for claſſical learning and philoſophy, the ſecond for mathematics, and the third for navigation and aſtronomy. To theſe he added a diſpenſary, which is a magnificent building, and under the care of ſome able German chemiſts and apothecaries; who furniſh medicines not only to the army, but all over the kingdom. And within theſe few years, Mr. de Shorealow, high chamberlain to the empreſs Elizabeth, daughter to Peter the Great, has founded an univerſity in this city. The preſent empreſs has alſo founded an univerſity at Peterſburgh, and invited ſome of the moſt learned foreigners in every faculty, who are provided with good ſalaries; and alſo a military academy, where the young nobility and officers ſons are taught the art of war. It ought alſo to be mentioned, to the honour of the ſame royal benefactreſs, that ſhe is actually employed in founding a number of ſchools for the education of the lower claſſes of her ſubjects, throughout the beſt inhabited parts of the empire; an inſtitution, which, if rightly executed, will intitle the great Catherine. as much as any of her predeceſſors, to the gratitude of the Ruſſian nation

CITIES, TOWNS, PALACES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS.] Peterſburgh naturally takes the lead in this diviſion. It lies at the junction of the Neva with the lake Ladoga, already mentioned, in latitude 60; but the reader may have a better idea of its ſituation, by being informed that it ſtands on both ſides the river Neva, between that lake and the bottom of the Finland gulf. In the year 1703, this city conſiſted of a few ſmall fiſhing huts, on a ſpot ſo wateriſh and ſwampy, that the ground was formed into nine iſlands; by which, according to Voltaire, its principal quarters are ſtill divided. Without entering into too minute a deſcription of this wonderful city, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it extends about ſix miles every way; and contains every ſtructure for magnificence, the improvement of the arts, revenue, navigation, war, commerce, and the like, that are to be found in the moſt celebrated cities in Europe. But there is a convent which deſerves particular notice, in which 440 young ladies are educated at the expence of the empreſs; 200 of them of ſuperior rank, and the other, daughters of citizens and tradeſmen, who, after a certain time allotted to their education, quit the convent with improvements ſuitable to their conditions of life, and thoſe of the lower claſs are preſented with a ſum of money as a dowry if they marry, or to procure to themſelves a proper livelihood. Near to this convent is a Foundling Hoſpital, aſſiſtant to that noble one eſtabliſhed at Moſcow, and where the mother may come to be delivered privately, and then, after the utmoſt attention to her, ſhe leaves the child to the ſtate, as a parent more capable of promoting its welfare.

As Peterſburgh is the emporium of Ruſſia, the number of foreign ſhips trading to it in the ſummer-time is ſurpriſing. In winter 3000 one-horſe ſledges are employed for paſſengers in the ſtreets. It is ſuppoſed, that there are 400,000 inhabitants in this city; and it is ornamented with thirty-five great churches; for in it almoſt every ſect of the Chriſtian religion is tolerated. It alſo contains palaces, ſome of which are ſuperb, particularly that which is called the New Summer Palace, near the Triumphal Port, which is an elegant piece of architecture. This magnificent city is defended on that ſide next the ſea by the fortreſs of Cronſtadt; which, conſidering the difficulty and danger of navigating a large naval force through the gulf of Finland,

land, is ſufficient to guard it on that ſide from the attempts of any enemy. Peterſburgh is the capital of the province of Ingria, one of Peter the Great's conqueſts from the Swedes. All the neighbourhood of this city is covered with country houſes and gardens.

The city of Moſcow was formerly the glory of this great empire, and it ſtill continues conſiderable enough to figure among the capitals of Europe. It ſtands, as has been already mentioned, on the river from whence it takes its name, in lat. 55-45, and about 1414 miles north-eaſt of London; and though its ſtreets are not regular, it preſents a very picturesque appearance; for it contains ſuch a number of gardens, groves, lawns, and ſtreams, that it ſeems rather to be a cultivated country, than a city. The ancient magnificence of this city would be incredible, were it not atteſted by the moſt unqueſtionable authors: but we are to make great allowances for the uncultivated ſtate of the adjacent provinces, which might have made it appear with a greater luſtre in a traveller's eyes. Neither Voltaire nor Buſching give us any ſatisfactory account of this capital; and little credit is to be given to the authors who divide it into regular quarters, and each quarter inhabited by a different order or profeſſion. Buſching ſpeaks of it as the largeſt city in Europe; but that can be only meant as to the ground it ſtands on, computed to be 16 miles in circumference. It is generally agreed, that Moſcow contains 1600 churches and convents, and forty-three palaces or ſquares. Buſching makes the merchants' exchange to contain about 6000 fine ſhops, which diſplay a vaſt parade of commerce, eſpecially, to and from China. No city diſplays a greater contraſt than Moſcow, of magnificence and meanneſs in building. The houſes of the inhabitants in general are miſerable timber booths: but their palaces, churches, convents, and other public edifices are ſpacious and lofty. The Krimlin, or grand imperial palace, is mentioned as one of the moſt ſuperb ſtructures in the world: it ſtands in the interior circle of the city, and contains the old imperial palace, pleaſure houſe, and ſtables, a victualling houſe, the palace which formerly belonged to the patriarch, nine cathedrals, five convents, four pariſh churches, the arſenal, with the public colleges, and other offices. All the churches, in the Krimlin have beautiful ſpires, moſt of them gilt, or covered with ſilver; the architecture is in the Gothic taſte; but the inſides of the churches are richly ornamented; and the pictures of the ſaints are decorated with gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. Mention is made of the cathedral, which has no fewer than nine towers, covered with copper double gilt, and contains a ſilver branch with 48 lights, ſaid to weigh 2800 pounds. A volume would ſcarcely ſuffice to recount the other particulars of the magnificence of this city. Its ſumptuous monuments of the great dukes and czars, the magazine, the patriarchal palace, the exchequer, and chancery, are noble ſtructures. The public is not unacquainted with the barbarous anecdote, that the czar, John Baſilides, ordered the architect of the church of Jeruſalem to be deprived of his eye ſight, that he might never contrive its equal. The ſtory is improbable, and might take its riſe from the arbitrary diſpoſition of that great prince. I ſhall have occaſion hereafter to mention the great bell of Moſcow; where the inhabitants are ſo diſtractedly fond of bells, that they are always tinkling in every quarter. The jewels and ornaments of an image of the virgin Mary, in the Krimlin church, and its other furniture, can be only equalled by what is ſeen at the famous Holy Houſe of Loretto in Italy. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that Peter, who was attentive to every thing, did not neglect Moſcow, at the time he was building Peterſburg; for he cauſed it to be paved, adorned it with noble edifices, and enriched it with manufactures.

The

The Foundling Hoſpital at Moſcow is an excellent inſtitution, and appears to be under very judicious regulations. It was founded by the preſent empreſs, and is ſupported by voluntary contributions, legacies, and other charitable endowments. It is an immenſe pile of building, of a quadrangular ſhape, and contains 3000 foundlings: when the eſtabliſhment is completed, it is intended to contain 8000. They are taken great care of; and at the age of fourteen they have the liberty of chooſing any particular branch of trade; and for this purpoſe there are different ſpecies of manufactures eſtabliſhed in the hoſpital. When they have gone through a certain apprenticeſhip, or about the age of twenty, they are allowed the liberty of ſetting up for themſelves: a ſum of money is beſtowed upon each foundling for that purpoſe, and they are permitted to carry on trade in any part of the Ruſſian empire. This is a very conſiderable privilege in Ruſſia, where the peaſants are ſlaves, and cannot leave their villages without the permiſſion of their maſters.

Nothing can be ſaid with certainty as to the population of Moſcow. When lord Carliſle was the Engliſh ambaſſador there, in the reign of Charles II. this city was 12 miles in compaſs, and the number of houſes were computed at 40,000. Voltaire ſays that when he wrote, Moſcow was twenty miles in circumference, and that its inhabitants amounted to 500,000. Mr. Coxe confirms the account of the circumference of this city, but thinks the account of its population much exaggerated; according to an account which was given to him by an Engliſh gentleman, which he received from the lieutenant of the police, and which he ſays may be relied on, Moſcow contains within the ramparts 250,000, and in the adjacent villages 50,0000.

Curiosities.] This article affords no great entertainment, as Ruſſia has but lately been admitted into the rank of civiliſed nations. She can however, produce many ſtupendous monuments of the public ſpirit of her ſovereigns; particularly her canals made by Peter the Great, for the benefit of commerce. Siberia is full of old ſepulchres of an unknown nation, whoſe inſtruments and arms were all made of copper. In the cabinet of natural hiſtory at Peterſburgh, is a rhinoceros, dug up on the banks of the river Valui, with his ſkin, and the hair upon it, perfect. I have already hinted at the paſſion the Ruſſians have for bell-ringing; and we are told that the great bell of Moſcow, the largeſt in the world, weighs, according to Mr. Coxe, "432,000 pounds, and "which exceeds in bigneſs every bell in the known world. Its ſize is ſo enormous, that I could ſcarcely have given credit to the account of its magnitude, if I had not examined it myſelf, and aſcertained its dimenſions with "great exactneſs. Its height is nineteen feet, its circumference at the bottom twenty-one yards eleven inches, its greateſt thickneſs twenty-three "inches." It was caſt in the reign of the empreſs Anne: but the beam on which it hung, being burnt, it fell, and a large piece is broken out of it; ſo that it lately lay in a manner uſeleſs. Mr. Bruce in his late memoirs mentions a bell at Moſcow founded in Czar Boris's time, 19 feet high, 23 in diameter, and two in thickneſs, that weighed 336,000 pounds. The building of Peterſburgh, and raiſing it of a ſudden from a few fiſhing huts to be a populous and rich city, is perhaps a curioſity hardly to be paralleled ſince the erection of the Egyptian pyramids. The ſame may be ſaid of the fortreſs of Cronſtadt, in the neighbourhood of Peterſburgh, which is almoſt impregnable. This fortreſs and city employed for ſome years 300,000 men in laying its foundation, and driving piles night and day; a work which no monarch in Europe (Peter excepted) could have executed. The whole plan, with a very little aſſiſtance from ſome German engineers, was drawn by his own hand. Equally wonderful was the navy which he raiſed to his people at the time when

when they could hardly be ſaid to have poſſeſſed a ſhip in any part of the globe. What is more wonderful than all, he often wrought in perſon in all thoſe amazing works, with the ſame aſſiduity as if he had been a common labourer.

COMMERCE, AND MARITIME FORCE. In treating of the Ruſſian commerce, former accounts are of little ſervice at this time, becauſe of its great improvements and variations. By the beſt and ſureſt information, the annual exports of Ruſſia at preſent amount to about £.2,400,000, and her imports do not exceed £.1,600,000; ſo that the balance of trade is yearly £. 800,000 ſterling in her favour *.

Ruſſia's productions and exports, in general, are many, and very valuable, viz. furs and peltry of various kinds, red leather, linen and thread, iron, copper, ſail-cloth, hemp and flax, pitch and tar, wax, honey, tallow, iſinglaſs, linſeed-oil, pot aſh, ſoap, feathers, train-oil, hog's briſtles, muſk, rhubarb, and other drugs, timber, and alſo raw ſilk from China and Perſia.

Her foreign commerce is much increaſed ſince her conqueſts from Sweden, eſpecially of Livonia and Ingria; and ſince the eſtabliſhing of her new emporium of Peterſburgh, whereby her naval intercourſe with Europe is made much more ſhort and eaſy. The Ukraine may be called the granaries of the empire; the beſt corn, hemp, flax, honey, and wax, come from this fertile province, and 10,000 head of horned cattle are annually ſent from its paſtures into Sileſia and Saxony.

Ruſſia carries on a commerce over-land, by caravans, to China, chiefly in furs: and they bring back from thence, tea, ſilk, cotton, gold, &c. To Bocharia, near the river Oxus in Tartary, Ruſſia, ſends her own merchandize, in return for Indian ſilks, curled lamb ſkins, and ready money; and alſo for the annual fair at Samarcand; ſhe likewiſe trades to Perſia by Aſtracan, croſs the Caſpian ſea, for raw and wrought ſilk. The empreſs, in 1784, iſſued an edict, permitting all foreigners to carry on a free trade by ſea and land with the ſeveral countries bordering on the Euxine, which have been lately annexed to the empire. The ſame privileges religious and civil, are allowed to them in the ports of Cherſon, Sebaſtiopolis, and Theodoſia, (formerly Caffa,) in the province of Taurica, as in Peterſburgh.

Before the time of Peter the Great, Archangel, which lies upon the White Sea, was the only port of naval communication which Ruſſia had with the reſt of Europe; but it was ſubject to a long and tempeſtuous voyage. They have now 13 ports, Archangel, Peterſburgh, Riga, Revel, Perneau, Narva, Wibourg, Frederickſham, Aſtracan, and Kola, and the three opened in their new conqueſts. This town is about three Engliſh miles in length, and one in breadth, built all of wood, excepting the exchange, which is of ſtone. Notwithſtanding the decreaſe of the trade of Archangel, by building Peterſburgh, it ſtill exports a conſiderable quantity of merchandiſe. Their maſts and timber for the dock-yards come chiefly from the foreſts of Kaſan, that border on the province of Aſtracan.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND DISTINCTION OF RANK. The ſovereign of the Ruſſian empire is abſolute and deſpotic in the fulleſt extent of thoſe terms, and maſter of the lives and properties of all his ſubjects; who, though they are of the firſt nobility, or have been highly inſtrumental in promoting the welfare of the ſtate, may, notwithſtanding, for the moſt trifling offence, or even for no offence at all, be ſeized upon and ſent to Siberia, or made to drudge for life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiſ-

* Coxe's Travels, 4to. vol. ii. p. 247.

fiſcated, whenever the ſovereign or his miniſters ſhall think proper. Perſons of any rank may be baniſhed into Siberia for the ſlighteſt political intrigue, and their poſſeſſions being confiſcated, a whole family may at once be ruined by the inſinuations of an artful courtier. The ſecret court of chancery, which was a tribunal compoſed of a few miniſters choſen by the ſovereign, had the lives and fortunes of all families at their mercy. But this court was ſuppreſſed by Peter III.

The ſyſtem of civil laws at preſent eſtabliſhed in Ruſſia, is very imperfect, and in many inſtances barbarous and unjuſt; being an aſſemblage of laws and regulations drawn from moſt of the ſtates of Europe, ill digeſted, and in many reſpects not at all adapted to the genius of the Ruſſian nation. But the preſent empreſs has made ſome attempts to reform the laws, and put them upon a better footing. The courts of juſtice were in general very corrupt, and thoſe by whom it was adminiſtered extremely ignorant; but the empreſs hath lately made ſome judicious regulations, and fixed a certain ſalary to the office of judge, which before depended on the contributions of the unhappy clients, and thus the poor were without hope or remedy. It is hoped that the new code of laws for which ſhe hath given inſtructions, will ſoon be produced, to increaſe the people's liberty, ſecurity, and felicity.

The diſtinctions of rank form a conſiderable part of the Ruſſian conſtitution. The late empreſſes took the title of Autocratrix; which implies, that they owed their dignity to no earthly power. Their ancient nobility were divided into knezes or knazeys, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were ſovereigns upon their own eſtates, till they were reduced by the czar; but they ſtill retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces; thoſe titles, however, ſo often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the preſent and late empreſſes have introduced among their ſubjects, the titles of counts and princes, and the other diſtinctions of nobility that are common to the reſt of Europe.

REVENUE AND EXPENCES.] Nothing certain can be ſaid concerning the revenues of this mighty empire; but they are, undoubtedly, at preſent, far ſuperior to what they were in former times, even under Peter the Great. The vaſt exertions for promoting induſtry, made by his ſucceſſors, eſpecially her preſent imperial majeſty, muſt have greatly added to their income, which can ſcarcely be reckoned at leſs than 30,000,000 of rubles, or nearly ſix millions ſterling annually; thus computed:

	Rubles.
Capitation tax, - - -	8,500,000
Other taxes and duties, - -	7,000,000
Her own eſtates with other dominions taken from the clergy	6,000,000
Produce of the mines, - -	1,500,000
Monopoly of diſtilled liquors -	4,000,000
Monopoly of ſalt - - -	1,800,000
	28,800,000

The deficiency of the ſum total may be eaſily made up by the profit ariſing from ſtamp paper, patents, poſt office, and other articles omitted in the general calculation, beſides *one* per cent, every Ruſſian merchant is obliged to pay out of his yearly capital.

When the reader conſiders this ſum relatively, that is, according to the high value of money, in that empire, compared to its low value in Great Britain, he will find it a very conſiderable revenue. That it is ſo, appears from the vaſt armies

armies maintained and paid by the late and preſent empreſs, in Germany, Poland, and elſewhere, when no part of the money returned to Ruſſia; nor do we find that they received any conſiderable ſubſidy from the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria, who, indeed, were in no condition to grant them any. Mr. Voltaire ſays, that in 1733, reckoning the tribute paid by the Tartars, with all taxes and duties in money, the ſum total amounted to thirteen millions of rubles (each ruble amounting to 4s. 6d. ſterling). This income was at that time ſufficient to maintain 330,500 men, employed in the land and ſea ſervice. The other expences beſides the payment of the army and navy of her preſent majeſty, the number and diſcipline of which are at leaſt equal to thoſe of her greateſt predeceſſors, is very conſiderable. Her court is elegant and magnificent; her guards and attendants ſplendid; and the encouragement ſhe gives to learning, the improvements of the arts, and uſeful diſcoveries, coſt her vaſt ſums, excluſive of her ordinary expences of ſtate.

Some of the Ruſſian revenues ariſe from monopolies; which are often neceſſary in the infancy of commerce. The moſt hazardous enterpriſe undertaken by Peter the Great, was his imitating the conduct of Henry VIII. of England in ſeizing the revenues of the church. He found perhaps, that policy and neceſſity required that the greateſt part of them ſhould be reſtored, which was accordingly done; his great aim being to deprive the patriarch of his exceſſive power. The clergy are taxed in Ruſſia; but the pecuniary revenues of the crown ariſe from taxes upon eſtates, bagnios, bees, mills, fiſheries, and other particulars.

The Ruſſian armies are raiſed at little or no expence; and, while in their own country, ſubſiſt chiefly on proviſions furniſhed them by the country people according to their internal valuation. The pay of a ſoldier ſcarcely amounts to 30 ſhillings yearly: in garriſon he receives only five rubles yearly. The pay of a ſailor and a gunner is a ruble a-month, and they are found in proviſions when a-ſhore.

ORDERS.] The order of St. *Andrew* inſtituted by Peter the Great, in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers, in the wars againſt the Turks. He choſe St. Andrew for his patron, becauſe by tradition he was the founder of Chriſtianity in the country. The knights are perſons of the firſt rank in the empire. The order of Sir *Alexander Newſki*, was alſo inſtituted by Peter the Great, and confirmed by the empreſs Catharine I. in the year 1725. The order of St. *Catharine* was inſtituted by Peter the Great, in honour of his empreſs, for her aſſiſtance on the banks of the Pruth. The order of St. *George* inſtituted by the preſent empreſs Catharine II. in favour of the military officers in her ſervice. The order of St. *Wolodemir* was inſtituted about October 3d, 1782, by the empreſs, in favour of thoſe who ſerve her in a civil capacity. The order of St. *Anne* of Holſtein, in memory of Anne, daughter of Peter the Great.

HISTORY.] It is evident both from ancient hiſtory and modern diſcoveries, that ſome of the moſt neglected parts of the Ruſſian empire at preſent were formerly rich and populous. The reader who throws his eyes on a general map of Europe and Aſia, may ſee the advantages of their ſituation, and their communication by rivers with the Black Sea, and the richeſt provinces in the Roman and Greek empires. In latter times, the Aſiatic part of Ruſſia bordered with Samarcand in Tartary, once the capital under Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, of a far more rich and powerful empire than any mentioned in hiſtory; and that nothing is more certain than that the conqueſt of Ruſſia was among the laſt attempts made by the former of thoſe princes. The chronicles of this empire reach no higher than the 9th century, but they have vented a tradition,

that Kiovia and Novogorod were founded by Kii in the year 430. This Kii is by ſome conſidered as an ancient prince, while others mention him as a ſimple boatman who uſed to tranſport goods and paſſengers acroſs the Neiper. For a long time the chief or ruler had the title of grand duke of Kiow. We cannot with the ſmalleſt degree of probability carry our conjectures with regard to the Hiſtory of Ruſſia higher than the introduction of Chriſtianity, which happened about the tenth century: when the Princeſs of this country called Olba, is ſaid to have been baptized at Conſtantinople, and refuſed the hand of the Greek emperor, John Zimiſces, in marriage. This accounts for the Ruſſians adopting the Greek religion, and part of the alphabet. Photius, the famous Greek patriarch, ſent prieſts to baptize the Ruſſians, who were for ſome time ſubject to the ſee of Conſtantinople; but the Greek patriarchs afterwards reſigned all their authority over the Ruſſian church; and its biſhops erected themſelves into patriarchs, who were in a manner independent of the civil power. It is certain, that till the year 1450, the princes of Ruſſia were but very little conſidered, being chiefly ſubjected by the Tartars. It was about this time that John, or Iwan Baſilides conquered the Tartars, and, among others, the duke of Great Novogorod; from whom he is ſaid to have carried 300 cart-loads of gold and ſilver. His proſperous reign of 40 years, gave a new aſpect to Ruſſia.

His grandſon the famous John Baſilowitz II. having cleared his country of the intruding Tartars, ſubdued the kingdoms of Kaſan and Aſtracan Tartary, in Aſia, and annexed them to the Ruſſian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of ſome of his fineſt provinces, particularly Livonia and Eſthonia, to throw themſelves under the protection of the Poles and Swedes. Before the time of this John II. the ſovereign of Ruſſia took the title of Welike Knez, "great prince," great lord, or great chief; which the Chriſtian nations afterwards rendered by that of great duke. The title of Tzar, or, as we call it, Czar, (an expreſſion which, in the Sclavonian language, ſignifies king) was added to that of the Ruſſian ſovereigns. Upon the death of John Baſilowitz, the Ruſſian ſucceſſion was filled up by a ſet of weak, cruel princes; and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris Godonow, according to Voltaire, whoſe information I prefer, as it ſeems to be the moſt authentic, aſſaſſinated Demetri, or Demetrius, the lawful heir, and uſurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius, pretending to be that prince who had eſcaped from his murderers; and with the aſſiſtance of the Poles, and a conſiderable party (which every tyrant has againſt him), he drove out the uſurper, and ſeized the crown himſelf. The impoſture was diſcovered as ſoon as he came to the ſovereignty, becauſe the people were not pleaſed with him, and he was murdered. Three others pretending to be Demetrius ſtarted up one after another.

Theſe impoſtures prove the deſpicable ſtate of ignorance in which the Ruſſians were immerged. The country became by turns a prey to the Poles and the Swedes; but was at length delivered by the good ſenſe of the boyars, impelled by their deſpair, ſo late as the year 1613. The independency of Ruſſia was then on the point of being extinguiſhed. Uladiſlaus, ſon of Sigiſmund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the tyranny of the Poles was ſuch, that it produced a general rebellion of the Ruſſians, who drove the Poles out of Moſcow, where they had for ſome time defended themſelves with unexampled courage. Philaretes, archbiſhop of Roſtow, whoſe wife was deſcended of the ancient ſovereigns of Ruſſia had been ſent ambaſſador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Ruſſian tyrants; and there was detained priſoner under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled againſt Uladiſlaus.

The

The boyars met in a body; and ſuch was their veneration for Philaretes and his wife, whom the tyrant had ſhut up in a nunnery, that they elected their ſon Michael Fædorowitz, of the houſe of Romanoff, a youth of 15 years of age, to be their ſovereign. The father being exchanged for ſome Poliſh priſoners, returned to Ruſſia, and being created patriarch by his ſon, he reigned in the young man's right with great prudence and ſucceſs. He defeated the attempts of the Poles to replace Uladiſlaus upon the throne, and likewiſe the claim of a brother of Guſtavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Poles upon Ruſſia occaſioned a war between thoſe two people, which gave Michael a kind of breathing time; and he made uſe of it for the benefit of his ſubjects. He reigned thirty-three years; and by his wiſdom, and the mildneſs of his character, he reſtored eaſe and tranquillity to his ſubjects. He encouraged them to induſtry, and gave them the example of very commendable behaviour in his own perſon. Before we take leave of Michael, it may be proper to mention the mode of the czar's nuptials, which could not be introduced into the miſcellaneous cuſtoms of their ſubjects, and which are as follow. His Czariſh majeſty's intention to marry being known, the moſt celebrated beauties of his dominions were ſent for to court, and there entertained. They were viſited by the czars, and the moſt magnificent nuptial preparations were made, before the happy lady was declared, by ſending her magnificent jewels and a wedding robe. The reſt of the candidates were then diſmiſſed to their ſeveral homes, with ſuitable preſents. The name of the lady's father who pleaſed Michael, was Streſchnen; and he was ploughing his own farm, when it was announced to him, that he was father-in-law to the czar.

Alexius ſucceeded his father Michael, and was married in the ſame manner. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolenſko, Kiow, and the Ukraine, but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. When the grand ſignior, Mahomet IV. haughtily demanded ſome poſſeſſions from him in the Ukraine, his anſwer was, "that he ſcorned to ſubmit to a Mahometan dog, and that his ſcymetar was as good as the grand ſignior's ſabre." He promoted agriculture; introduced into his empire arts and ſciences, of which he was himſelf a lover; publiſhed a code of laws, ſome of which are ſtill uſed in the adminiſtration of juſtice; and greatly improved his army by mending its diſcipline. This he effected chiefly by the help of ſtrangers, moſt of whom were Scotch. He ſubdued a chief of the Don Coſſacs, named Stenko Raſin, who endeavoured to make himſelf king of Aſtracan; and the rebel, with 12,000 of his adherents, was hanged on the high roads. He introduced linen and ſilk manufactures into his dominions: and inſtead of putting to death, or enſlaving his Lithuanian, Poliſh, and Tartar priſoners, he ſent them to people the banks of the Wolga and the Kama. Theodore ſucceeded his father Alexius in 1667. He reigned ſeven years, and having on his death-bed called his boyars round him, in the preſence of his brother and ſiſter Iwan and Sophia, and of Peter, who was afterwards ſo celebrated, and who was his half brother, he ſaid to them, "Hear my laſt "ſentiments: they are dictated by my love for the ſtate, and by my affec-"tion for my people. The bodily infirmities of Iwan, neceſſarily muſt af-"fect his mental faculties; he is incapable of ruling ſuch a dominion as "that of Ruſſia; he cannot take it amiſs if I recommend to you to ſet him "aſide, and let your approbation fall on Peter, who to a robuſt conſtitution "joins great ſtrength of mind, and marks of a ſuperior underſtanding." But this wiſe deſtination extremely offended the princeſs Sophia, who was a woman of great ambition, and who, after the death of Theodore, found means

to excite a horrible ſedition among the Strelitzes, who then formed the ſtanding army of Ruſſia. Their exceſſes ſurpaſſed all deſcription; but Sophia by her management, replaced her brother Iwan in his birthright; and exerciſed the government herſelf with the greateſt ſeverity and inhumanity; for all the Ruſſian grandees who were related to Peter, or whom ſhe ſuppoſed to favour him, were put to cruel deaths. The inſtances given by Voltaire of her barbarous adminiſtration, are ſhocking to humanity. At length, in 1682, the two princes, Iwan and Peter, were declared joint ſovereigns, and their ſiſter, their aſſociate co-regent. Her adminiſtration was bloody and tumultuous: nor durſt ſhe venture to check the fury of the Strelitzes, and other inſurgents. Finding this debility in her own perſon, ſhe intended to have married prince Baſil Galitzin, who is ſaid to have been a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and ſome learning. Being placed at the head of the army by Sophia, he marched into Crim Tartary; but Peter now was about ſeventeen years of age, and aſſerted his rights to the throne. Sophia and Iwan were then at Moſcow, and upon Peter's publiſhing aloud that a conſpiracy had been formed by his ſiſter to murder him, he was joined by the Strelitzes, who defeated or deſtroyed Sophia's party, and forced herſelf to retire to a monaſtery. Galitzin's life was ſpared, but his great eſtate was confiſcated, and the following curious ſentence was pronounced as his puniſhment, "Thou art commanded by the moſt clement czar, to repair to "Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of "thy days. His majeſty, out of his extreme goodneſs, allows thee three "pence per day for thy ſubſiſtence." This left Peter with no other competitor, in the year 1689, than the mild and eaſy Iwan, and upon his death, which happened in 1696, Peter reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his own future ſecurity, by the execution of above 3000 Strelitzes.

Peter, though he had been but very indifferently educated, through the jealouſy of his ſiſter, aſſociated himſelf with the Germans and Dutch; with the former for the ſake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their ſkill in navigation, which he practiſed himſelf. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite Le Fort, a Piedmonteſe; and general Gordon, a Scotchman, diſciplined the czar's own regiment, conſiſting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raiſed a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German exerciſe of arms, with a view of employing them in curbing the inſolence of the Strelitzes. Peter, after this, began his travels; leaving his military affairs in the hands of Gordon. He ſet out as an attendant upon his own ambaſſadors; and his adventures in Holland and England, and other courts, are too numerous, and too well known to be inſerted here. By working as a common ſhip-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himſelf in ſhip-building and navigation; and through the excellent diſcipline he introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only over-awed or cruſhed all civil inſurrections, but all his enemies on this ſide of Aſia; and at laſt he even exterminated, excepting two feeble regiments, the whole body of the Strelitzes. He roſe gradually through every rank and ſervice both by ſea and land; and the many defeats which he received, eſpecially that from Charles XII. at Narva, ſeemed only to enlarge his ambition, and extend his ideas. The battles he loſt rendered him a conqueror upon the whole, by adding experience to his courage: and the generous friendſhip he ſhewed to Auguſtus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank diſtinct from merit; and he at laſt married Catharine, a young

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Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swediſh ſoldier; becauſe, after a long cohabitation, he found her poſſeſſed of a ſoul formed to execute his plans, and to aſſiſt his councils. Catharine was ſo much a ſtranger to her own country, that her huſband afterwards diſcovered her brother, who ſerved as a common ſoldier in his armies. But military and naval triumphs which ſucceeded one another after the battle of Pultowa in 1709, with Charles XII. were not the chief glory of Peter's reign. He applied himſelf with equal aſſiduity, as already mentioned, to the cultivation of commerce, arts, and ſciences; and, upon the whole, he made ſuch acquiſitions of dominion, even in Europe itſelf, that he may be ſaid, at the time of his death, which happened in 1725, to have been the moſt powerful prince of his age, but more feared than beloved by his ſubjects.

Peter the Great was unfortunate in his eldeſt ſon, who was called the czarowitz, and who, marrying without his conſent, entered, as his father alledged, into ſome dangerous practices againſt his perſon and government, for which he was tried and condemned to death. Under a ſovereign ſo deſpotic as Peter was, we can ſay nothing as to the juſtice of the charge. It was undoubtedly his will, that the young prince ſhould be found guilty; and the very reading of the ſentence appears to have been fatal to him. It is ſaid, that as ſoon as ſentence of death was pronounced upon the prince, wherein were the following words, "The divine, eccleſiaſtical, civil, and military law "condemns to death, without mercy, all thoſe whoſe attempts againſt their "father and their ſovereign are manifeſt," he fell into the moſt violent convulſions, from which it was with great difficulty that he regained a little interval of ſenſe, during which he deſired his father would come to ſee him, when he aſked his pardon and ſoon after died. After this event Peter ordered his wife Catharine to be crowned, with the ſame magnificent ceremonies as if ſhe had been a Greek empreſs, and to be recogniſed as his ſucceſſor; which ſhe accordingly was, and mounted the Ruſſian throne upon the deceaſe of her huſband. She died, after a glorious reign, in 1727, and was ſucceeded by Peter II. a minor, ſon to the czarowitz. Many domeſtic revolutions happened in Ruſſia during the ſhort reign of this prince; but none was more remarkable than the diſgrace and exile of prince Menzikoff, the favourite general in the two late reigns, and eſteemed the richeſt ſubject in Europe. Peter died of the ſmall pox, in 1730.

Notwithſtanding the deſpotiſm of Peter and his wife, the Ruſſian ſenate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II. ventured to ſet aſide the order of ſucceſſion which they had eſtabliſhed. The male iſſue of Peter was now extinguiſhed; and the duke of Holſtein, ſon to his eldeſt daughter, was, by the deſtination of the late empreſs, entitled to the crown: but the Ruſſians, for political reaſons, filled their throne with Anne, ducheſs of Courland, ſecond daughter to Iwan, Peter's eldeſt brother; though her eldeſt ſiſter the ducheſs of Mecklenburgh was alive. Her reign was extremely proſperous; and though ſhe accepted the crown under limitations that ſome thought derogatory to her dignity, yet ſhe broke them all, aſſerted the prerogative of her anceſtors, and puniſhed the aſpiring Dologorucki family, who had impoſed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is ſaid, that they themſelves might govern. She raiſed her favourite, Biron, to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give way to many ſevere executions on his account. Upon her death in 1740, John, the ſon of her niece the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, by Anothony Ulric of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, was, by her will, entitled to the ſucceſſion; but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be adminiſtrator of the empire during his nonage. This deſtination was diſagreeable to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh and her huſband, and unpopular

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among the Ruſſians. Count Munich was employed by the princeſs of Mecklenburgh to arreſt Biron; who was tried, and condemned to die, but was ſent in exile to Siberia.

The adminiſtration of the princeſs Anne of Mecklenburgh and her huſband was, upon many accounts, but particularly that of her German connections, diſagreeable, not only to the Ruſſians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithſtanding a proſperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princeſs Elizabeth, daughter, by Catharine, to Peter the Great, formed ſuch a party, that in one night's time ſhe was declared and proclaimed empreſs of the Ruſſians; and the princeſs of Mecklenburgh, her huſband, and ſon, were made priſoners.

Elizabeth's reign may be ſaid to have been more glorious than that of any of her predeceſſors, her father excepted. She aboliſhed capital puniſhments; and introduced into all civil and military proceedings a moderation, till her time, unknown in Ruſſia: but at the ſame time ſhe puniſhed counts Munich and Oſterman, who had the chief management of affairs during the late adminiſtration, with exile. She made peace with Sweden; and ſettled, as we have already ſeen, the ſucceſſion to that crown, as well as to her own dominions, upon the moſt equitable foundation. Having glorioufly finiſhed a war, which had been ſtirred up againſt her, with Sweden, ſhe replaced the natural order of ſucceſſion in her own family, by declaring the duke of Holſtein-Gottorp, who was deſcended from her eldeſt ſiſter, to be her heir. She gave him the title of grand-duke of Ruſſia; and ſoon after her acceſſion to the throne, ſhe called him to her court; where he renounced the ſucceſſion of the crown of Sweden, which undoubtedly belonged to him, embraced the Greek religion, and married a princeſs of Anhalt-Zerbſt, by whom he had a ſon, who at her deceaſe, aſcended the throne of Ruſſia.

Few princes had a more uninterrupted career of glory than Elizabeth. She was completely victorious over the Swedes. Her alliance was courted by Great Britain, at the expence of a large ſubſidy; but many political, and ſome private reaſons, it is ſaid, determined her to take part with the houſe of Auſtria againſt the king of Pruſſia in 1756. Her arms alone gave a turn to the ſucceſs of the war, which was in diſfavour of Pruſſia, notwithſtanding that monarch's amazing abilities both in the field and cabinet. Her conqueſt was ſuch as portended the entire deſtruction of the Pruſſian power, which was, perhaps, ſaved only by her critical death, on January 5, 1767.

Elizabeth was ſucceeded by Peter III. grand prince of Ruſſia, and duke of Holſtein; a prince whoſe conduct has been variouſly repreſented. He mounted the throne poſſeſſed of an enthuſiaſtic admiration of his Pruſſian majeſty's virtues; to whom he gave peace, and whoſe principles and practices he ſeems to have adopted as the directories of his future reign. He might have ſurmounted the effects even of thoſe peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Ruſſia; but it is ſaid that he aimed at reformation in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durſt not attempt; and that he even ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. It is alſo alledged, that he had formed a reſolution to deſtroy both his empreſs and her ſon, though they had been declared heirs to the imperial throne by the ſame authority which had placed the crown upon his head: and even the advocates of Peter the Third acknowledge, that he had reſolved to ſhut up his wife and ſon in a convent, to place his miſtreſs upon the throne, and to change the order of ſucceſſion. However, the execution of his deſigns was prevented by an almoſt general conſpiracy being formed againſt him, in which the empreſs took a very active part; and this unfortunate prince ſcarcely knew an interval between the

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loſs of his crown and his life, of which he was deprived while under an ignominious confinement, in July 1762. That his conduct with regard to Pruſſia was not the ſole cauſe of his depoſition ſeems pretty evident from the meaſures of his ſucceſſor, who was his own wife, and reigned by he title of Catharine II. That princeſs, with regard to Pruſſia, trode in her huſband's ſteps, and followed the plan he chalked out. One of the moſt remarkable domeſtic occurrences of her reign is the death of prince Iwan, ſon to the princeſs of Mecklenburgh.

This young prince, as ſoon as he came into the world, was deſigned, though unjuſtly and illegally, to wear the imperial crown of Ruſſia, after the death of his great aunt, the empreſs Anna Iwanawno; but by the advancement of the empreſs Elizabeth, he was condemned to lead an obſcure life in the caſtle of Schluſſelbourg, under a ſtrong guard, who had particular orders, that if any perſon, or any armed force, was employed in attempting to deliver him, they ſhould kill him immediately. He lived quietly in his priſon, when the empreſs Catherine II. mounted the throne; and as the revolution which depoſed her huſband Peter III. had occaſioned a ſtrong ferment in the minds of the people, Catharine was apprehenſive that ſome attempts might be made in favour of Iwan; ſhe therefore doubled the guards of this unhappy prince, and particularly entruſted him to the care of two officers, who were devoted to her intereſt. However, a lieutenant of infantry, who was born in the Ukraine, undertook, or at leaſt pretended ſo, to deliver Iwan by force of arms, from the fortreſs of Schluſſelbourg; and under this pretence the prince was put to death. The lieutenant who attempted to deliver him was arreſted, and afterwards beheaded: but, notwithſtanding this, it has been repreſented that he was a mere tool of the court, though he ſuffered for executing the inſtructions that he had received.

While this event excited the attention of the Ruſſian nation, the flames of civil war broke out with great violence in Poland, which has generally been the caſe when the throne was vacant. And as the internal tranquillity of Poland is a capital object with Ruſſia, the empreſs Catharine ſent a body of troops into Poland, and by her influence count Poniatowſki was raiſed to the throne. She alſo interpoſed, in order to ſecure the rights which the treaty of Oliva had given to the Greek and proteſtant ſubjects of Poland. But the umbrage which her imperial majeſty's armies gave to the Roman Catholic Poles, by their reſidence in Poland, increaſed the rage of civil war in that country, and produced confederacies againſt all that had been done during that late election, which rendered Poland a ſcene of blood and confuſion. The conduct of Ruſſia with regard to Poland gave ſo much offence to the Ottoman court, that the Grand Signior ſent Obreſkoff, the Ruſſian miniſter, to the priſon of the ſeven towers, declared war againſt Ruſſia, and marched a very numerous army to the confines of Ruſſia and Poland. Hoſtilities ſoon commenced between theſe rival and mighty empires. In the months of February and March 1769, Crim Gueray, Khan of the Tartars, at the head of a great body of Tartars, ſupported by 10,000 ſpahis, having broken the Ruſſian lines of communication, penetrated into the province of New Servia, where he committed great ravages, burning many towns and villages, and carrying off ſome thouſand families captive. In April following the Grand Vizir, at the head of a great army, began his march from Conſtantinople, and proceeded towards the Danube. In the mean time prince Gallitzin, who commanded the Ruſſian army on the bank of the Neiſter, thought this a proper time to attempt ſomething deciſive, before the arrival of the great Turkiſh force in that quarter. Having accor-

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dingly croſſed the Neiſter with his whole army, he advanced to Choczim, where he encamped in ſight of a body of 30,000 Turks, commanded by Caramar Pacha, and entrenched under the cannon of the town. The prince having made the neceſſary diſpoſitions, attacked the Turks in their intrenchments early in the morning of the 30th of April, and notwithſtanding an obſtinate defence, and a dreadful fire from the fortreſs, at length beat them out of their trenches. The Turks endeavoured to cover their retreat, by detaching a large body of cavalry to attack the right wing of the Ruſſian army; but they had ſuch a warm reception from the artillery, that they ſoon retired in great diſorder. General Stoffeln and prince Dolgorucki were then ordered to purſue the fugitives, at the head of eight battalions; which they did ſo effectually, that they followed them into the ſuburbs of Choczim, and their purſuit was at length only ſtopped by the palliſadoes of the fortreſs.

On the 13th of July, a very obſtinate battle was fought between a conſiderable Turkiſh army, and the Ruſſians under prince Gallitzin, in the neighbourhood of Choczim, in which the Turks were defeated. The Ruſſians immediately inveſted Choczim; but the garriſon being numerous, made frequent ſallies, and received great reinforcements from the grand vizir's camp, who was now conſiderably advanced on this ſide of the Danube. Several actions enſued, and prince Gallitzin was at length obliged to retreat from Choczim, and again to repaſs the Neiſter. It was computed that the ſiege of Choczim, and the actions conſequent to it, coſt the Ruſſians above 20,000 men.

In the management of this war, the grand vizir had acted with a degree of prudence, which it has been thought would have proved fatal to the deſigns of the Ruſſians, if the ſame conduct had been afterwards purſued. But the army of the vizir was extremely licentious, and his caution gave offence to the Janizaries; ſo that in conſequence of their clamours, and the weakneſs of the councils that prevailed in the ſeraglio, he at length became a ſacrifice, and Moldovani Ali Pacha, a man of more courage than conduct, was appointed his ſucceſſor.

During theſe tranſactions, general Romantzow committed great devaſtations upon the Turks in the borders of Bender and Oczakow, where he plundered and burnt ſeveral towns and villages, defeated a Turkiſh detachment, and carried off a great booty of cattle. The Tartars alſo committed great ravages in Poland, where they almoſt totally deſtroyed the palatinate of Braklaw, beſides doing much miſchief in other places. In the beginning of September, the Ruſſian army was again poſted on the banks of the Neiſter, and effectually defended the paſſage of that river againſt the Turks, whoſe whole army, under the command of the new vizir, was arrived on the oppoſite ſhore. Having laid three bridges over the Neiſter, the Turkiſh army, without any pretence of ſtratagem or deception, began to paſs the river in the face of the enemy. Prince Gallitzin having perceived this motion early in the morning of the 9th of September, immediately attacked thoſe troops that had croſſed the river in the night, who conſequently could neither chooſe their ground, nor have time to extend or form themſelves properly where they were. Notwithſtanding theſe extreme diſadvantages, the engagement, was very ſevere, and continued from ſeven in the morning till noon. The Turks fought with great obſtinacy; but they were at length totally defeated, and obliged to repaſs the river with great loſs, and in the utmoſt diſorder and confuſion. It was computed, that about 60,000 Turks croſſed the river before and during the time of the engagement. Prince Gallitzin

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charged at the head of five columns of infantry, with fixed bayonets, who deſtroyed the flower of the Turkiſh cavalry. It is ſaid, that the loſs of the Turks, in this battle, amounted to 7000 men killed upon the ſpot, beſides wounded and priſoners, and a great number who were drowned. Though the ill conduct of the vizir had greatly contributed to this capital misfortune, yet this conſideration did not prevent him from engaging in another operation of the ſame nature. He now laid but one bridge over the river, which he had the precaution to cover with large batteries of cannon, and prepared to paſs the whole army over. Accordingly, on the 17th of September, eight thouſand Janizaries and four thouſand regular cavalry, the flower of the whole Ottoman army, paſſed over with a large train of artillery, and the reſt of the army were in motion to follow, when a ſudden and extraordinary ſwell of the waters of the Neiſter carried away and totally deſtroyed the bridge. The Ruſſians loſt no time in making uſe of this great and unexpected advantage. A moſt deſperate engagement enſued, in which the ſlaughter of the Turks was prodigious. Not only the field of battle, but the river over which ſome few hundreds of Turks made their eſcape by ſwimming was for ſeveral miles covered with dead bodies. The Ruſſians took 64 pieces of cannon, and above 150 colours and horſe-tails. The Turks immediately broke up their camp, and abandoned the ſtrong fortreſs of Choczim, with all its ſtores and numerous artillery, and retired tumultuouſly towards the Danube. They were much exaſperated at the ill conduct of their commander the vizir; and it was computed that the Turks loſt 28,000 of the beſt and braveſt of their troops, within little more than a fortnight; and that 48,000 more abandoned the army, and totally deſerted, in the tumultuous retreat to the Danube. Prince Gallitzin placed a garriſon of four regiments in the fortreſs of Choczim, and ſoon after reſigned the command of the army to general count Romanzow, and returned to Peterſburgh, covered with laurels.

The Ruſſians continued to carry on the war with ſucceſs; they over-ran the great province of Moldavia, and general Elmpt took poſſeſſion of the capital city of Jaſſy without oppoſition. And as the Greek natives of this province had always ſecretly favoured the Ruſſians, they now took this opportunity of their ſucceſs, and the abſence of the Turks, to declare themſelves openly. The Greek inhabitants of Moldavia, and afterwards thoſe of Wallachia, acknowledged the empreſs of Ruſſia their ſovereign, and took oaths of fidelity to her. On the 18th of July, 1770, general Romanzow defeated a Turkiſh army, near the river Larga: the Turks are ſaid to have amounted to 80,000 men, and were commanded by the khan of the Crimea. But on the ſecond of Auguſt, the ſame Ruſſian general obtained a ſtill greater victory over another army of the Turks, commanded by a new grand vizir. This army was very numerous, but was totally defeated. It is ſaid that above 7000 Turks were killed in the field of battle, and that the roads to the Danube were covered with dead bodies; a vaſt quantity of ammunition, 143 pieces of braſs cannon, and ſome thouſand carriages loaded with proviſions, fell into the hands of the Ruſſians.

But it was not only by land that the Ruſſians carried on the war ſucceſsfully againſt the Turks. The empreſs ſent a conſiderable fleet of men of war, Ruſſian built, into the Mediterranean, to act againſt the Turks on that ſide. And, by means of this fleet, under count Orlop, the Ruſſians ſpread ruin and deſolation through the open iſlands of the Archipelago, and the neighbouring defenceleſs coaſts of Greece and Aſia; the particulars of which will appear in the hiſtory of Turkey. It is obſervable, that in this attempt

of the Ruſſians to act as a maritime power they were greatly aſſiſted by England; but whether in this the Engliſh government was influenced by principles of ſound policy, may very reaſonably be queſtioned.

The war between the Ruſſians and the Turks ſtill continued to be carried on by land as well as by ſea, to the advantage of the former; but at length ſome attempts were made to negociate a peace: it was, however, a long time before matters could be accommodated between theſe great contending powers; hoſtilities were repeatedly ſuſpended, and afterwards renewed; but at laſt a peace was concluded, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, highly honourable and beneficial to the Ruſſians, by which they obtained the liberty of a free navigation over the Black Sea, and a free trade with all the parts of the Ottoman empire.

Before the concluſion of the war with the Turks, a rebellion broke out in Ruſſia, which gave much alarm to the court of Peterſburgh. A Coſſac, whoſe name was Pugatſcheff, aſſumed the name and character of the late unfortunate emperor Peter the Third. He appeared in the kingdom of Kaſan, and pretended that he made his eſcape through an extraordinary interpoſition of Providence, from the murderers who were employed to aſſaſſinate him; and that the report of his death was only a fiction invented by the court. There is ſaid to have been a ſtriking reſemblance in his perſon to that of the late emperor, which induced him to engage in this enterprize. As he poſſeſſed abilities and addreſs, his followers ſoon became very numerous; and he at length found himſelf ſo powerful, his followers being armed and provided with artillery, that he ſtood ſeveral engagements with able Ruſſian generals, at the head of large bodies of troops, and committed great ravages in the country. But being at laſt totally defeated, and taken priſoner, he was brought to Moſcow in an iron cage, and there beheaded, on the 21ſt of January, 1775.

The peace of 1774 was then indiſpenſably neceſſary to the immediate preſervation of the Turkiſh empire, but within ſo ſmall a ſpace of time as 5 years a new war was juſt upon the point of breaking out between the two empires; and was only prevented by a new treaty of pacification, which took place on the 21ſt of March, 1779. But the great ſource of diſcord was ſtill left open. The pretended independency of the Crimea afforded ſuch an opening to Ruſſia into the very heart of the Turkiſh empire, and ſuch opportunities of interference, that it was ſcarcely poſſible that any laſting tranquillity could ſubſiſt between the two empires. A claim made and inſiſted on by Ruſſia, of eſtabliſhing conſuls in the three provinces of Moldavia, Wallachia, and Beſſarabia, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long diſputes, the Turkiſh miniſters, more from a ſenſe of the diſability of the ſtate for war, than from pacific diſpoſitions, found it neceſſary, towards the cloſe of the year 1781, to give up the point of debate with reſpect to the conſuls. This conceſſion, however mortifying, produced but a ſhort-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his determination of ſupporting all the claims of Ruſſia as well as his own, all ſides prepared for the moſt determined hoſtility, and the preparations were immenſe on all. The year 1783 accordingly exhibited the moſt formidable apparatus of war on the northern and eaſtern borders of Europe. However, in the midſt of all theſe appearances of war, negociations for a peace were continually carried on at Conſtantinople, which was at laſt ſigned January 9th, 1784.

By this treaty, the empreſs retained the ſovereignty of the Krimea, of the iſle of Taman, and a great part of the Kuban; and the Turks acknowledged

ledged the right which ſhe pretended inconteſtibly to have to the dominion of the Euxine, and to the paſſage of the Dardanelles. Thus Catharine acquired, without the neceſſity of going to war, a vaſt territory, and 1,500,000 new ſubjects.

The empreſs reſtored their antient names to the Krimea and to the Kuban. The former of theſe countries was called Tavrida, and the other Caucaſus.

Though Catharine was adding to her vaſt dominions in every quarter; though ſhe appropriated to herſelf, in peace or war, all the territory on which ſhe could ſeize with impunity, ſhe was not the leſs jealous of every acceſſion of power to her rivals. She had long been particularly uneaſy at the increaſing fame of Frederic II. and the preponderance he had acquired in Europe. From the firſt partition of Poland, Frederic had daily been making encroachments on the privileges of the city of Dantzick, and preſſed it to ſuch a degree, that it was almoſt obliged to ſurrender itſelf to him, or relinquiſh its commerce. Catharine was the more exaſperated at ſeeing Dantzick, fall under the power of the Pruſſians, as the court of Ruſſia had long ſince itſelf formed the project of taking poſſeſſion of that town, and had only been induced to lay it aſide by the private remonſtrances that were made by the government of France to the chancellor Vorontzoff.

Another corner of Europe was in the mean time diſturbed by differences of an oppoſite nature. Joſeph II. had formed the deſign of opening the Scheldt. To this an oppoſition was made by the Dutch, who uſed every effort to engage Frederic to ſupport by force of arms their covetous pretenſions. Catharine, on this occaſion, declared that ſhe was reſolved to ſupport the rights of the emperor of Germany. Upon this, the Dutch, whoſe cannon had already inſulted the auſtrian flag, dreading an excluſion from the ports of the Baltic, adopted the wiſeſt method, of negotiating inſtead of fighting.

Frederic II. who regarded the alliance between Auſtria and Ruſſia as highly dangerous to Pruſſia, and even to all Germany, invited the electors and the other princes of the empire to unite for the defence of the germanic conſtitution. The king of Great Britain, as elector of Hanover, was one of the firſt who entered into the confederacy: a ſtep which cauſed great diſpleaſure both to the empreſs and to Potemkin. The treaty was ſigned at Berlin the 23d of July 1785.

In the year 1785 Cathrine ſent ſeveral learned perſons, ſome towards Caucaſus, others to the frontiers of China, for the purpoſe of diſcovering, exploring, and examining, the moſt remote provinces, and the yet unknown parts of that immenſe empire. The difficulties and perils to which this expedition by land was ſuppoſed liable, through the trackleſs deſarts which were to be explored, the inhoſpitality of the climates, and the barbarity of the nations that were to be encountered, with the numberleſs obſtacles of various ſorts that were to be ſurmounted, rendered the proſpect much more terrible than it had appeared to our circumnavigators in any of their late great voyages of diſcovery. The boldeſt and moſt enterpriſing perſons of all nations were accordingly ſought out for this undertaking, and high rewards and promiſes held out as an encouragement to their zeal and perſeverance.

The only fruit of their diſcoveries which came to the knowledge of the public was that of a ſmall fugitive colony of ſtrangers and chriſtians, whom they found ſhut up from the world in a moſt ſequeſtered part of the wilds of Caucaſus; and who, in the language of the country, are called Tſchetſhes. Theſe poor people are ſaid to lead lives of the moſt exemplary piety, and to

exhibit a primæval ſimplicity of manners. They are totally ignorant of their origin, and farther than knowing that they are ſtrangers, as they are likewiſe conſidered by the ſcattered neighbouring nations. From an affinity in their language, and ſome other circumſtances, they are ſuppoſed to be deſcended from a colony of Bohemians, who flying from the religious perſecutions in their own country towards the cloſe of the fifteenth century, found at length a refuge from oppreſſion, in the diſtance from the reſt of mankind with theſe remote deſarts afforded.

The empreſs had publicly announced, in the beginning of the year of which we are treating, her intention of making a magnificent progreſs to Kerſon and the Krimea, in order to her being crowned ſovereign of the new conqueſts. This deſign was apparently conceived at firſt in the moſt ſplendid ideas of eaſtern magnificence and grandeur. It was given out, that Catharine was to be crowned queen of Taurida, and to be declared protectreſs of all the nations of Tartars. That, in order to render the ſolemnization of this great act the more auguſt, awful, and more extenſively ſtriking, ſhe was to be attended by the metropolitan, by ſix other archbiſhops, and by a great body of the clergy; which with the court and its attendants, would have formed a prodigious train. Triumphal arches were to be erected, and enriched with ſculptures, devices, and inſcriptions, on the approaches to Kerſon, and in the town. The empreſs was to be drawn on the latter part of the way in a triumphal car, with a wreath of laurel on her head; and the concourſe of people was expected to be ſo great, that the multitudes which attend the pilgrimages to Mecca would no longer be regarded as a wonder. She was beſides to be eſcorted by a formidable army, to conſiſt of no leſs than ſix regiments of cavalry, and 22 of infantry. The magnificence of the proceſſion, whether by land or water, was to be ſuited to that of the grand concluding ceremonial. A fleet of gallies was built on the Dnieper; and beſides their embelliſhments and decorations, were to be furniſhed with all the accommodations neceſſary for a court, or uſually found in a great city. It ſeemed as if coſt was a matter not to be thought of in theſe preparations; and it is ſcarcely credible, though poſitively aſſerted, that the prodigious ſum of 7,000,000 of rubles had been originally dedicated to the purpoſe only of thoſe preſents which were to be diſtributed at the coronation.

All was in movement for completing the preparations, when the young prince fell ſick of the meaſles, and he was obliged to be left at Peterſburgh. This circumſtance, together with the news of ſome ſkirmiſhes, and even more ſerious engagments that had happened in the Krim between the Ruſſians and the Tartars, occaſioned a great alteration in the ſcheme of the progreſs to Kerſon. It was now greatly narrowed in the deſign, was diſincumbered of much of its intended ſuperb magnificence; the great object of the coronation and of the aſſumption of new titles was entirely given up; the formidable military force that was expected did not attend: the proceſſion did not take place at the time propoſed; and the only end obtained, ſaving the conferences held with the king of Poland and the emperor, was nothing more than the empreſs's ſhewing herſelf to her new ſubjects, and appearing to take ſome ſort of formal poſſeſſion of Kerſon and the Krimea.

Soon after the Empreſs returned to her capital, war, was declared againſt her by the Turks; previous to this ſtep a memorial had been delivered to the Ruſſian miniſter, ſtating that the Ruſſian conſul in Moldavia had employed all ſorts of means to diſturb the peace of the two empires. That the troubles which had for two years been raging in Georgia were the effect of the protection granted by the empreſs to prince Heraclius, to theſe and other

other cauſes of complaint that were enumerated the Sublime Port demanded ſuitable redreſs. Upon the firſt meeting of the divan after the delivery of this memorial, war was declared in Conſtantinople, and the Ruſſian ambaſſador ſhut up in the caſtle of ſeven towers.

There is little doubt but that the Turks were provoked to this ſtep, by the conduct of Catherine, who never loſt ſight of her darling object the diſmemberment of the Turkiſh empire, and the placing her Grandſon Conſtantine on the throne of the antient Greek emperors, and who may therefore be conſidered as the aggreſſor in this war; ſhe was joined by the emperor of Germany in declaring war againſt the Porte. The Turks unawed by this formidable combination began to make the moſt vigorous preparations for war. The operations of the Ruſſian forces were chiefly directed againſt Oczakow and Iſmael the former of theſe places ſeemed to be rendered impregnable by fortifications of uncommon ſtrength, an abundant ſupply of ammunition, a numerious garriſon and the ſeverity of the ſeaſon; it was however taken by aſſault, and carnage and deſolation ſpread themſelves on every ſide; Iſmael after a vigorous reſiſtance ſhared the ſame fate; in the aſſault the Ruſſians were twice repulſed with great loſs, but at laſt they forced their way into the town; what followed was ſuch a ſcene of horrible cruelty as will be remembered to the everlaſting diſgrace of the Ruſſian name; the whole garriſon and inhabitants amounting to upwards of 30,000 were put to the ſword without mercy.

During the progreſs of theſe hoſtilities the empreſs found herſelf ſuddenly involved in a new and unexpected war. Sweden had the greateſt cauſes of reſentment againſt Ruſſia for paſt injury and loſs, at the ſame time that ſhe had every thing to dread from her preſent overgrown power and boundleſs ambition, which was as little qualified in the wanton diſplay, as it was ungoverned in the actual exertion. Ruſſia has conſtantly found means to maintain a ſtrong and numerous party in Sweden. All theſe cauſes operating together, induced Guſtavus the Third to meditate a project of hoſtilities againſt Ruſſia, which were commenced in Finland, a few days after the king's arrival in that province. But the principal action of the campaign was the naval battle off Hoogland, in the gulph of Finland. The forces were nearly equal. The Ruſſian fleet, commanded by admiral Greig, conſiſted of ſeventeen ſhips of the line, and the Swediſh, under the command of the duke of Sudermania, the king's brother, conſiſted of fifteen of an inferior weight of metal, but reinforced by five frigates, one of forty-four, and the reſt of forty guns each, which occaſionally ranged themſelves in order of battle. The Ruſſians poſſeſſed upon the whole a ſuperiority of 294 pieces of cannon; while that in the weight of metal was perhaps of greater moment. The action did not commence till five o'clock in the afternoon, and in two hours ſo many ſhips were diſabled on both ſides, that they were mutually obliged to lie by and refit, in order to prepare for a renewal. At eight o'clock the battle was renewed with apparently a freſh acceſſion of rage on both ſides. Nothing could exceed its dreadful violence or the fury and determined obſtinacy with which it was maintained. The darkneſs was ſo great, that the knowledge of each ſhip was in a great meaſure confined to her own ſphere of action; ſo that ignorant and heedleſs of what was paſſing elſewhere, ſhe fought as if all depended upon herſelf individually, and as if victory or deſtruction were the only alternatives. The victory, as is uſually the caſe in actions not apparently and abſolutely deciſive, was claimed by both fleets, as a flag-ſhip had been taken on either ſide.

Another

Another battle at Schwenko-ſund between the Ruſſian fleet under the command of the prince of Naſſau in which the latter, was compleately beat-ten with the loſs of half his fleet and upwards of 10,000 men, accelerated a peace. Guſtavus III. by this time ſaw the imprudence of his conduct, and no longer indulged the expectation, that the war which he had declared againſt the Ruſſians could be attended with any great ſucceſs, and on the 14th of Auguſt 1790, a convention for a peace was ſigned between the courts of Ruſſia and Sweden, and was ratified in ſix days after.

England and Pruſſia have, after a long and expenſive armed negociation; at length aſſented to the demand of the empreſs, which was ſtrengthened by the interference of Spain and Denmark, that Oczakow, and the territory between the rivers Bog and Nieſter, ſhall in full ſovereignty belong to Ruſſia; that the river Nieſter ſhall for the future determine the frontiers of Ruſſia and the Porte; that the two powers may erect on the ſhores of that river what fortreſſes they think proper: and Ruſſia engages to grant a free navigation on the river Nieſter. This was concluded on the 11th of Auguſt, 1791. Thus did the Porte enter into a war, for the purpoſe of regaining the Crimea, and after reducing the Ottoman empire to extreme weakneſs and internal ſymptoms of ruin, irretrievable by a government in a regular progreſs of deterioration, loſt an important territory, and left the exiſtence of the empire at the mercy of another Ruſſian war.

The final treaty with the Turks was concluded at Jaſſy, the 9th of January, 1792. It has been calculated that in this war Auſtria loſt 130,000 ſoldiers, and expended three hundred millions of florins.—Ruſſia loſt 200,000 men, and expended two hundred millions of rubles.—The Turks loſt 330,000 men, and expended two hundred and fifty millions of piaſtres. Sweden had expended ſeventy millions of rix-dollars, and loſt nine ſhips of the line, four frigates, and ſeveral ſmaller veſſels of war. After the peace the empreſs adopted ſuch meaſures as tended to render her conqueſts of importance to the empire. At the ſame time ſhe was not negligent of her ſhare in European politics. Catharine not ſatisfied with what ſhe had acquired by uſurpations, by treaties and alliances, and being now enured to conqueſt turned her arms againſt Perſia; and ſhe ſtill flattered herſelf with the full accompliſhment of her darling project, of driving the Ottomans out of Europe and of reigning in Conſtantinople

In that caſe the vaſt empire of Catharine would have had for its frontiers, the Thracian Boſphorus to the ſouth, the gulf of Bothnia to the north, the Viſtula to the weſt, and the ſea of Japan to the eaſt. But death deceived her hopes. On the morning of the 9th of November, ſhe was in good ſpirits, and took her coffee as uſual. Some time after this ſhe retired to her cloſet; where, after remaining a full half hour, the women who waited on her, not ſeeing her return, began to be alarmed; and, on entering the outer room in which it was, they found her ſtretched on the parquet with her feet againſt the door, and ſpeechleſs. Upon this, a meſſenger was diſpatched to Dr. John Rogerſon, her majeſty's chief phyſician, who, judging it to be a fit of apoplexy, ordered her twice to be let blood, on which the empreſs at firſt appeared to be ſomewhat relieved; but ſhe was unable to utter a ſingle word, and at ten o'clock in the evening of the following day, ſhe expired.

The grand duke was at hit country palace of Gatſhina, to which place an officer was ſent off to apprize him of the danger of his mother. He repair-

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ed to Peterſburgh, and at the inſtant when ſhe ceaſed to breathe, was proclaimed emperor by the name of Paul I.

Catharine II. notwithſtanding the very unfavourable circumſtances which attended her taking poſſeſſion of the government of that empire, from the commencement of her reign, filled her high ſtation with diſtinguiſhed reputation and ability. She encouraged learning and the arts, and endeavoured greatly to extend the commerce of her ſubjects, though the extreme deſpotiſm of the Ruſſian government is a great impediment to the progreſs of the arts and ſciences, and to the real proſperity of the empire. Her imperial majeſty has, however, effected many beneficial and important regulations in the interior police of her vaſt empire, and particularly in the courts of juſtice. One of theſe is the abolition of the uſe of torture; and ſhe has alſo adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of priſons. The ſpirit of toleration that animated the whole of Catharine's adminiſtration, was a very remarkable and almoſt ſingular phænomenon in a deſpotic government. Notwithſtanding all oppoſition, the empreſs was true to the reſolution ſhe formed at the commencement of her reign; and, from that moment to the day of her death, not one inſtance occurred of a human being ſuffering, in any reſpect whatever, on account of his religious opinions.

Tho' ſhe gave little aſſiſtance to the coalition formed againſt France, other than unavailing promiſes, ſhe took a great intereſt in the revolution in that kingdom, apprehenſive leſt the principles upon which it was effected might find their way into Ruſſia, and there occaſion ſome combuſtion ſubverſive of the throne. To all the French who ſignified that they were attached to their old form of government, ſhe gave a welcome reception; while ſhe ſeverely proſcribed the reſt. But Poland and the efforts which that kingdom made in the cauſe of liberty, gave her the greateſt apprehenſions, as will be briefly narrated in our account of that country.

In contemplating the bright ſide of her character the mind is ſomewhat relieved, from the horrid ſcenes of barbarity, carnage, deſolation, and miſery occaſioned by her cruel and unrelenting ambition.

Paul I. by whom ſhe is ſucceeded has hitherto evinced in his conduct none of his mother's diſpoſitions but her clemency and magnificence. He has hitherto remained a ſpectator of the troubles that have afflicted Europe, but of late eſpecially ſince the ſplendid victory of admiral Nelſon over the French fleet at the mouth of the Nile, he ſeems diſpoſed to join the coalition, which is ſaid to be forming for the purpoſe of curbing the wild and fanatical ambition of the French and giving peace to Europe.

Paul I. preſent emperor of Ruſſia has been twice married, and by his preſent ducheſs, the princeſs of Wirtemberg, has iſſue:

1. Alexander, born Dec. 23, 1777.
2. Conſtantine, born May 8, 1779.
3. Alexander, Powlowna, born in Aug. 1783.
4. Helena, born Dec. 24, 1784.
5. A princeſs, born in March, 1786.
6. Another princeſs, born in May, 1788.
7. Another princeſs, born in 1792.

SCOTLAND AND ITS ADJACENT ISLES.

I Shall, according to the general plan I have laid down, treat of the Iſlands belonging to Scotland, before I proceed to the deſcription of that ancient kingdom; and, to avoid prolixity, I ſhall comprehend under one head, thoſe of Shetland, Orkney, and the Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.] The iſlands of Shetland lie north-eaſt of the Orcades, or Orkney-iſlands, between 60 and 61 degrees of north latitude, and form part of the ſhire of Orkney.

The Orcades lie north of Dungſby-head, between 59 and 60 degrees of north latitude; divided from the continent by a tempeſtuous ſtrait called Pentland Frith, 24 miles long, and 12 broad.

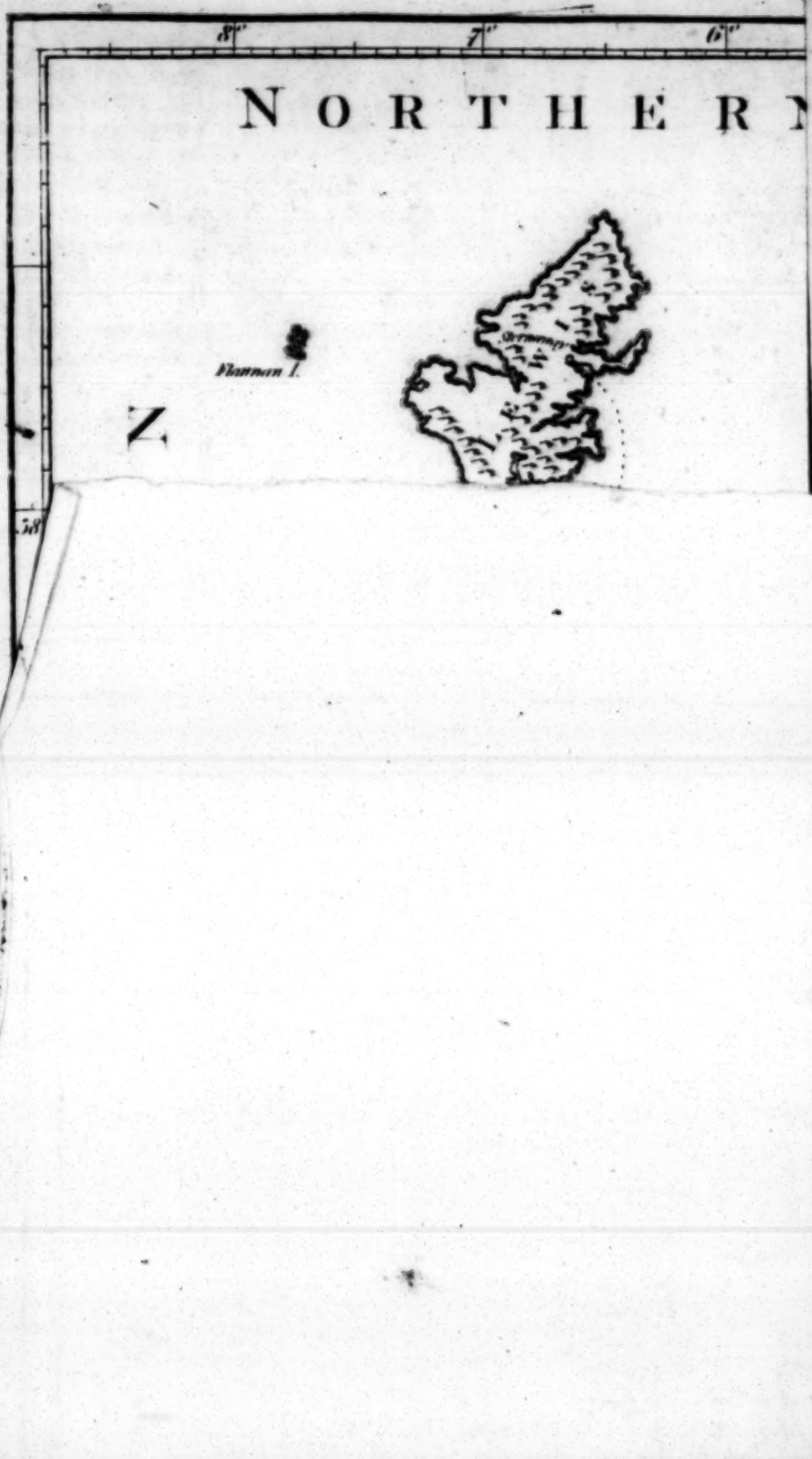
The Hebrides, or Weſtern iſles, are very numerous, and ſome of them large; ſituated between 55 and 59 degrees of north latitude.

CLIMATE.] There is very little difference in the climate of theſe iſlands, the air being keen, piercing, and ſalubrious; ſo that many of the natives live to a great age. In the Shetland and Orkney iſlands they ſee to read at midnight in June and July; and during four of the ſummer months, they have frequent communications, both for buſineſs and curioſity, with each other and with the continent; the reſt of the year, however, they are almoſt inacceſſible, through fogs, darkneſs, and ſtorms. It is a certain fact, that a Scotch fiſherman was impriſoned in May, for publiſhing the account of the prince and princeſs of Orange being raiſed to the throne of England the preceeding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ſhip.

CHIEF ISLANDS AND TOWNS.] The largeſt of the Shetland iſlands, which are forty ſix in number (though many of them are uninhabited), is Mainland, which is 60 miles in length, and twenty in breadth. Its principal town is Lerwick, which contains 300 families; the whole number of families in the iſland not exceeding 500. Skalloway is another town, where the remains of a caſtle are ſtill to be ſeen, and it is the ſeat of a preſbytery. On this iſland the Dutch begin to fiſh for herrings at Midſummer, and their fiſhing ſeaſon laſts ſix months.

The largeſt of the Orkney Iſlands, which are about thirty in number (though ſeveral of them are unpeopled), is called Pomona. Its length is 33 miles, and its breadth, in ſome places, nine. It contains nine pariſh churches and four excellent harbours.

The iſle of Mull, in the Hebrides, is twenty-four miles long, and, in ſome places almoſt as broad. It contains two pariſhes, and a caſtle, called Duart, which is the chief place in the iſland. The other principal weſtern iſlands are Lewis or Harries (for they both form but one iſland), which belongs to the ſhire of Roſs, and is 100 miles in length, and 13 or 14 in breadth; its chief town is Stornway. Sky, belonging to the ſhire of Inverneſs, is 40 miles long and, in ſome places, 30 broad; fruitful and well peopled. Bute, which is about ten miles long, and three or four broad, is famous for containing the caſtle of Rothſay, which gave the title of duke to the eldeſt ſons of the kings of Scotland; as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothſay is likewiſe a royal burgh; and the iſlands of Bute and Arran form the ſhire of Bute. The iſles of Ila and Jula, are part of Argyleſhire, and contain together


8°
7°
6°
NORTHERN
Hoy
Pomona
Flotta
Flotta I.
Stromness
58°

NORTHERN OCEAN

ATLANTIC OCEAN

IRELAND

Flannan I.

Harris

Shiant

THE MINCH

Eilachinna

Nth Vist

Benbecula

Sth Vist I.

SKYE I.

Cuma

Rum

Muke

Eigg

Barra I.

Gt I.

Tirie I.

Belmkill

Colonsay I.

Oronsay I.

Mull of Cantire

Rathlin

Cape Wrath

Tarbet

Loch Maree

Loch Lochy

Loch Linnhe

Loch Awe

Loch Fyne

Loch Lomond

Inverary

Dalmally

Oban

Tyndrum

Arran I.

Ayr

Irvine

Girvan

Ballantrae

Port Patrick

Loch Ryan

Mull of Galloway

Strangaer Bay

West Loch Tarbit

A New Map of SCOTLAND from the best AUTHORITIES 1798.

Engraved for R. Ogilby & Son. Kirkwood

British Statute Miles

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70

8° 7° 6° 5°

58° 57° 56° 55°

OCEAN

Pentland Firth

CATHNESS

SUTHERLAND SHIRE

SHIRE

ROSS

SHIRE

ROMARTY SHT.

Murray Firth

NAIRN SHT.

MURRAY

SHIRE

ABERDEEN

SHIRE

ABERDEEN

ERNESS

SHIRE

MEARNS

SHIRE

ANGUS

SH.

BRITISH

PERTH

SH.

SHIRE

FIFE

OCEAN

FORTH

STIRLING

SH.

SH.

LINLITH

SH.

EDINBURGH

SH.

HADDINGTON

SH.

BERWICK

SH.

LANARK

PEEBLES

SHIRE

SELKIRK

SH.

ROXBURGH

SHIRE

SHIRE

DUMFRIES

SH.

KIRKUDBRIGHT

SH.

SOLWAY FIRTH

SHETLAND ISLES

ORKNEY ISLES

Kirkwall

British Statute Miles

0 10 20 30 40 50 60 70

Cape Wrath

Lochinver

Durness

Tongue

Farr

Thurso

Dunbeath

Berriedale

Dornoch Firth

Tarbet Ness

Tain

Cromarty

Inverness

Fortrose

Ferrie

Elgin

Cullen

Banff

Fraserburgh

Strichen

Peterhead

Old Rain

Kintore

Aberdeen

Brechin

Montrose

Red Head

Arbroath

Dundee

Firth of Tay

St Andrews

Crail

May I.

St Abbs head

Berwick

Dunbar

Haddington

Preston

Tranent

Edinburgh

Leith

Linlithgow

Glasgow

Hamilton

Lanark

Peebles

Tweed R.

Melrose

Jedburgh

Kelso

Wooler

Alnwick

Morpeth

Newcastle

Tyne R.

Durham

Carlisle

Solway Firth

Dumfries

New Galloway

Kirkcudbright

Wigtown Bay

Whithorn

Ayr

Irvine

Kilmarnock

Stranraer

Loch Ryan

Port Patrick

Portpatrick

Girvan

Ailsa Craig

Dumbarton

Greenock

Port Glasgow

Paisley

Rothesay

Inverary

Campbeltown

Oban

Tobermory

Mull

Ardnamurchan

Fort William

Loch Linnhe

Loch Eil

Loch Leven

Loch Erich

Balmacarrach

Glenelg

Skye

Dunvegan

Portree

Kyle Rhea

Loch Alsh

Kyle Akin

Lochcarron

Loch Torridon

Gairloch

Loch Ewe

Ullapool

Loch Broom

Loch Inver

Assynt

Kylesku

Loch Laxford

Tongue

Loch Eriboll

Durness

Cape Wrath

Loch Kirkaig

Loch Assynt

Loch Shin

Loch Naver

Loch Loyal

Loch Hope

Loch Stack

Loch Eribol

Loch Erisort

Loch Roag

Loch Seaforth

Loch Resort

Loch Tarbert

Loch Maddy

Loch Boisdale

Loch Skiport

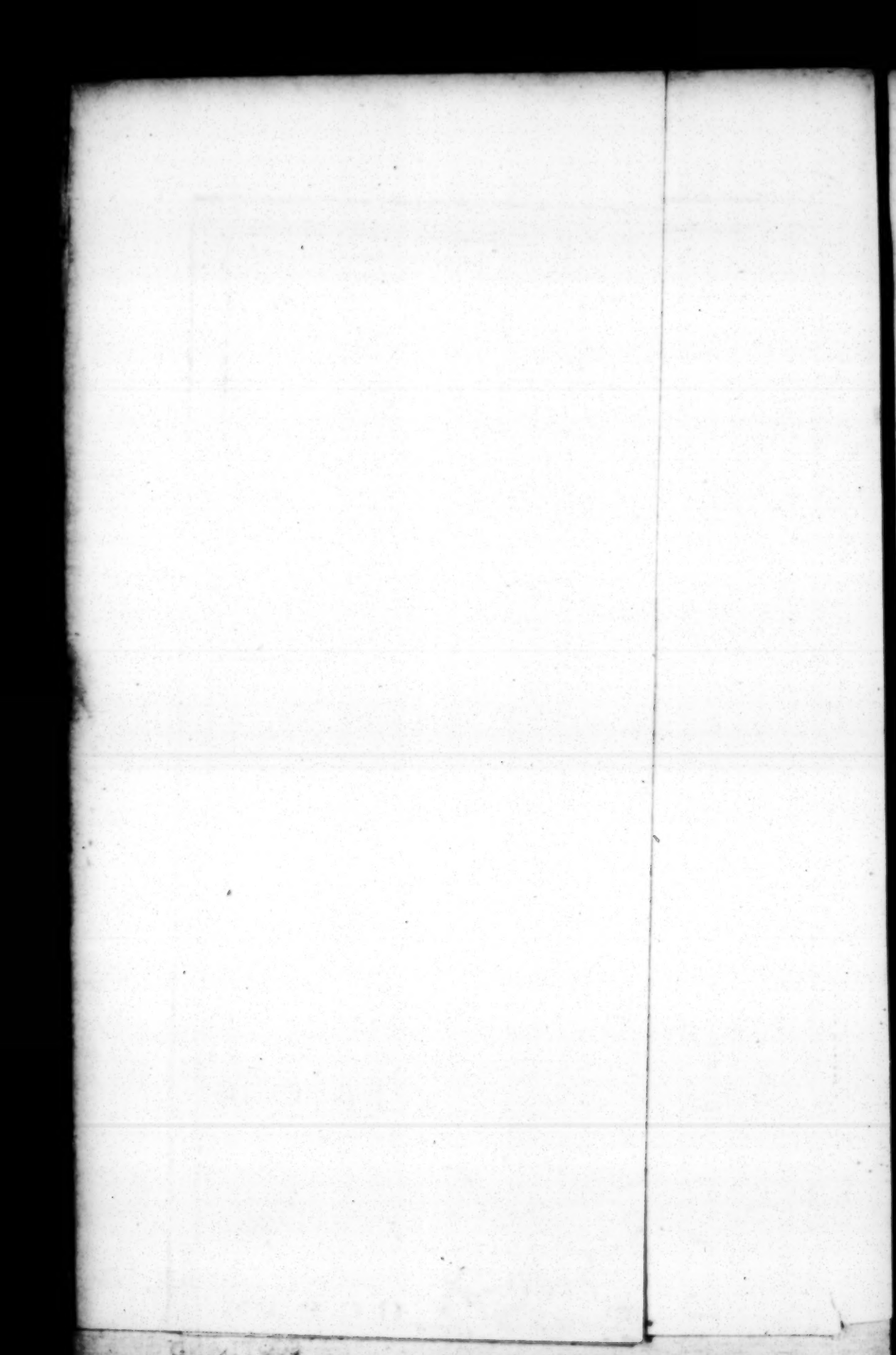
Loch Eynort

Loch Uskevagh

Loch Carnan

Loch Bee

Loch Skip



about 370 ſquare miles, but they have no towns worthy of notice. North Uiſt contains an excellent harbour, called Lochmaddy, famous for herring-fiſhing. I ſhall omit the mention of many other of the Hebrides iſlands, which are at preſent of ſmall importance, either to the public or the proprietors; though, probably, they may in future times be of great conſequence to both, by the very improveable fiſheries upon their coaſts. I cannot, however avoid mentioning the famous iſle of Iona, once the ſeat and ſanctuary of weſtern learning, and the burying-place of many kings of Scotland, Ireland and Norway. It is ſtill famous for its reliques of ſanctimonious antiquity, as ſhall be hereafter mentioned. Some authors have been at great pains to deſcribe the iſland of St. Kilda, or Hirt, for no other reaſon, that I can diſcover, but becauſe it is the remoteſt of all the north-weſt iſlands, and very difficult of acceſs; for it does not contain above thirty-five families, all of which are proteſtant, and know very little of the value of money.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, POPULATION, LANGUAGE, AND RELIGION. It is not to be imagined, that the inhabitants of the iſlands belonging to Scotland can be ſo minutely deſcribed here, as they have been by ſome authors; not ſo much on account of their importance, as their curioſity. Thoſe of Shetland and Orkney were formerly ſubject to the Normans, who conquered them in 1099, a few years after they landed in England under William called the Conqueror. In the year 1263 they were in poſſeſſion of Magnus of Norway, who ſold them to Alexander king of Scots, and he gave them as fiefs to a nobleman of the name of Speire. After this, they were claimed by, and became ſubject to the crown of Denmark. Chriſtian I. in the reign of James III. conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret, and all future pretenſions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. The iſles of Shetland and Orkney form a ſtewartry, or ſhire, which ſends a member to parliament. At preſent, the people in general differ little from the Lowlanders of Scotland; only, perhaps they are more honeſt and religious. Men of fortune there have improved their eſtates wonderfully of late years: and have introduced into their families many elegancies and luxuries. They build their dwelling and other houſes in a modern taſte; and are remarkable for the fineneſs of their linen. As to the common people they live upon butter, cheeſe, fiſh, ſea and land fowl (of which they have great plenty) particularly geeſe; and their chief drink is whey, which they have the art to ferment, ſo as to give it a vinous quality. In ſome of the northern iſlands, the Norwegian, which is called the Norſe language, is ſtill ſpoken. Their vaſt intercourſe with the Dutch, during the fiſhing ſeaſon, renders that language common in the Shetland and Orkney iſlands. The people there are as expert as the Norwegians, already deſcribed, in ſeizing the neſts of ſea fowls, who build in the moſt frightful precipices and rocks. The people's temperance preſerves them from any diſeaſes known to luxury. They cure the ſcurvy and the jaundice, to which they are ſubject, with the powder of ſnail-ſhells and ſcurvy-graſs, of which they have plenty. Their religion is proteſtant, and according to the diſcipline of the church of Scotland; and their civil inſtitutions are much the ſame with thoſe of the country to which they belong.

Nothing certain can be mentioned, as to the population of theſe three diviſions of iſlands. We have the moſt undoubted evidences of hiſtory, that about 400 years ago, they were much more populous than they are now: for the Hebrides themſelves were known often to ſend 10,000 fighting men

into the field, without prejudice to their agriculture. At preſent their numbers are ſaid not to exceed 48,000. The people of the Hebrides are clothed, and live like the Scotch Highlanders, who ſhall hereafter be deſcribed. They are ſimilar in perſons, conſtitutions, cuſtoms, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more poliſhed manners of the Lowlanders are every day gaining ground in the Highlands. Perhaps the deſcendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years will be diſcernible only in the Hebrides.

Thoſe iſlands alone retain the ancient uſages of the Celts, as deſcribed by the oldeſt and beſt authors; but with a ſtrong tincture of the feudal conſtitution. Their ſhanachies or ſtory-tellers ſupply the place of the ancient bards, ſo famous in hiſtory; and are the hiſtorians, or rather genealogiſts, as well as poets of the nation and family. The chief is likewiſe attended, when he appears abroad, with his muſician, who is generally a bagpiper, and dreſſed in the manner, but, as it is ſaid, more ſumptuouſly, than the Engliſh minſtrels of former times *. Notwithſtanding the contempt into which that muſic is fallen, it is almoſt incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among theſe iſlanders ſo late as the beginning of the preſent century. They had regular colleges and profeſſors, and the ſtudents took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, ſome of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now aboliſhed. The inhabitants, however, ſtill preſerve the moſt profound reſpect and affection for their ſeveral chieftains, notwithſtanding all the pains that have been taken by the Britiſh legiſlature to break thoſe connections which experience has ſhewn to be ſo dangerous to government. The common people are but little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders already deſcribed; though they certainly fare better, for they have oatmeal, plenty of fiſh and fowl, cheeſe, butter-milk, and whey; and alſo mutton, beef, goat, kid, and veniſon. They indulge themſelves, like their forefathers, in a romantic poetical turn, which is an enemy to induſtry, and indeed to domeſtic and perſonal cleanlineſs. The agility of both ſexes in the exerciſes of the field, and in dancing to their favourite muſic, is remarkable.

The reader would not pardon an author, who, in treating of this ſubject, ſhould omit that remarkable mantology, or gift of prophecy, which diſtinguiſhes the inhabitants of the Hebrides under the name of ſecond ſight. It would be equally abſurd to attempt to diſprove the reality of the inſtances of this kind that have been brought by reputable authors, as to admit all that has been ſaid upon the ſubject. The adepts of the ſecond ſight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather preſentations, either really or typically, which ſwim before their eyes, of certain events that are to happen in the compaſs of 24 or 48 hours. I do not, however from the beſt information, obſerve that any of thoſe adepts agree as to the manner and forms of thoſe revelations, or that they have any fixed method for interpreting their typical appearances. The truth ſeems to be, that thoſe iſlanders, by indulging themſelves in lazy habits, acquire viſionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are preſented with thoſe phantaſms, which they miſtake for fatidical or prophetic manifeſtations. They inſtantly begin to propheſy; and it would be abſurd to ſuppoſe, that amidſt many thouſand of predictions, ſome did not happen to be fulfilled; and theſe being well atteſted, gave a ſanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that the Hebrides, being the

* See Percy's Reliques of Ancient Engl ſh Poetry, in 3 vols.

moſt

moſt weſterly iſlands where the Celts ſettled, their language muſt remain there in its greateſt purity. This opinion, though very plauſible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as cuſtoms, are there found; but the vaſt intercourſe which the Hebrides had with the Danes, the Norwegians, and other northern people, whoſe language is mixed with Scalavonian and Teutonic, which laſt has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their language a compound; ſo that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erſe, which was ſpoken by their neighbours in Lochaber and the oppoſite coaſts of Scotland, the undoubted deſcendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion profeſſed in the Hebrides is chiefly preſbyterian, as eſtabliſh-in the church of Scotland, but popery and ignorance ſtill prevail among ſome of the iſlanders, whilſt ſuperſtitious practices and cuſtoms ſeen to be almoſt grafted in their nature.

Soil, mines, and quarries.] Though it is not in the power of natural philoſophy to aſſign the reaſon, yet it is certain that the ſoil, both of the northern and weſtern iſlands belonging to Scotland, has ſuffered an amazing alteration. It is evident to the eye-ſight, that many of theſe iſlands have been the habitations of the Druids whoſe temples are ſtill viſible in moſt of them; and thoſe temples were ſorrounded by groves, though little or no timber now grows in the neighbourhood. The ſtumps of former trees however are diſcernible, as are many veſtiges of grandeur, even ſince the admiſſion of the Chriſtian religion; which prove the decreaſe of the riches, power and population of the inhabitants. Experience daily ſhews, that if the ſoil of the northern or weſtern iſlands till of late were barren, cold, and uncomfortable, it was owing to their want of culture; for ſuch ſpots of them as are now cultivated, produce corn, vegetables, and garden-ſtuff, more than ſufficient for the inhabitants; and even fruit-trees are now brought to maturity. Tin, lead, and ſilver mines; marle, ſlate, free-ſtone, and even quarries of marble, have been found upon theſe iſlands. They are not deſtitute of fine freſh water; nor of lakes and rivulets that abound with excellent trout. At the ſame time it muſt be owned, that the preſent face of the ſoil is bare, and unornamented with trees, excepting a few that are reared in gardens.

Trade and manufactures.] Theſe are all in their infancy in thoſe iſlands. The reader can eaſily ſuppoſe, that their ſtaple commodities conſiſt of fiſh, eſpecially herrings, which are the beſt in the world, and, when properly cured, are equal even to thoſe of the Dutch. They carry on likewiſe a conſiderable trade in down and feathers; and their ſheep afford them wool, which they manufacture into coarſe cloths; and even the linen manufactures make no ſmall progreſs in theſe iſlands. They carry their black cattle alive to the adjacent parts of Scotland, where they are diſpoſed of in ſale or barter; as are large quantities of their mutton, which they ſalt in the hide. Upon the whole, application and induſtry, with ſome portion of public encouragement, are only wanting to render theſe iſlands at once ornamental and beneficial to the mother country, as well as to their inhabitants.

Beasts, birds, and fishes.] Little can be ſaid on this head, that is peculiar to theſe iſlands. In the countries already deſcribed, mention has been made of moſt of the birds and fiſhes that have been diſcovered here; only it is thought that they contain a ſpecies of falcon or hawk, of a more

noble and docile nature than any that are to be found elſewhere. The Shetland iſles are famous for a ſmall breed of horſes, which are incredibly active, ſtrong, and hardy, and frequently ſeen in the ſtreets of London, yoked to the ſplendid carriages of the curious and wealthy. The coaſts of thoſe iſlands, till within theſe 20 years, ſeemed, however, to have been created, not for the inhabitants, but for ſtrangers. The latter furniſh the former with wines, ſtrong liquors, ſpice, and luxuries of all kinds, for their native commodities, at the gain of above 100 per cent. But it is to be hoped that this pernicious traffic now draws to an end. Three thouſand buſſes have been known to be employed in one year by the Dutch in the herring fiſhery, beſides thoſe fitted out by the Hamburghers, Bremeners, and other northern ports.

RARITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. Theſe iſlands exhibit many pregnant proofs, in their churches, the veſtiges of old forts, and other buildings, both ſacred and civil, of what hath been already obſerved, that they were formerly more populous than they are now. The uſe and conſtruction of ſome of thoſe works are not eaſily accounted for at preſent. In a gloomy valley belonging to Hoy, one of the weſtern iſlands, is a kind of hermitage, cut out of a ſtone called a dwarf ſtone, 36 feet long, 18 broad, and nine thick; in which is a ſquare hole, about two feet high for an entrance, with a ſtone of the ſame ſize for a door. Within this entrance is the reſemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the ſtone, big enough for two men to lie on; at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. It would be endleſs to recount the various veſtiges of the Druidical temples remaining in theſe iſlands, ſome of which have required prodigious labour, and are ſtupendous erections, of the ſame nature as the famous Stonehenge near Saliſbury. Others ſeem to be memorials of particular perſons, or actions, conſiſting of one large ſtone ſtanding upright: ſome of them have been ſculptured, and others have ſerved as ſepulchres, and are compoſed of ſtones cemented together. Barrows, as they are called in England, are frequent in theſe iſlands; and the monuments of Daniſh and Norwegian fortifications might long employ an able antiquary to deſcribe. The gigantic bones found in many burial-places here, give room to believe, that the former inhabitants were of larger ſize than the preſent. It is likewiſe probable, from ſome ancient remains, particularly catacombs, and nine ſilver fibulæ or claſps, found at Stennis, one of the Orkneys, that the Romans were well acquainted with theſe parts.

The cathedral of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys, is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St Magnus, but now converted into a pariſh church. Its roof is ſupported by 14 pillars on each ſide, and its ſteeple, in which is a good ring of bells, by four large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white poliſhed ſtone, emboſſed and elegantly flowered.

The Hebrides are ſtill more diſtinguiſhed than the Orkney or Shetland iſles for their remains of antiquity; and it would far exceed the bounds allotted to this head, were we even to mention every noted monument found upon them, dedicated to civil, religious, or warlike purpoſes. We cannot, however, avoid taking particular notice of the celebrated iſle of Iona, called St. Columb-kill. Not to enter into the hiſtory or origin of the religious erections upon this iſland, it is ſufficient to ſay, that it ſeems to have ſerved as a ſanctuary for St. Columba, and other holy men of learning, while Ireland, England, and Scotland, were deſolated by barbariſm. It appears that the northern

thern pagans often landed here, and paid no regard to the ſanctity of the place. The church of St. Mary, which is built in the form of a cathedral, is a beautiful fabric. It contains the bodies of ſome Scotch, Iriſh, and Norwegian kings, with ſome Gaelic inſcriptions. The tomb of Columba, who lies buried here, is uninſcribed. The ſteeple is large, the cupola 21 feet ſquare, the doors and windows are curiouſly carved, and the altar is of the fineſt marble. Innumerable are the inſcriptions of ancient cuſtoms and ceremonies that are diſcernible upon this iſland; and which give countenance to the well known obſervation, that when learning was nearly extinct on the continent of Europe, it found a refuge in Scotland, or rather in theſe iſlands.

The iſlands belonging to Scotland contain likewiſe ſome natural curioſities peculiar to themſelves: the phaſeoli, or Molucca beans, have been found in the Orkneys, driven, as ſuppoſed, from the Weſt indies, by the weſterly winds, which often force aſhore many curious ſhells and marine productions, highly eſteemed by naturaliſts. In the pariſh of Harn, a large piece of ſtag's horn was found very deep in the earth, by the inhabitants who were digging for marle; and certain bituminous effluvia produce ſurpriſing phænomena, which the natives believe to be ſupernatural.

But ſome of the moſt aſtoniſhing appearances in nature have remained undeſcribed, and, till lately, unobſerved even by the natives of theſe iſlands. A diſcovery reſerved for the inquiſitive genius of Mr. Banks, now Sir Joſeph Banks, who, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, anno, 1772, ſays, "We were no ſooner arrived, than we were ſtruck with a ſcene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the moſt ſanguine foundations, the whole of that end of the iſland (viz. Staffa, a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth) ſupported by ranges of natural pillars, moſtly above fifty feet high, ſtanding in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themſelves: upon a firm baſis of ſolid unformed rock, above theſe, the ſtratum which reaches to the ſoil or ſurface of the iſland, varied in thickneſs as the iſland itſelf formed into hills or vallies; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; ſome of theſe, above ſixty feet in thickneſs from the baſe to the point, formed, by the ſloping of the hill on each ſide, almoſt in the ſhape of thoſe uſed in architecture.

"Compared to this, what are the cathedrals or palaces built by men? mere models or play-things. Imitations as diminutive, as his works will always be, when compared to thoſe of Nature. Where is now the boaſt of the architect: regularity, the only part in which he fancied himſelf to exceed his miſtreſs, Nature, is here found in her poſſeſſion; and here it has been for ages undeſcribed.—Proceeding farther to the N. W. you meet with the higheſt ranges of pillars, the magnificent appearance of which is paſt all deſcription: here they are bare to their very baſes, and the ſtratum below them is alſo viſible." Mr. Banks particulariſes ſundry other appearances in this and a neighbouring iſland, which is wholly compoſed of pillars without any ſtratum. In ſome parts of Staffa, inſtead of being placed upright, the pillars were obſerved to lie on their ſides, each forming a ſegment of a circle; but the moſt ſtriking object in this field of ſcenery is Fingal's Cave, which Mr. Banks deſcribes in the following manner:——"With our minds full of ſuch reflections, we proceeded along the ſhore, treading upon another *Giant's Cauſeway*, every ſtone being regularly formed into a certain number of ſides and angles; till in a ſhort time, we arrived at the mouth of a cave, the moſt mag-

magnificent, I ſuppoſe, that has ever been deſcribed by travellers *. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than ſuch a ſpace, ſupported on each ſide by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottom of thoſe, which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow ſtalagmitic matter has exuded, which ſerves to define the angles preciſely, and at the ſame time vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance; and to render it ſtill more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; ſo that the fartheſt extremity is very plainly ſeen from without; and the air within being agitated by the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholeſome, free entirely from the damp of vapours with which natural caverns in general abound.

Mr. Pennant, who alſo made a voyage to theſe iſlands in the ſame year, had a glance of Staffa, in his paſſage from Iona to Mull, but was prevented by ſtormy weather from approaching it. "On the weſt", ſays he "appears the beautiful groupe of the Treaſhuniſh iſles. Neareſt lies Staffa, a new Giant's Cauſeway, riſing amidſt the waves, but with columns of double the height of that in Ireland; gloſſy and reſplendent, from the beams of the eaſtern ſun." And in the iſle of Sky, a conſiderable way northward he reſumes the ſubject: "We had in view a fine ſerics of genuine baſaltic columns, reſembling the Giant's Cauſeway; the pillars were above twenty feet high, conſiſting of four, five, and ſix angles, but moſtly of five. At a ſmall diſtance from theſe, on the ſlope of a hill, is a tract of ſome roads entirely formed of the tops of ſeveral ſeries of columns, even and cloſe ſet, forming a reticulated ſurface of amazing beauty and curioſity. This is the moſt northern baſaltes I am acquainted with; the laſt of four in the Britiſh dominions, all running from ſouth to north, nearly in a meridian: the Giant's Cauſeway appears firſt; Staffa, &c, ſucceeds; the rock Humbla about twenty leagues farther, and finally, thoſe columns of Sky: the depth of the ocean, in all probability, conceals the vaſt links of this chain"

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND HISTORY. See Scotland.

* The dimenſions of the cave are thus given by Mr Banks.

	Feet
Length of the cave from the arch without	371
From the pitch of the arch	250
Breath of ditto at the mouth	53
At the further end	20
Height of the arch at the mouth	117
At the end	70
Height of an onſide pillar	39
Of one at the N. W. corner	54
Depth of water at the mouth	18
At the bottom	9

SCOTLAND.

Extent and Situation.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300	between	54 and 59 North latitude.
Breadth 190		1 and 6 West longitude.

Name.] THE Celtæ or Gauls are ſuppoſed to have been the original inhabitants of this kingdom. The Scots, a Scythian tribe, invaded it about the beginning of the fourth century, and having conquered the Picts, the territories of both were called Scotland; and that the word Scot is no other than a corruption of Scuyth, or Scythian, being originally from that immenſe country, called Scythia by the ancients. It is termed, by the Italians, Scotia; by the Spaniards, Eſcotia; by the French, Eſcoſſe; and Scotland by the Scots, Germans, and Engliſh.

Boundaries.] Scotland, which contains an area of 27,794 ſquare miles, is bounded on the ſouth by England; and on the north, eaſt, and weſt by the Deucaledonian, German, and Iriſh ſeas, or more properly, the Atlantic ocean.

Divisions and subdivisions.] Scotland is divided into the countries ſouth of the Frith of Forth, the capital of which, and of all the kingdom, is Edinburgh; and thoſe to the north of the ſame river, where the chief town is Aberdeen. This was the ancient national diviſion; but ſome modern writers, with leſs geographical accuracy, have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and cuſtoms of the inhabitants of each.

Eighteen counties, or ſhires, are allotted to the ſouthern diviſion, and fifteen to the northern; and thoſe counties are ſubdivided into ſheriffdoms, ſtewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders.

Shires.	Sherriffdoms and other ſubdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
1. Edinburgh (297*)	Mid Lothian —	Edinburgh, W. long. 3. N. lat. 56. Muſſelburgh, Leith, and Dalkeith.
2. Haddington (137)	Eaſt Lothian —	Dunbar, Haddington, and North Berwick.
3. Merſe, anciently Berwick † (145)	The Merches, and Lauderdale —	Dunſe, and Lauder.
4. Roxborough (149)	Tiviotdale, Lidſdale, Eſkdale and Euſdale	Jedburgh, Kelſo, and Melroſs.
5. Selkirk (25)	Ettrick Forreſt —	Selkirk.

* The numbers ſhew the proportion of militia raiſed in each ſhire by the late act of parliament.

† Berwick on the north ſide of the Tweed, belonged formerly to Scotland, and gave name to a county in that kingdom; but is now formed into a town and county of itſelf, in a political ſenſe diſtinct from England and Scotland, having its own privileges.

Shire

Shires.		Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
6. Peebles		Tweedale — —	Peebles.
7. Lanerk	(536)	Clydesdale —	Glasgow, W. lon. 4. 5. N. lat. 55-52. Hamilton, Lanerk, and Rutherglen.
8. Dumfries	(246)	Nithsdale, Annandale	Dumfries, Annau.
9. Wigtown	(89)	Galloway, West part	Wigtown Stranrcer, and Whitehorn.
10. Kircudbright	(25)	Galloway, East part	Kircudbright.
11. Air.	(342)	Kyle, Carrick, and Cunningham —	Air, Kilmarnock, Irwin, Maybole, Stewarton and Saltcots.
12. Dumbarton	(80)	Lenox — —	Dumbarton.
13. Bute	(30)	Bute, Arran and Caithness — —	Rothsay.
14. Caithness	(67)		Wick, N. lat. 58-40 and Thurso.
15. Renfrew	(186)	Renfrew — —	Renfrew, Paisley, Greenock, & Port-Glasgow.
16. Stirling.	(194)	Stirling —	Stirling and Falkirk.
17. Linlithgow	(70)	West Lothian —	Linlithgow Borrowstouness, & Queen's-ferry.
18. Argyle	(257)	Argyle, Cowal, Knap-Dale, Kintire, and Lorn, with part of the Western Isles, particularly Isla, Jura, Mull, Wist, Teri, Col, and Lismore —	Inverary, Dunstaffnage, Killonmer, and Campbeltown.
19. Perth	(500)	Perth, Athol, Gowry, Breadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormont, Clenshield, and Raynock	Perth, Scone, Dumblane, Blair, and Dunkeld.
20. Kincardin	(100)	Merns — —	Bervie, Stonehaven and Kincardin.
21 Aberdeen	(463)	Mar, Buchan, Garioch and Strathbogie	Old Aberdeen, W. lon. 1-40. N. lat. 57-22. New Aberdeen, Frasersburgh, Peterhead, Kintore, Strathbogie, Inverary, and Old Meldrum.
22. Inverness	(188)	Aird, Strathglass, Sky, Harris Badenoch, Lochaber and Glenmorison	Inverness, Inverlochy, Fort Augusts, Boileau.
23. Nairne	(22) and	Western part of Murray and Cromartie	Nairne, Cromartie.
24. Cromartie	(21)		

Shires

Shires.		Sheriffdoms and other Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
25. Fife	(335)	Fife — —	St. Andrews, Cowpar, Falkland, Kirkaldy, Innerkythen, Ely, Burnt Iſland Dumfermline, Dyſart, Anſtruther and Aberdour,
26. Forfar	(351)	Forfar, Angus —	Montroſe, Forfar, Dundee, Arbroath, and Brechin.
27. Bamff	(24)	Bamff, Strathdovern, Boyne, Euzy, Balveny, Strathawin, and part of Buchan	Bamff and Cullen,
28. Sutherland	(52)	Strathnaver and Sutherland —	Strathy and Dornoch.
29. Clacmannan and 30. Kinroſs	(46) (26)	Fife part - —	Culroſs, Clacmannan, Alloa, and Kinroſs.
31. Roſs	(155)	Eaſter and Weſter Roſs, Iſles of Lewis Lochbroom, Lochcarren Ardmeanach, Redcaſtle, Ferrintoſh, Strathpeffer, and Ferrindonald	Taine, Dingwall, Fortroſe, Roſemarkie, and New Kelſo.
32. Elgin	(90)	Murray and Strathſpey	Elgin and Forres.
33. Orkney		Iſles of Orkney and Shetland —	Kirkwall, W. lon, 3. N. lat. 59-45 Skalloway, near the Meridian of London N. lat 61.

In all thirty-three ſhires, which chooſe thirty repreſentatives to ſit in the parliament of Great Britain ; Bute and Caithneſs chooſing alternately, as do Nairne and Cromartie, and Clacmannan and Kinroſs.

The royal Boroughs which chooſe repreſentatives, are,

Edinburgh —	1	Innerkythen, Dumfermline, Queensferry, Culroſs, and Sterling — —	1
Kirkwall, Wick Dornoch, Dingwall, and Taine	1	Glaſgow, Renfrew, Rutherglen, and Dumbarton —	1
Fortroſe, Inverneſs, Nairne and Forres —	1	Haddington, Dunbar, North Berwick, Lauder, and Jedburgh	1
Elgin, Cullen, Bamff, Inverary, and Kintore —	1	Selkſrk, Peebles, Linlithgow, and Lanerk —	1
Aberdeen, Bervie, Montroſe, Arbroath and Brechin	1	Dumfries, Sanquehar, Annan, Lochmaban and Kircudbright	1
Forfar, Perth, Dundee, Cowpar, and St. Andrews —	1	Wigtown New Galloway Stranraer, and Whitehorn	1
Crail, Kilrenny, Anſtruther Eaſt and Weſt, and Pittenweem	1	Air, Irwin, Rothſay, Cambeltown, and Inverary —	1
Dyſart, Kirkaldy, Kinghorne, and Burnt Iſland —	1		

CLIMATE, SOIL, AIR, AND WATER.] In the northern parts, day-light, at Midſummer, laſts 18 hours and 5 minutes; and the day and night in winter are in the ſame proportion. The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in ſo northerly a climate. This ariſes partly from the variety of its hills, vallies, rivers, and lakes; but ſtill more, as in England, from the vicinity of the ſea, which affords thoſe warm breezes, that not only ſoften the natural keenneſs of the air, but by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent thoſe epidemic diſtempers that prevail in many other countries. In the neighbourhood of ſome high mountains, however, which are generally covered with ſnow, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The ſoil in general is not ſo fertile as that of England; and in many places leſs fitted for agriculture than for paſture. At the ſame time, there are particular plains and vallies of the moſt luxuriant fertility. The finer particles of earth, inceſſantly waſhed down from the mountains, and repoſited in theſe vallies, afford them a vegitative nouriſhment, which is capable of carrying the ſtrongeſt plants into perfection: though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulane productions do not come ſo ſoon to maturity in this country as in England. There is, indeed a great variety of ſoils in Scotland, the face of which is agreeably diverſified by a charming intermixture of natural objects. The vaſt inequalities of the ground if unfavourable to the labours of the huſbandman, are particularly pleaſing to a traveller, and afford thoſe delightful ſitnations for country houſes, of which many of the Scotch nobility and gentry have ſo judiciouſly availed themſelves. It is their ſituation, more than any expenſive magnificence, that occaſions the ſeats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of lord Hopton, and many others, to fix the attention of the traveller. The water in Scotland, as every where elſe, depends on the qualities of the ſoil through which it paſſes. Water paſſing through a heavy ſoil is turbid and noxious, but, filtrating through ſand or gravel, it is clear, light, and ſalutary to the ſtomach. This laſt is in general the caſe in Scotland, where the water is better than that of more ſouthern climates, in proportion as the land is worſe.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian hills, which run from eaſt to weſt, from near Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleſhire, almoſt the whole breadth of the kingdom. Another chain of mountains, called the Pentland-hills, runs through Lothian and joins thoſe of Tweedale. A third, called Lammer-Muir, riſes near the eaſtern coaſt, and runs weſtward through the Merſe. Beſides thoſe continued chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Tiviot-Hills, on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, ſometimes go by the celtic word *Laws*. Many of them are ſtupendouſly high, and of beautiful forms; but too numerous to be particulariſed here.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FORESTS.] The largeſt river in Scotland is the Forth, which riſes in Monteith near Callendar, and paſſing by Stirling, after a number of beautiful meanders, diſcharges itſelf near Edinburgh into that arm of the German ſea, to which it gives the name of Frith of Forth. Second to the Forth is the Tay, which iſſues out of Loch Tay, in Broadalbin, and running ſouth-eaſt, paſſes the town of Perth, and falls into the ſea at Dundee. The Spey, which is called the moſt rapid river in Scotland, iſſues from a lake of the ſame name in Badenoch, and, running from ſouth weſt to north-eaſt, falls into the ſea near Elgin; as do the rivers Dee and Don, which run from weſt to eaſt, and diſembogue themſelves at Aberdeen.

The

The Tweed riſes on the borders of Lanerkſhire, and, after many beautiful ſerpentine turnings, diſcharges itſelf into the ſea at Berwick, where it ſerves as a boundary between Scotland and England, on the eaſtern ſide. The Clyde is a large river on the weſt of Scotland, has its riſe in Annandale, runs north-weſt through the valley of that name, and after paſſing by Lanerk, Hamilton, the city of Glaſgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, and Greenock, falls into the Frith of Clyde, oppoſite to the iſle of Bute. Beſides thoſe capital rivers, Scotland contains many of an inferior ſort, well provided with ſalmon, trout, and other fiſhes, which equally enrich and beautify the country. Several of thoſe rivers go by the name of *eſk*, which is the old Celtic name for water. The greateſt improvement for inland navigation that has been attempted in that part of Great-Britain, was undertaken at a very conſiderable expence, by a ſociety of public-ſpirited gentlemen, for joining the rivers Forth and Clyde together; by which a communication has been opened between the eaſt and weſt ſeas, to the advantage of the whole kingdom.

The lakes of Scotland (there called *Lochs*) are too many to be particularly deſcribed. Thoſe called Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Loch-neſs, Loch-Au, and one or two more, preſent us with ſuch pictureſque ſcenes as are ſcarcely equalled in Europe, if we except Ireland. Several of theſe lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, and contain plenty of freſh-water fiſh. The Scotch ſometimes give the name of a loch to an arm of the ſea; for example, Loch Fyn, which is 60 miles long and four broad, and is famous for its excellent herrings. The Loch of Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for its number of ſwans and cygnets, which often darken the air with their flights; owing, as ſome think, to the plant *olorina*, which grows in its waters, with a ſtraight ſtalk and a cluſter of ſeeds at the top. Near Lochneſs is a a hill almoſt two miles perpendicular, on the top of which is a lake of cold freſh water, about 30 fathoms in length, too deep ever yet to be fathomed, and which never freezes; whereas, but 17 miles from thence, the lake Lochanwyn, or Green Lake, is covered with ice all the year round. The ancient province of Lochaber receives that name from being the mouth of the lochs, by means of which the ancient Caledonians, the genuine deſcendants of the Celts, were probably enabled to preſerve themſelves independent on, and unmixed with, the Lowlanders. Beſides theſe rivers and lochs, and others too numerous to mention, the coaſts of Scotland are in many parts indented with large, bold, navigable bays or arms of the ſea; as the bay of Glenluce and Wigtown bay; ſometimes they are called Friths, as the Solway Frith, which ſeparates Scotland from England on the weſt; the Frith of Forth, Murray Frith, and thoſe of Cromarty and Dornoch.

The face of Scotland, even where it is moſt uninviting, preſents us with the moſt incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepeſt moſſes, or moraſſes, contain large logs of wood; and their waters being impregnated with turpentine, have a preſerving quality, as appears by the human bodies which have been diſcovered in thoſe moſſes. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian foreſt, the remains of which are now thought to be Etrick wood, in the ſouth of Scotland, is famous in antiquity for being the retreat of the Caledonian wild boars; but ſuch an animal is not now to be ſeen in Scotland. Several woods, however, ſtill remain in that country; and many attempts have been made for reducing them into charcoal, for the uſe of furnaces and founderies; but lying at a great diſtance from water-carriage, though the work ſucceeded perfectly in the execution, they were found impracticable to be continued. Fir trees grow in great perfection almoſt all over Scotland, and form beautiful plantations. The Scotch oak is

excellent in the Highlands, where ſome woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and four or five in breadth; but, through the inconveniency already mentioned, without being of much emolument to the proprietors.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Though Scotland does not at preſent boaſt of its gold mines, yet, it is certain that it contains ſuch, or at leaſt that Scotland formerly afforded a conſiderable quantity of that metal for its coinage. James V. and his father contracted with certain Germans for working the mines of Crawford-Moor: and it is an undoubted fact, that when James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered diſhes, filled with coins of Scotch gold, were preſented to the gueſts by way of deſert. The civil wars and troubles which followed, under his daughter, in the minority of his grandſon, drove thoſe foreigners, the chief of whom was called Cornelius, from their works, which ſince that time have never been reſumed. Some ſmall pieces of gold have been found in thoſe parts waſhed down by the floods. It likewiſe appears by the public records, that thoſe beautiful coins, ſtruck by James V. called bonnet-pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland, as were other medals of the ſame metal.

Several landlords in Scotland derive a large profit from their lead-mines, which are ſaid to be very rich, and to produce large quantities of ſilver, but we know of no ſilver mines that are worked at preſent. Some copper-mines have been found near Edinburgh; and many parts of Scotland, in the eaſt, weſt, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported, to the vaſt emolument of the public. Lime-ſtone is here in great plenty, as is free-ſtone; ſo that the houſes of the better ſort ſort are conſtructed of the moſt beautiful materials. The indolence of the inhabitants of many places of Scotland, where no coal is found, prevented them from ſupplying that defect by plantations of wood: and the peat-moſſes being in many parts, of the north eſpecially, almoſt exhauſted, the inhabitants are put to great difficulties for fuel: however, the taſte for plantations, of all kinds, that now prevails, will ſoon remedy that inconveniency.

Lapis lazuli is ſaid to be dug up in Lanerkſhire; alum-mines have been found in Bamffſhire; cryſtal, variegated pebbles, and other tranſparent ſtones, which admit of the fineſt poliſh for ſeals, are found in various parts; as are talc, flint, ſea-ſhells, potter's clay, and fuller's earth. The ſtones which the country people call elf-arrow-heads, and to which they aſſign a ſupernatural origin and uſe, were probably the flint-heads of arrows made uſe of by the Caledonians and ancient Scots. No country produces greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and ſtones, that Scotland; of which the proprietors now begin to taſte the ſweets, in their founderies, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactures.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] It is certain that the ſoil of Scotland may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even ſaid, that ſome tracts of the low countries at preſent exceed in value Engliſh eſtates of the ſame extent, becauſe they are ſo far leſs exhauſted and worn out than thoſe of the ſouthern parts of the iſland; and agriculture is now perhaps as well underſtood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scotch landlords and farmers it is in any part of Europe.

Such is the mutability of things, and the influence of commerce, that a very conſiderable part of the landed property has lately (perhaps happily for the public) fallen into new hands. The merchants of Glaſgow, who are the life and ſoul of that part of the kingdom, while they are daily introducing

new,

new branches of commerce, are no leſs attentive to the progreſs of agriculture, by which they do their country in particular, and the whole iſland in general, the moſt eſſential ſervice. The active genius of theſe people extends even to moors, rocks, and marſhes, which being hitherto reckoned uſeleſs, were conſequently neglected, but are now brought to produce certain ſpecies of grain or timber, for which the ſoil is beſt adapted.

But the fruits of ſkill and induſtry are chiefly perceivable in the counties lying upon the river Forth, called the Lothians, were agriculture is thoroughly underſtood, and the farmers, who generally rent from 3 to 500l. per ann. are well fed, well clothed, and confortably lodged. The reverſe, however, may be obſerved of a very conſiderable part of Scotland, which ſtill remains in a ſtate of nature, and where the landlords, ignorant of their real intereſt, refuſe to grant ſuch leaſes as would encourage the tenant to improve his own farm. In ſuch places the huſbandmen barely exiſt upon the gleanings of a ſcanty farm, ſeldom exceeding 20 or 30l. per ann. the cattle are lean and ſmall, the houſes mean beyond expreſſion, and the face of the country exhibits the moſt deplorable marks of poverty and oppreſſion. Indeed, from a miſtaken notion of the landed people in general, the greateſt part of the kingdom lies naked and expoſed, for want of ſuch hedge-rows and planting as adorn the country of England. They conſider hedges as uſeleſs and cumberſome, as occupying more room than what they call ſtone incloſures, which except in the Lothians already mentioned, are generally no other than low paltry walls, huddled up of looſe ſtones, without lime or mortar, which yield a bleak and mean appearance.

The ſoil in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and paſture. In the ſouthern counties the fineſt garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines, and peaches, are ſaid to fall little, if at all, ſhort of thoſe in England; and the ſame may be ſaid of the common fruits. The unculti. vated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of ſalubrious and pleaſant-taſted berries; though it muſt be owned that many extenſive tracts are covered with a ſtrong heath. The ſea coaſt produces the alga-marina, dulſe or duliſh, a moſt wholeſome nutritive weed, in great quantities, and other marine plants, which are eaten for nuriſhment, or pleaſure.

The fiſhes on the coaſt of Scotland are much the ſame with thoſe of the iſlands and countries already deſcribed; but the Scots have improved in their fiſheries as much as they have in their manufactures and agriculture; for ſocieties have been formed, which have carried that branch of national wealth to a perfection that never was before known in that country, and bids fair to emulate the Dutch themſelves in curing, as well as catching, their fiſh. In former times, the Scots ſeldom ventured to fiſh above a league's diſtance from the land; but they now ply in the deep waters as boldly and ſucceſsfully as any of their neighbours. Their ſalmons, which they can ſend more early, when prepared, to the Levant and ſouthern markets than the Engliſh and Iriſh can, are of great ſervice to the nation, as the returns are generally made in ſpecie, or beneficial commodities.

This country contains few or no kinds, either of wild or domeſtic animals, that are not common with their neighbours. The red-deer and the roe-buck are found in the Highlands, but their fleſh is not comparable to Engliſh veniſon. Hares, and all other animals for game, are here plentiful; as are the grouſe and heath-cock, which is a moſt delicious bird, as likewiſe are the capparkaily, and the ptarmacan, which is of the pheaſant kind; but theſe birds are ſcarce even in the Highlands, and when diſcovered are very ſhy. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills of Scotland towards the High-

lands, and ſheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and other parts of the ſouth, are almoſt incredible, and formerly brought large ſums into the country; the black cattle eſpecially, which, when fattened on the ſouthern paſtures, have been reckoned ſuperior to Engliſh beef. It is to be hoped, however, that this trade is now on its decline, by the vaſt increaſe of manufactures, whoſe demand for butcher's meat muſt leſſen the importation of cattle into England. Some are of opinion, that a ſufficient ſtock, by proper methods, may be raiſed to ſupply both markets, to the great emolument of the nation.

Formerly the kings of Scotland were at infinite pains to mend the breed of the Scotch horſes, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent; but the truth is, notwithſtanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and ſoil of Scotland was unfavourable to that noble animal, for they diminiſhed both in ſize and ſpirit; ſo that about the time of the Union, few horſes, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts have been made of late to introduce the Engliſh and foreign breeds, and much pains have been taken for providing them with proper food and management, but with what ſucceſs time alone can diſcover.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS AND CUSTOMS, } The population of Scotland is generally fixed at about a million and a half of ſouls. This calculation reſts merely upon vague conjectures, as I know of no attempt that has been made to ſupport even its probability. If we form an eſtimate upon any known principle, the inhabitants of Scotland are far more numerous. It is to be regretted that ſome public encouragement has not been given to bring this matter nearer to a certainty, which might be done by the returns of the clergy from their ſeveral pariſhes. The ſtatiſtical account of Scotland juſt publiſhing will tend, when finiſhed, to aſcertain this queſtion more exactly, tho' even here it is to be feared the liſts returned by the clergy are not always ſufficiently accurate. If we conſult the moſt ancient and creditable hiſtories, the population of Scotland, in the thirteenth century, muſt have been exceſſive, as it afforded ſo many thouſands to fall by the ſwords of the Engliſh, without any ſenſible decreaſe (ſo far as I can find) of the inhabitants. When we conſider the improved ſyſtem of agriculture now pretty generally diffuſed over the kingdom, when we conſider its extended commerce, its manufactures rapidly increaſing, we are warranted to infer a population greatly increaſed; from all theſe circumſtances we may conclude that the population of this kingdom cannot be much over-rated when it is taken at three millions.

The people of Scotland are generally raw-boned: and a kind of characteriſtical feature, that of high cheek-bones, reigns in their faces; they are lean, but clean-limbed, and can endure incredible fatigues. Their adventuring ſpirit was chiefly owing to their laws of ſucceſſion, which inveſted the elder brother, as head of the family, with the inheritance, and left but a very ſcanty portion for the other ſons. This obliged the latter to ſeek their fortunes abroad, though no people have more affection for their native ſoil than the Scots have in general. It is true, this diſparity of fortune among the ſons of one family prevails in England likewiſe; but the reſources which younger brothers have in England are numerous, compared to thoſe of a country ſo narrow, and ſo little improved, either by commerce or agriculture, as Scotland was formerly.

An intelligent reader may eaſily perceive, that the ridiculous family-pride, which is perhaps not yet entirely extinguiſhed in Scotland, was owing to the feudal inſtitutions which prevailed there in all the horrors of blood and barbarity. Their family-differences, eſpecially the Highlanders, familiariſed them to blood and ſlaugher; and the death of an enemy, however effected, was

always a matter of triumph. These passions did not live in the breasts of the common people only, for they were authorised and cherished by their chieftains, many of whom were men who had seen the world, were conversant in the courts of Europe, masters of polite literature, and amiable in all the duties of civil and social life. Their kings, excepting some of them who were endued with extraordinary virtues, were considered in little other light than commanders of their army, in time of war; for in time of peace their civil authority was so little felt, that every clan, or family, even in the most civilised parts of Scotland, looked upon its own chieftain as his sovereign. These ideas were confirmed even by the laws, which gave those petty tyrants a power of life and death upon their own estates; and they generally executed in four and twenty hours after the party was apprehended. The pride which those chieftains had of outvying each other in the number of their followers, created perpetnal animosities, which seldom or never ended without bloodshed; so that the common people, whose best qualification was a blind devotion to the will of their master, and the aggrandizement of his name, lived in a state of continual hostility.

The late Archibald, duke of Argyle, was the first chieftain we have heard of, who had the patriotism to attempt to reform his dependents, and to banish from them those barbarous ideas. His example has been followed by others; and there can scarcely be a doubt, but that a very few years will reconcile the Highlanders to all the milder habits of society.

From what has been said, it appears that the ancient modes of living among the Scotch nobility and gentry, are as far from being applicable to the present time, as the forms of a Roman senate are to that of a popish conclave; and no nation, perhaps, ever underwent so quick and so sudden a transition of manners.

The peasantry have their peculiarities; their ideas are confined; but no people can form their tempers better than they do to their stations. They are taught from their infancy to bridle their passions, to behave submissively to their superiors, and live within the bounds of the most rigid œconomy. Hence they save their money and their constitutions, and few instances of murder, perjury, robbery, and other atrocious vices, occur at present in Scotland. They seldom enter singly upon any daring enterprize; but when they act in concert, the secrecy, sagacity, and resolution, with which they carry on any desperate undertaking, is not to be paralleled; and their fidelity to one another, under the strongest temptations arising from their poverty, is still more extraordinary. Their mobs are managed with all the caution of conspiracies; witness that which put Porteus to death in 1736, in open defiance of law and government, and in the midst of 20,000 people; and though the agents were well known, and some of them tried, with a reward of 500l. annexed to their conviction, yet no evidence could be found sufficient to bring them to punishment. The fidelity of the Highlanders of both sexes, under a still greater temptation, to the young pretender, after his defeat at Culloden, could scarcely be believed, were it not well attested.

They affect a fondness for the memory and language of their forefathers beyond perhaps any people in the world; but this attachment is seldom or never carried into any thing that is indecent or disgustful, though they retain it abroad as well as at home. They are fond of ancient Scotch dishes, such as the haggess, the sheep's head singed, the fish in sauce, the chicken broth, and minced collops. These dishes, in their original dressing, were savoury and nutritive for keen appetites; but the modern improvements that have

have been made in the Scotch cookery have rendered them agreeable to the moſt delicate palates.

The inhabitants of thoſe parts of Scotland, who live chiefly by paſture, have a natural vein for poetry; and the beautiful ſimplicity of the Scotch, tunes is reliſhed by all true judges of nature. Love is generally the ſubject, and many of the airs have been brought upon the Engliſh ſtage with variations, under new names, but with this diſadvantage, that, though rendered more conformable to the rules of muſic, they are moſtly altered for the worſe, being ſtript of their original ſimplicity, which, however irregular, is the moſt eſſential characteriſtic, is ſo agreeable to the ear, and has ſuch powers over the human breaſt. Thoſe of a more lively and merry ſtrain have had better fortune, being introduced into the army in their native dreſs, by the fifes, an inſtrument for which they are remarkably well ſuited. It has been ridiculouſly ſuppoſed that Rizzio, the unhappy Italian ſecretary of Mary queen of Scots, reformed the Scotch muſic. This is a falſehood invented by his country, in envy to the Scots. Their fineſt tunes exiſted in their church muſic, long before Rizzio's arrival; nor does it appear that Rizzio, who was chiefly employed by his miſtreſs in foreign diſpatches, ever compoſed an air during the ſhort time he lived in Scotland; but were there no other evidences to confute this report, the original character of the muſic itſelf is ſufficient.

The lower people in Scotland are not ſo much accuſtomed as the Engliſh are to clubs, dinners, and other convivial entertainments; but when they partake of them, for that very reaſon they ſeem to enjoy them more completely. One inſtitution there is, at once ſocial and charitable, and that is, the contributions raiſed for celebrating the weddings of people of an inferior rank. Thoſe feſtivities partake of the ancient Saturnalia; but though the company conſiſts promiſcuouſly of the high and low, the entertainment is as decent as it is jovial. Each gueſt pays according to his inclination or ability, but ſeldom under a ſhilling a head, for which they have a wedding dinner and dancing. When the parties happen to be ſervants in reſpectable families, the contributions are ſo liberal that they often eſtabliſh the young couple in the world.

The common people of Scotland retain the ſolemn and decent manner of their anceſtors at burials. When a relation dies in a town, the pariſh-beadle is ſent round with a paſſing-bell; but he ſtops at certain places, and with a ſlow melancholy tone announces the name of the party deceaſed and the time of his interment, to which he invites all his fellow countrymen. At the hour appointed, if the deceaſed was beloved in the place, vaſt numbers attend. The proceſſion is ſometimes preceded by the magiſtrates and their officers, as the deceaſed is carried in his coffin, covered by a velvet pall with chair poles, to the grave, where it is interred, without any oration or addreſs to the people, or prayers, or farther ceremony, than the neareſt relation thanking the company for their attendance. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed in much the ſame manner as in England, but without any funeral ſervice. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called *coronachs*, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both ſexes.

Dancing is a favourite amuſement in this country, but little regard is paid to art or gracefulneſs: the whole conſiſts in agility, and in keeping time to their own tunes, which they do with great exactneſs. One of the peculiar diverſions practiſed by the gentlemen, is the *Golff*, which requires an equal degree of art and ſtrength; it is played by a bat and a ball; the latter is ſmaller and harder than a cricket ball: the bat is of a taper conſtruction, till it terminates in the part that ſtrikes the ball, which is loaded with lead and faced with horn.

The diverſion itſelf reſembles that of the *Mall*, which was common in England in the middle of the laſt century. An expert player will ſend the ball an amazing diſtance at one ſtroke; each party follows his ball upon an open heath, and he who ſtrikes it in feweſt ſtrokes into a hole, wins the game. The diverſion of *Curling* is likewiſe peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon ice, with large flat ſtones, often from twenty to two hundred pounds weight each, which they hurl from a common ſtand to a mark at a certain diſtance; and whoever is neareſt the mark is the victor. Theſe two may be called the ſtanding winter and ſummer diverſions in Scotland. The natives are expert at all the other diverſions common in England, *cricket* excepted, of which they have no notion; the gentlemen conſidering it as too athletic and mechanical.

LANGUAGE AND DRESS.] I place theſe two articles under the ſame head, becauſe they had formerly an intimate relation to each other, both of them being evidently Celtic. The Highland plaid is compoſed of a woolen ſtuff, ſometimes very fine, called *tartan*. This conſiſts of various colours, forming ſtripes which croſs each other at right angles; and the natives value themſelves upon the judicious arrangment, or what they call ſetts, of thoſe ſtripes and colours, which, where ſkilfully managed, produce a pleaſing effect to the eye. Above the ſhirt the Highlander wears a waiſtcoat of the ſame compoſition with the plaid, which commonly conſiſts of twelve yards in width, and which they throw over the ſhoulder into very near the form of a Roman toga, as repreſented in ancient ſtatues; ſometimes it is faſtened round the middle with a leathern belt, ſo that part of the plaid hangs down before and behind like a petticoat, and ſupplies the want of breeches. This they call being dreſſed in a *phelig*, but which the Lowlanders call a *kilt*, and which is probably the ſame word with Celt. Sometimes they wear a kind of petticoat of the ſame variegated ſtuff, buckled round the waiſt, and this they term the *philibeg*, which ſeems to be of Mileſian extraction. Their ſtockings are likewiſe of tartan tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into taſſels. The poorer people wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undreſſed leather; for their heads a blue flat cap is uſed, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives and a dagger, which they called a dirk, and an iron piſtol, ſometimes of fine workmanſhip, and curiouſly inlaid with ſilver. The introduction of the broad ſword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard (which was always part of the Highland dreſs), ſeems to be no earlier than the reign of James III. who invited that excellent workman to Scotland. A large leathern purſe, richly adorned with ſilver, hanging before them, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dreſs.

The dreſs of the Highland women conſiſted of a petticoat and jerkin, with ſtrait ſleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer; over this they wore a plaid, which they either held cloſe under their chins with the hand, or faſtened with a buckle of a particular faſhion. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The women's plaid has been but lately diſuſed in Scotland by the ladies, who wore it in a graceful manner, the drapery falling towards the feet in large folds. A curious virtuoſo may find a ſtrong reſemblance between the variegated and fimbriated draperies of the ancients, and thoſe of the Tuſcans (who were unqueſtionably of Celtic original) as they are to be ſeen in the monuments of antiquity.

The attachment of Highlanders to this dreſs rendered it a bond of union,

which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts had been made by the legiſlature, after the rebellion in 1715, to diſarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dreſſes. The diſarming ſcheme was the moſt ſucceſsful; for when the rebellion in 1745, broke out, the common people had ſcarcely any other arms than thoſe which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legiſlature to force them into a total change of their dreſs. Its conveniency, however, for the purpoſes of the field, is ſo great, that ſome of the Highland regiments ſtill retain it. Even the common people have of late reſumed the uſe of it; and for its lightneſs and the freedom it gives to the body, many of the Highland gentlemen wear it in the ſummer time.

The dreſs of the higher and middle ranks of the Low country differs little or nothing from the Engliſh; but many of the peaſantry ſtill retain the bonnet, for the cheapneſs and lightneſs of the wear. The dreſs of the women of all ranks is much the ſame in both kingdoms, but not ſo as to their neatneſs, and the cleanlineſs of the female ſervants.

I have already mentioned the language of the Highlanders, eſpecially towards Lochaber and Badenoch, to be radically Celtic. The Engliſh ſpoken by the Scots, notwithſtanding its provincial articulations, which are as frequent there as in the more ſouthern counties, is written in the ſame manner in both kingdoms. At preſent the pronunciation of a Scotchman is greatly improving, and with ſome does not differ from the pronunciation of a Londoner, more than that of a Londoner does from an inhabitant of Somerſetſhire, and ſome parts of Worceſterſhire.

PUNISHMENTS.] Theſe are pretty much the ſame in Scotland as in England, beheading uſed to be performed by an inſtrument called the Maiden; the model of which, it is well known, was brought from Halifax in England to Scotland, by the regent earl Morton, and it was firſt uſed for the execution of himſelf.

RELIGION.] Ancient Scottiſh hiſtorians, with Bede, and other writers, generally agree that Chriſtianity was firſt taught in Scotland by ſome of the diſciples, of St. John the Apoſtle, who fled to this northern corner to avoid the perſecution of Domitian, the Roman emperor; though it was not publicly profeſſed till the beginning of the third century, when a prince, whom Scotch hiſtorians called Donald the Firſt, his queen, and ſeveral of his nobles, were ſolemnly baptiſed. It was farther confirmed by emigrations from South Britain, during the perſecutions of Aurelius and Dioclefian, when it became the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland, under the management of certain learned and pious men, named Culdees, who ſeem to have been the firſt regular clergy in Scotland, and were governed by overſeers or biſhops choſen by themſelves, from among their own body, and who had no pre-eminence of rank over the reſt of their brethren.

Thus, independent of the church of Rome, Chriſtianity ſeems to have been taught, planted, and finally confirmed in Scotland as a national church, when it flouriſhed in its native ſimplicity, till the arrival of Palladius, a prieſt ſent by the biſhop of Rome in the fifth century, who found means to introduce the modes and ceremonies of the Romiſh church, which at length prevailed, and Scotland became involved in that darkneſs which for ages overſpread Europe; though their dependance upon the pope was very ſlender, when compared to the blind ſubjection of many other nations.

The Culdees, however, long retained their original manners, and remained a diſtinct order, notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the Romiſh clergy, ſo late as the age of Robert Bruce in the 14th century, when they diſappeared.

But

But it is worthy of obſervation, that the oppoſition to popery in this iſland, though it ceaſed in Scotland upon the extinction of the Culdees, was in the ſame age revived in England by John Wickliffe, a man of parts and learning, who was the forerunner in the work of reformation, to John Huſs and Jerom of Prague, as the latter were to Martin Luther and John Calvin. But though the doctrines of Wickliffe were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the 16th century, and the age ſeemed greatly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for that great revolution; and the finiſhing blow to popery in England was reſerved to the age of Henry VIII.

Soon after that important event took place in England, when learning, arts, and ſciences, began to revive in Europe, the abſurdities of the church of Rome, as well as the profligate lives of her clergy, did not eſcape the notice of a free and enquiring people, but gave riſe to the Reformation in Scotland. It began in the reign of James V. made great progreſs under that of his daughter Mary, and was at length compleated through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and in a degree was the apoſtle of Scotland. It was natural for his brethren to imagine, that upon the abolition of the Roman Catholic Religion, they were to ſucceed to the revenues of that clergy. The great nobility, who had parcelled out thoſe poſſeſſions for themſelves, did not at firſt diſcourage this notion; but no ſooner had Knox ſucceeded in his deſigns, which through the fury of the mob deſtroyed ſome of the fineſt eccleſiaſtical buildings in the world, than the parliament, or rather the nobility, monopolized all the church livings, and moſt ſcandalouſly left the reformed clergy to live almoſt in a ſtate of beggary; nor could all their efforts produce any great ſtruggle or alteration in their favour.

The nobility and great landholders left the doctrine and diſcipline of the church to be modelled by the preachers, and they were confirmed by parliament. Succeeding times rendered the preſbyterian clergy of vaſt importance to the ſtate: and their revenus have been ſo much mended, that though no ſtipend there exceeds 150l. a year, few fall ſhort of 60l. and none of 50l. If the preſent expenſive mode of living continues in Scotland, the eſtabliſhed clergy will have many unanſwerable reaſons to urge for the increaſe of their revenues.

The bounds of this work do not admit of entering at large npon the doctrinal and œconomical part of the church of Scotland. It is ſufficient to ſay, that its firſt principle is a parity of eccleſiaſtical authority among all its preſbyters; that it agrees in its cenſures with the reformed churches abroad in the chief heads of oppoſition to popery; but that it is modelled principally after the Calviniſtical plan eſtabliſhed at Geneva. This eſtabliſhment, at various periods, proved ſo tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of the greater and leſſer excommunication, which were attended by a forfeiture of eſtate, and ſometimes life, that the kirk ſeſſions, and other bodies, have been abridged of all their dangerous powers over the laity, who are extremely jealous of their being revived. It is ſaid, that even that relique of popery, the obliging fornicators of both ſexes to ſit upon what they call a repenting ſtool, in the church, and in full view of the congregation, begins to wear out; it having been found, that the Scotch women, on account of that penance, were the greateſt infanticides in the world. In ſhort, the power of the Scotch clergy is at preſent very moderate, or at leaſt very moderately exerciſed; nor are they accountable for the extravagancies of their predeceſſors.

They have been, ever ſince the Revolution, firm adherents to civil liberty, and the houſe of Hanover; and acted with remarkable intrepidity during the rebellion in 1745. They dreſs without clerical robes: but ſome of them appear in the pulpit in gowns, after the Geneva form, and bands. They make no uſe of ſet forms in worſhip, but are not prohibited that of the Lord's Prayer. The rents of the biſhops, ſince the abolition of epiſcopacy, are paid to the king, who commonly appropriates them to pious purpoſes. A thouſand pounds a year is always ſent by his majeſty for the uſe of proteſtant ſchools erected by act of parliament in North Britain, and the Weſtern iſles; and the Scotch clergy, of late, have planned out funds for the ſupport of their widows and orphans. The number of pariſhes in Scotland are eight hundred and ninety, whereof thirty one are collegiate churches, that is, where the cure is ſerved by more than one miniſter.

The higheſt eccleſiaſtical authority in Scotland is the general aſſembly, which we may call the eccleſiaſtical parliament of Scotland. It conſiſts of commiſſioners, ſome of which are laymen, under the title of ruling elders, from preſbyteries, royal burghs and univerſities. A preſbytery, conſiſting of under twelve miniſters, ſends two miniſters and one ruling elder: if it contains between twelve and eighteen miniſters, it ſends three and one ruling elder; if it contains between eighteen and twenty-four miniſters, it ſends four miniſters and two ruling elders; but if the preſbytery has twenty-four miniſters, it ſends five miniſters and two ruling elders. Every royal burgh ſends one ruling elder, and Edinburgh two; whoſe election muſt be atteſted by the reſpective kirk ſeſſions of their own burghs. Every univerſity ſends one commiſſioner, uſually a miniſter of their own body. Theſe commiſſioners are choſen yearly, ſix weeks before the meeting of the aſſembly. The ruling elders are often of the firſt quality of the country.

The king preſides by his commiſſioner (who is always a nobleman) in this aſſembly, which meets once a-year: but he has no voice in their deliberations. The order of their proceedings is regular, though the number of members often creates a confuſion; which the moderator who is choſen by them to be as it were ſpeaker of the houſe, has not ſufficient authority to prevent. Appeals are brought from all the other eccleſiaſtical courts in Scotland to the general aſſembly; and no appeal lies from its determination in religious matters.

Provincial ſynods are next in authority to the general aſſembly. They are compoſed of a number of the adjacent preſbyteries, over whom they have a power; and there are fifteen of them in Scotland; but their acts are reverſible by the general aſſembly.

Subordinate to the ſynods are preſbyteries, ſixty-nine of which are in Scotland, each conſiſting of a number of contiguous pariſhes. The miniſters of theſe pariſhes, with one ruling elder, choſen half yearly out of every ſeſſion, compoſes a preſbytery. Theſe preſbyteries meet in the head town of that diviſion; but have no juriſdiction beyond their own bounds, though within theſe they have cogniſance of all eccleſiaſtical cauſes and matters. A chief part of their buſineſs is the ordination of candidates for livings, in which they are regular and ſolemn. The patron of a living is bound to nominate or preſent in ſix months after a vacancy, otherwiſe the preſbytery fills the place *jure devoluto*; but that privilege does not hold in royal burghs.

A kirk ſeſſion is the loweſt eccleſiaſtic judicatory in Scotland, and its authority does not extend beyond its own pariſh. The members conſiſt of the miniſters, elders and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act pretty much as churchwardens do in England, by having the ſuperintendency of the poor, and taking care of other parochial affairs. The elder, or, as he is

called, the ruling elder, is a place of great parochial trnſt, and he is generally a lay-perſon of quality or intereſt in the pariſh. They are ſuppoſed to act in a kind of co-ordinacy with the miniſter, and to be aſſiſting to him in many of his clerical duties, particularly in catechiſing, viſiting the ſick, and at the communion-table.

The office of miniſters, or preaching preſbyters, includes the offices of deacons and ruling elders; they alone can preach, adminiſter the ſacraments, catechiſe, pronounce church cenſures, ordain deacons and ruling-elders, aſſiſt at the impoſition of hands upon other miniſters, and moderate or preſide in all eccleſiaſtical judicatories.

It has already been obſerved that the eſtabliſhed religion of Scotland is preſbyterian; that it was formerly of a rigid nature, and partook of all the auſterities of Calviniſm, and of too much of the intolerance of popery, but at preſent it is mild and gentle, and the ſermons and other theological writings of many of the modern Scotch divines, are equally diſtinguiſhed by good ſenſe and moderation. It is to be wiſhed, however, that this moderation was not too often interrupted by the fanaticiſm not only of lay ſeceders, but of regular miniſters. Theſe are induſtrious to fix upon the abſurdities of former divines and viſionaries, and eccleſiaſtical ordinances and diſcipline which were ſuppoſed to be incompatible with the nature of government. A vaſt nnmber of theſe ſeceding congregations are to be found in tho Lowlands. They maintain their own preachers, though ſcarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other. We do not, however, find that they fly in the face of the civil power, or at leaſt the inſtances are rare and inconſiderable: and perhaps many of theſe *ſeceſſions* are lawful, or to be juſtified on account of the great abuſes of patronages, by which many pariſhes have unworthy or incapable miniſters impoſed upon them, as is the caſe in many places in England.

A different ſet of diſſenters, in Scotland, conſiſt of the epiſcopalians, a few quakers, many baptiſts, and other ſectaries, who are denominated from their preachers. Epiſcopacy, from the time of the Reſtoration in 1660, to that of the Revolution in 1688, was the eſtabliſhed church of Scotland; and would probably have continued ſo, had not the biſhops, who were in general very weak men, and creatures of the duke of York, afterwards James VII. and II. refuſed to recogniſe king William's title. The partiſans of that unhappy prince retained the epiſcopal religion; and king William's government was rendered ſo unpopular in Scotland, that in queen Anne's time, the epiſcopalians were more numerous in ſome parts than the preſbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, as well attended. A Scotch epiſcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received ſome checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themſelves ſo well, that at the breaking out of the rebellion in 1745, they became again numerous, after which the goverment found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, but thinly. In the mean while, the decline of the nonjurors is far from having ſuppreſſed epiſcopacy in Scotland; the Engliſh biſhops ſupply them with clergy qualified according to law, whoſe chapels are chiefly filled by the Engliſh, and ſuch Scotch hearers of that perſuaſion as have places under the government.

The defection of ſome great families from the cauſe of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries inconſiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the iſlands: and though a violent oppoſition was lately raiſed againſt them, fearing their liberties were about to be enlarged, they appear to be as quiet and inoffenſive as proteſtant ſubjects.

Scotland, during the time of epiſcopacy, contained two archbiſhoprics, St. Andrew's and Glaſgow; and twelve biſhopricks, Edinburgh, Dunkeld, Aberdeen, Murray, Brechin, Dumblain, Roſs, Caithneſs, Orkney, Galloway, Argyle, and the Iſles.

LEARNING, AND LEARNED MEN.] For this article we may refer to the literary hiſtory of Europe for 1400 years paſt. The weſtern parts and iſles of Scotland produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apoſtle of Ireland; and many others ſince, whoſe names would make a long article. The writings of Adamnarus, and other authors, who lived before, and at the time of the Norman invaſion, which are come to our hands, are ſpecimens of their learning. Charles the Great, or Charlemagne, moſt unqueſtionably held a correſpondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he formed a famous league; and employed Scotchmen in planning, ſettling and ruling his favourite univerſities, and other ſeminaries of learning in France, Italy, and Germany. It is an undoubted truth, though a ſeeming paradoxical fact, that Barbour, a Scotch poet, philoſopher, and hiſtorian, though prior in time to Chaucer, having flouriſhed in the year 1368, wrote, according to the modern ideas, as pure Engliſh as that bard, and his verſification is perhaps more harmonious. The deſtruction of the Scotch monuments of learning and antiquity have rendered their early annals lame, and often fabulous: but the Latin ſtyle of Buchanan's hiſtory is to this day the moſt claſſical of all modern productions. The letters of the Scotch kings to the neighbouring princes, are incomparably the fineſt compoſition of the times in which they were written, and are free from the barbariſms of thoſe ſent them in anſwer. This has been conſidered as a proof, that claſſical learning was more cultivated at the court of Scotland than at any other in Europe.

The diſcovery of the logarithms, a diſcovery which in point of ingenuity and utility may vie with any that has been made in modern times, is the indiſputable right of Napier of Merchiſtone. And ſince his time, the mathematical ſciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great ſucceſs. Keil, in his phyſico-mathematical works, to the clearneſs of his reaſoning has added the colouring of a poet, which is the more remarkable, not only as the ſubject is little ſuſceptible of ornament, but as he wrote in an ancient language. Of all writers on aſtronomy, Gregory is allowed to be one of the moſt perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the companion and the friend of ſir Iſaac Newton, was endowed with all that preciſion and force of mind, which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehenſions, and for diffuſing that light through the world, which Newton had confined within the ſphere of the learned. His Treatiſe on Fluxions is regarded by the beſt judges in Europe, as the cleareſt account of the moſt refined and ſubtile ſpeculations on which the human mind ever exerted itſelf with ſucceſs. While Maclaurin purſued this new career, a geometrician no leſs famous diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the ſure, but almoſt deſerted, tract of antiquity. This was the late Dr. Simſon, ſo well known over Europe for his illuſtration of the ancient geometry. His Elements of Euclid, above all his Conic Sections, are ſufficient of themſelves to eſtabliſh the ſcientific reputation of his native country.

This however, does not reſt on the character of a few mathematicians and aſtronomers: the fine arts have been called ſiſters to denote their affinity. There is the ſame connection between the ſciences, particularly thoſe which depend on obſervation. Mathematics and phyſics, properly ſo called, were in Scotland accompanied by the other branches of ſtudy to which they are al-

allied. In medicine particularly, the names of Pitcairn, Arbuthnot, Monro, Smelie, Whytt, Cullen, and Gregory, hold a diſtinguiſhed place.

Nor have the Scots been unſucceſsful in cultivating the Belles Lettres. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderneſs and feeling, are aſtoniſhed at the poetic genius and delicate ſenſibility of Thomſon.

But of all literery purſuits, that of rendering mankingind more virtuous and happy, which is the proper object of what is called *morals*, ought to be regarded with peculiar honour and reſpect. The philoſophy of Dr. Hutcheſon, not to mention other works more ſubtile and elegant, but leſs convincing and leſs inſtructive, deſerves to be read by all who would know their duty, or who would wiſh to practiſe it. Next to Locke's Eſſay on the Hman Underſtanding, it is perhaps the beſt diſſection of the human mind that hath appeared in modern times; and it is likewiſe the moſt uſeful ſupplement to that Eſſay.

It would be endleſs to mention all the individuals whe have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the various branches of literature; particularly as thoſe who are alive (ſome of them in high eſteem for hiſtorical compoſition) diſpute the palm of merit with the dead, and cover their country with laurels, which neither envy can blaſt, nor time can deſtroy.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Scotland are four, viz. St. Andrews *, founded in 1411.—Glaſgow †, 1454.—Aberdeen ‡, 1477.—And Edinburgh ‖, 1582.

It is with pleaſure we inform our readers, that a conſiderable progreſs has been made in the erection of a new univerſity at Edinburgh, to which our moſt gracious ſovereign has been a very liberal benefactor. This edifice promiſes to be a noble monument of national taſte and ſpirit.

* St. Andrews has a Chancellor, two Principals, and eleven Profeſſors in

Greek,	Moral Philoſophy,	Church Hiſtory,
Humanity,	Natural Philoſophy,	Divinity,
Hebrew,	Mathematics,	Medicine.
Logic,	Civil Hiſtory,	

† Glaſgow has a Chancellor, Rector, Dean of Faculty, Principal, and fourteen Profeſſors in

Greek,	Moral Philoſophy,	Divinity,
Humanity,	Natural Philoſophy,	Civil and Scotch Law,
Hebrew,	Mathematics.	Medicine,
Oriental Languages,	Practical Aſtronomy,	Anatomy.
Logic,	Hiſtory,	

‡ Aberdeen has properly two Colleges, viz. King's College, and Mariſchal College: King's College has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors in

Greek,	Phiilofophy,	Civil Law,
Humanity,	Divinty,	Medicine.
Oriental Languages.		

Mariſchal college has a Chancellor, Rector, Principal, and ſeven Profeſſors of

Greek,	Natural Philoſophy,	Divinity.
Oriental Languages,	Mathematics,	Medecine,
Moral Philoſophy and Logic,		

‖ Edinburgh has a Patron, Principal, and Profeſſors in

Divinity,	Mathematics,	Materia Medica,
Church Hiſtory,	Civil Hiſtory,	Inſt. of Phyſic and Medicine,
Greek,	Natural Hiſtory,	
Humanity,	Scotch Law,	Practice of Medicine,
Hebrew,	Civil Law,	Chemiſtry.
Logic,	Law of Nature and Nations,	Anatomy,
Moral Philoſophy,	Rhetoric and Belles Letfres,	Midwifery.
Natural Philoſophy,	Botany,	

CITIES,

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, naturally takes the lead in this diviſion, which the bounds of our work oblige us to contract. The caſtle, before the uſe of artillery, was deemed impregnable by force. It was probably built by the Saxon king Edwin, whoſe territory reached to the Frith of Forth, and who gave his name to Edinburgh, as it certainly did not fall into the hands of the Scots till the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the caſtle, and a more inconvenient ſituation for a capital can ſcarcely be conceived; the High-ſtreet which is on the ridge of a hill lying eaſt and weſt; and the lanes running down its ſides north and ſouth. In former times, the town was ſurrounded by water, excepting towards the eaſt; ſo that when the French landed in Scotland, during the regency of Mary of Guiſe, they gave it the name of Liſlebourg. This ſituation ſuggeſted the idea of building very lofty houſes divided into ſtories, each of which contains a ſuite of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the uſe of a family; ſo that the High-ſtreet of Edinburgh, which is chiefly of hewn ſtone, broad, and well paved, makes a moſt auguſt appearance, eſpecially as it riſes a full mile in a direct line and gradual aſcent from the palace of Holyrood-houſe on the eaſt, and is terminated on the weſt by the rude majeſty of its caſtle, built upon a lofty rock, inacceſſible on all ſides except where it joins to the city. The caſtle not only overlooks the city, its environs, gardens, the new town, and a fine rich neighbouring country, but commands a moſt extenſive proſpect of the rixer Forrh, the ſhipping, the oppoſite coaſt of Fife, and even ſome hills at the diſtance of 40 or 50 miles, which border upon the Highlands. This crowded population, however, was ſo ſhockingly inconvenient, that the Engliſh who ſeldom went farther into the country, returned with the deepeſt impreſſion of Scotch naſtineſs, which became a proverbial. The caſtle has ſome good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and has not only a large magazine of arms and ammunition, but contains the regalia, which were depoſited here under the moſt ſolemn legal inſtruments of their never being removed from thence. All that is known at preſent of thoſe regalia, is contained in the inſtrument which was taken at the time of their being depoſited, where they are fully deſcribed.

Facing the caſtle, as I have already obſerved, at a mile's diſtance, ſtands the abbey, or rather palace of Holyrood-houſe. The inner quadrangle of this palace, begun by James V. and finiſhed by Chales I. is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan, and under the direction of Sir William Bruce, a Scotch gentleman of family, and one of the greateſt architects of that age. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilaſters: and the inſide contains magnificent appartments for the duke of Hamilton, who is hereditary keeper of the palace, and for other noblemen. Its long gallery contains figures, ſome of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern hands, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the revolution. James VII. when duke of York, intended to have made great improvements about this palace; for at preſent nothing can be more uncomfortable than its ſituation, at the bottom of bleak, unimproved crags and mountains, with ſcarcely a ſingle tree in its neighbourhood. The chapel belonging to the palace, as it ſtood when repaired and ornamented by that prince, is thought to have been a moſt elegant piece of Gothic architecture. It had a very lofty roof, and two rooms of ſtone galleries, ſupported by curious pillars. It was the conventual church of the old abbey. Its inſide was demoliſhed and rifled of all its rich ornaments, by the fury of the mob at the Revolution, which even broke into the repoſi-

tories

tories of the dead, and diſcovered a vault till that time unknown, which contained the bodies of James V. his firſt queen, and Henry Darnley. The walls and roof of this ancient chapel gave way and fell down on the 2d and 3d of December, 1768, occaſioned by the enormous weight of a new ſtone roof, laid over it ſome years before, which the walls were unable to ſupport.

The hoſpital, founded by George Herriot, goldſmith to James VI. commonly called Herriot's Work, ſtands to the ſouth-weſt of the caſtle, in a noble ſituation. It is the fineſt and moſt regular ſpecimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to queen Anne, wife of king James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeding any thing of that kind to be ſeen in England. One Balcanguhille, a divine, whom Herriot left his executor, is ſaid to have prevailed upon Jones to admit ſome barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have inſiſted that the ornaments of each ſhould be ſomewhat different from thoſe of the others. It is, notwithſtanding, upon the whole, a delightful fabric, and adorned with gardens not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradeſmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magiſtrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of a univerſity, founded by king James VI. and by him put under the direction of the magiſtrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. Little can be ſaid of its buildings, which were calculated for the ſober literary manners of thoſe days; they are however, improveable, and may be rendered elegant. What is of far more importance, it is ſupplied with excellent profeſſors in the ſeveral branches of learning; and its ſchools for every part of the medical art are reckoned equal to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which is ſaid to have been of late greatly augmented, and a muſeum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour a phyſician. It contains ſeveral natural, and ſome literary curioſities, which one would little expect to find at Edinburgh.

The Parliament Square, or, as it is there called, Cloſe, was formerly the moſt ornamental part of this city: it is formed into a very noble quadrangle, part of which conſiſts in lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equeſtrian ſtatue of Charles II. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament-houſe, though not ſo large, is better proportioned than Weſtminſter-hall; and its roof, though executed in the ſame manner, has been by good judges held to be ſuperior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a ſingle judge, called the lord ordinary, preſides by rotation: in a room near it, ſit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, ſhrievalty, and magiſtracy of Edinburgh; and the valuable library of the lawyers. This equals any thing of the kind to be found in England, or perhaps in any part of Europe, and was at firſt entirely founded and furniſhed by lawyers. The number of printed books it contains are amazing: and the collection has been made with exquiſite taſte and judgment. It contains likewiſe the moſt valuable manuſcript remains of the Scotch hiſtory, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, with a ſeries of medals. Adjoining the library, is the room where the public records are kept; but both it, and that which contains the library, though lofty in the roof, are miſerably dark and diſmal. It is ſaid that preparations are now carrying on, for lodging both the books and papers in rooms far better ſuited to their importance and value.

The High Church of Edinburgh, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room where the general aſſembly ſits. It is a large Gothic building, and its ſteeple is ſurmounted by arches, formed into an imperial crown, which has a good effect to the eye. The churches, and other edifices of the city, erected before the Union, contain little but what is common to ſuch buildings; but the excellent pavement of the city, which was begun two centuries ago by one Merlin, a Frenchman, deſerves particular attention.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, ſuch as the Exchange, public offices, its hoſpitals, bridges, and the like, demonſtrate the vaſt improvement of the taſte of the Scots in their public works. Parallel to the city of Edinburgh, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, have almoſt completed a new town, upon a plan which does honour to the preſent age. The ſtreets and Squares are laid out with the utmoſt regularity, and the houſes are built of ſtone, in an elegant taſte, with all the conveniencies that render thoſe of England ſo delightful and commodious. The fronts of ſome are ſuperbly finiſhed in all the beauties of architecture diſplaying at the ſame time the judgment of the builder, and the public ſpirit of the proprietor.

Between the old and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, which, agreeable to the original plan, was to have been formed into a ſheet of water, bordered by a terrace walk, and the aſcent towards the new town covered with pleaſure gardens, ſhrubberies, &c. But this elegant deſign fell to nothing, through the narrow ideas of the magiſtrates, who, finding greater benefits by letting the ground to inferior tradeſmen, upon building leaſes, this ſpot, formed by nature as an agreeable opening to a crowded city, became a nuiſance to thoſe gentlemen who had been ſo liberal in ornamenting the buildings upon the ſummit. A deciſion of the Houſe of Lords (in which a certain great luminary of the law, equally diſtinguiſhed for his taſte and good ſenſe, heartily concurred) put a ſtop to theſe mean erections. At the weſt, or upper end of this vale, the caſtle, a ſolid rock not leſs than twenty ſtories high, looks down with awful magnificence. The eaſtern extremity is bounded by a ſtriking object of art, a lofty bridge, the middle arch being ninety feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the deſcent on each ſide the vale (there being no water in this place) more commodious for carriages. I am the more particular in deſcribing this place, that the reader may form ſome idea of its pleaſant ſituation, ſtanding on an eminence, with a gentle declivity on each ſide, in the heart of a rich country; the view ſouthward, that of a romantic city, its more romantic caſtle, and diſtant hills riſing to an amazing height; while the proſpect northward gives full ſcope to the eye, pleaſes the imagination, and fills the mind with ſuch ideas as the works of nature alone can inſpire. One agreeable proſpect, however, is ſtill wanting, a handſome clean inn or tavern, with a genteel coffee-room towards the ſide which overlooks the Forth; and which might eaſily be accompliſhed by ſubſcription, and from the great reſort of travellers, could not fail to bring a profitable return.

Edinburgh may be conſidered, notwithſtanding its caſtle, and an open wall which encloſes it on the ſouth ſide of a very modern fabric, but in the Roman manner, as an open town; ſo that in fact it would have been impracticable for its inhabitants to have defended it againſt the rebels, who took poſſeſſion of it in 1745. Edinburgh contains a play-houſe, which has now the ſanction of an act of parliament; and concerts, aſſemblies, balls, muſic-meetings, and other polite amuſements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of his majeſty's dominions, London and Bath excepted.

Edinburgh

Edinburgh is governed by a lord proveſt, four bailies, a dean of guild, and a treaſurer, annually choſen from the common council. Every company, or incorporated trade, chooſes its own deacon, and here are 14; namely, ſurgeons, goldſmiths ſkinners, furriers, hammer-men, wrights or carpenters, maſons, taylors, bakers, butchers, cordwainers, weavers, fullers, and bonnet-makers. The lord provoſt, is colonel of the town-guard, a military inſtitution to be found in no part of his majeſty's dominions but at Edinburgh; they ſerve for the city-watch, and patrole the ſtreets, are uſeful in ſuppreſſing ſmall commotions, and attend the execution of ſentences npon delinquents. They are divided into three companies, and wear an uniform; they are immediately commanded by three officers under the name of captains. Beſides this guard, Edinburgh raiſes ſixteen companies of trained bands, which ſerve as militia. The revenues of the city conſiſt chiefly of that tax which is now common in moſt of the bodies corporate in Scotland, of two Scotch pennies, amounting in the whole to two thirds of a farthing, laid on every Scotch pint of ale (containing two Engliſh quarts) conſumed within the precincts of the city. This is a moſt judicious impoſt, as it renders the pooreſt people inſenſible of the burthen. Its product, however, has been ſufficient to defray the expence of ſupplying the city with excellent water, brought in leaden pipes at the diſtance of four miles; of erecting reſervoirs, enlarging the harbour of Leith, of completing other public works, of great expence and utility.

Leith, though near two miles diſtant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the ſame juriſdiction. It contains nothing remarkable but the remains of two citadels (if they are not the ſame), which were fortified and bravely defended by the French, under Mary of Guiſe, againſt the Engliſh, and afterwards repaired by Cromwell. The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble ſeats, which are daily increaſing: ſome of them yield to few in England; but they are too numerous to be particularized here. I cannot however avoid mentioning the earl of Abercorn's, a ſhort way from the city, the duke of Buccleugh's houſe at Dalkeith, that of the marquis of Lothian at New-bottle, and Hopton-houſe, ſo called from the earl its owner. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roſlin, noted for a ſtately Gothic chapel, counted one of the moſt curious pieces of workmanſhip in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburgh.

Glaſgow, in the ſhire of Lanerk, ſituated on a gentle declivity ſloping towards the river Clyde, 44 miles weſt of Edinburgh, is, for population, commerce and riches, the ſecond city of Scotland, and, conſidering its ſize, the firſt in Great Britain, and perhaps in Europe, as to elegance, regularity, and the beautiful materials of its buildings. The ſtreets croſs each other at right angles, and are broad, ſtraight, well paved, and conſequently clean. The houſes make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five ſtories high, and many of them towards the centre of the city, are ſnpported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificenee. Some of the modern built churches are in the fineſt ſtyle of architecture: and the cathedral is a ſtupendous Gothic building, hardly to be paralleled in that kind of architecture. It contains three churches, one of which ſtands above another, and is furniſhed with a very fine ſpire ſpringing from a tower; the whole being reckoned a maſterly and matchleſs fabric. It was dedicated to St. Mungo, or Kentigern, who was a biſhop of Glaſgow in the 6th century. The cathedral is upwards of 600 years old, and was preſerved from the fury of the rigid Reformers by the reſolution of the citizens. The town-houſe

is a lofty building, and has very noble apartments for the magiſtrates. The univerſity is eſteemed the moſt ſpacious and beſt built of any in Scotland, and is at preſent in a thriving ſtate. In this city are ſeveral well endowed hoſpitals; and it is particularly well ſupplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of ſtrangers of any rank. There are two bridges built acroſs the river Clyde; but our bounds do not allow us to particularize theſe, and the other public-ſpirited undertakings of this city carrying on by the inhabitants who do honour to the benefits ariſing from their vaſt commerce, both foreign and internal; which they carry on with amazing ſucceſs. In Glaſgow are ſeven churches and eight or ten meeting houſes for ſectaries of various denominations. The number of its inhabitants have been eſtimated at 70,000.

Aberdeen is rapidly advancing both in improvement and population. It is the capital of a ſhire, to which it gives its name, and contains two towns, New and Old Aberdeen. The former is the ſhire town, and evidently built for the purpoſe of commerce. It is a large well-built city, and has a good quay, or tide harbour: in it are three churches, and ſeveral epiſcopal meeting-houſes, a conſiderable degree of foreign commerce and much ſhipping, a well frequented univerſity, and above 20,000 inhabitants. Old Aberdeen, near a mile diſtant, though almoſt joined to the New, by means of a long village, has no dependence on the other: it is a moderately large market-town, but has no haven. In each of theſe two places there is a well-endowed college, both together being termed the univerſity of Aberdeen, although quite independent of each other.

Perth, the capital town of Perthſhire, lying on the river Tay, trades to Norway and the Baltic; is finely ſituated, has an improving linen manufactory, and lies in the neighbourhood of one of the moſt fertile ſpots in Great Britain, called the Carſe of Gowry. Dundee, by an enumeration in 1788, contains about 24,000 inhabitants: it lies near the mouth of the river Tay; it is a town of conſiderable trade, exporting much linen, grain, herrings, and peltry, to ſundry foreign parts; and has three churches. Montroſe, Aberbrothick, and Brechin, lie in the ſame county of Angus: the firſt has a great and flouriſhing trade, and the manufactures of the other two are upon the thriving hand.

It may be neceſſary again to put the reader in mind, that I write with great uncertainty with regard to the population of Scotland, on account of its improving ſtate. I have rather under than over-rated the number of inhabitants in the towns I have mentioned; for the influx of the people, and the increaſe of matrimony in proportion to that of property, muſt create great alterarions for the better and few for the worſe, becauſe the inhabitants who are diſpoſed to induſtry may always find employment. This uncertainty is the reaſon why I omit a particular deſcription of Dumfries, Air, Greenock, Paiſley, Stirling, and about 50 other burghs and towns of very conſiderable trade in Scotland.

The ancient Scots valued themſelves upon truſting to their own valour, and not to fortifications, for the defence of their country. This was a maxim more heroical perhaps than prudent, as they have often experienced; and, indeed, at this day, their forts would make but a ſorry figure, if regularly attacked. The caſtles of Edinburgh, Stirling, and Dumbarton, formerly thought places of great ſtrength, could not hold out 48 hours, if beſieged by 6000 regular troops, with proper artillery. Fort William which lies in the Weſt highlands, is ſufficient to bridle the inhabitants of that neighbourhood;

as are Fort George, and Fort Auguſtus, in the north and north-weſt; but none of them can be conſidered as defences againſt a foreign enemy.

I ſhall not pretend to enter upon a deſcription of the noble edifices that, within the courſe of this and the laſt century, have been erected for private perſons in Scotland becauſe they are ſo numerous that to particulariſe them exceeds the bounds of my plan. It is ſufficient to ſay, that many of them are equal to ſome of the moſt ſuperb buildings in England and foreign countries, and the reader's ſurpriſe at this will ceaſe, when he is informed that the genius of no people in the world is more devoted to architecture thaa that of the nobility and gentry in Scotland; and that there is no country in Europe, on account of the cheapneſs of materials, where it can be gratified at ſo moderate an expence. This may likewiſe account for the ſtupenduous Gothic cathedrals, and other religious edifices, which anciently abounded in Scotland; but at the time of the Reformation they were moſtly demoliſhed, by a furious and moſt tumultuous mob, who, in theſe practices, received too much countenance from the reforming clergy, exaſperated at the long and ſore ſufferings they had endured from the popiſh party.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The Roman and other antiquities found in Scotland, have of themſelves furniſhed matter for large volumes. The ſtations of the Roman legions, their caſtella, their pretentures or walls reaching acroſs the iſland, have been traced with great preciſion by antiquaries and hiſtorians; ſo that, without ſome freſh diſcoveries, an account of them could afford no inſtruction to the learned, and but little amuſement to the ignorant; becauſe at preſent they can be diſcovered only by critical eyes. Some mention of the chief, however may be proper. The courſe of the Roman wall (or as it is called by the country people, *Graham's Dyke*, from a tradition that a Scottiſh warrior of that name firſt broke over it), between the Clyde and Forth, which was firſt marked out by Agricola, and completed by Antoninus Pius, is ſtill diſcernible, as are ſeveral Roman camps in the neighbourhood *. Agricola's camp, at the bottom of the Grampian hills, is a ſtriking remain of Roman antiquity. It is ſituated at Ardoch, in Perthſhire, and is generally thought to have been the camp occupied by Agricola, before he fought the bloody battle, ſo well recorded by Tacitus, with Galgacus, the Caledonian king, who was defeated. Some writers think, that this remain of antiquity at Ardoch, was, on account of the numerous Roman coins and inſcriptions found near it, a Roman caſtellum or fort. Be that as it will, it certainly is the moſt entire and beſt preſerved of any Roman antiquity of that kind in North Britain, having no leſs than five rows of ditches, and ſix ramparts on the ſouth ſide; and of the four gates which lead

* Near the weſtern extremity of this wall, at Duntocher, in Dumbartonſhire, a countryman, in digging a trench on the declivity of a hill, upon which are ſeen the remains of a Roman fort, turned up ſeveral uncommon tiles, which exciting the curioſity of the peaſantry in that neighbourhood, it was not long before they broke in upon an entire ſubterraneous building, from which they dug out a cart-load of theſe materials. A gentleman, who was then upon a journey through that part of Scotland, found means, upon the ſecond day, to ſtop all farther proceedings, in hopes that ſome public ſpirited perſons would, by taking off the ſurface, explore the whole without demoliſhing it. The tiles are of ſeven different ſizes; the ſmalleſt being ſeven, and the largeſt twenty-one inches ſquare. They are from two to three inches in thickneſs, of a reddiſh colour, and in a perfectly ſound condition. The leſſer ones compoſed ſeveral rows of pillars, which form a labyrinth of paſſages about eighteen inches ſquare; and the larger tiles being laid over the whole, ſerve as a roof to ſupport the earth above, which is found to be two feet in depth. The building is ſurrounded by a ſubterraneous wall of hewn ſtone. The bones and teeth of animals with a ſooty kind of earth, were found in the paſſages; from which ſome have conjectured this building to have been occupied as a hot-bed for the uſe of the neighbouring garriſon.

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into the area, three are very diſtinct and plain, viz. the prætoria, decumana, and dextra.

The Roman Temple, or building in the form of the Pantheon at Rome, or of the dome of St. Paul's at London, ſtood upon the banks of the river Carron, in Stirlingſhire, but has been lately barbarouſly demoliſhed, by a neighbouring Goth, for the purpoſe of mending a mill-pond. Its height was twenty-two feet, and its external circumference at the baſe was eighty-eight feet; ſo that upon the whole it was one of the moſt complete Roman antiquities in the world. It is thought to have been built by Agricola, or ſome of his ſucceſſors, as a temple to the god Terminus, as it ſtood near the pretenture which bounded the Roman empire in Britain to the north. Near it are ſome artificial conical mouuts of earth, which ſtill retain the name of Dunipace, or Duni-pacis; which ſerve to evidence that there was a kind of ſolemn compromiſe between the Romans and the Caledonians, that the former ſhould not extend their empire farther to the northwards.

Innumerable are the coins, urns! utenſils, inſcriptions, and other remains of the Romans, that have been found in the different parts of Scotland; ſome of them to the north of the wall, where, however, it does not appear they made any eſtabliſhment. By the inſcriptioas found near the wall, the names of the legions that built it, and how far they carried it on, may be learned. The remains of Roman highways are frequent in the ſouthern parts.

Daniſh camps and fortifications are eaſily diſcernible in ſeveral northern countries, and are known by their ſquare figures and difficult ſituations. Some honſes or ſtupendnus fabrics remain in Roſs-ſhire, but whether they are Daniſh, Pictiſh, or Scottiſh, does not appear. The elevations of two of them are to be ſeen in Gordon's Itinerarium Septentrionale. I am of opinion that they are Norwegian or Scandinavian ſtructures, and built about the fifth century, to favour the deſcents of that people upon thoſe coaſts.

Two Pictiſh monuments, as they are thought to be, of a very extraordinary conſtruction, were lately ſtanding in Scotland; one of them at Abernethy in Perthſhire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inſide, and without the ſtair caſe; that of Brechin is the moſt entire, being covered at the top with a ſpiral roof of ſtone, with three or four windows above the cornice: it conſiſts of ſixty regular courſes of hewn freeſtone laid circularly, and regularly tapering towards the top. If theſe columns are really Pictiſh, that people muſt have had among them architects that far exceeded thoſe of any coeval monuments to be found in Europe, as they have all the appearance of an order: and the building is neat, and in the Roman ſtyle of architecture. It is, however, difficult to aſſign them to any but the Picts, as they ſtand in their dominions; and ſome ſculptures upon that at Brechin, denote it to be of Chriſtian origin. It is not indeed impoſſible that theſe ſculptures are of of a later date. Beſides theſe two pillars, many other Pictiſh buildings are found in Scotland, but not of the ſame taſte.

The veſtiges of erections by the ancient Scots themſelves, are not only curious but inſtructive, as they regard many important events of their hiſtory. That people had amongſt them a rude notion of ſculpture, in which they tranſmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obeliſks are ſtill to be ſeen, called the Daniſh ſtones of Aberlemno. They are erected as commemorations of the Scotch victories over that people; and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horſeback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day, but minutely deſcribed by Mr. Gordon. Many other

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hiſtorical monuments of the Scots may be diſcovered on the like occaſions; but it muſt be acknowledged, that the obſcurity of their ſculptures has encouraged a field of boundleſs and frivolous conjectures, ſo that the interpretations of many of them are often fanciful. It would, however, be unpardonable, if I ſhould neglect to mention the ſtone near the town of Forreſs of Fortroſe, in Murray, which far ſurpaſſes all the others in magnificence and grandeur, "and is (ſays Mr. Gordon) perhaps one of the moſt ſtately monuments of that kind in Europe. It riſes about 23 feet in height above ground, and is, as I am credibly informed, no leſs than 12 or 15 feet below; ſo that the whole height is at leaſt 35 feet, and its breath near five. It is all one ſingle and entire ſtone; great variety of figures in relievo are carved thereon, and ſome of them ſtill diſtinct and viſible; but the injury of the weather has obſcured thoſe towards the upper part." Though this monument has been generally looked upon as Daniſh, yet I have little doubt of its being Scotch, and that it was erected in commemoration of the final expulſion of the Danes out of Murray, where they held their laſt ſettlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invaſion.

At Sandwick, in Roſs-ſhire, is a very ſplendid ancient obeliſk, ſurrounded at the baſe with large, well-cut flag ſtones, formed like ſteps. Both ſides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well finiſhed carved work. The one face preſents a ſumptuous croſs, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and ſome uncouth animals and flowerings underneath. The central diviſion on the reverſe, exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and animals.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very ſtriking; and many parts of that fine building have ſtill the remains of much grandeur and dignity in them. The weſt door is highly ornamented, there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice diſplays very elaborate workmanſhip.

Among the remains of ancient caſtles, may be mentioned Kildrumy caſtle in the north of Scotland, which was formerly a place of great ſtrength and magnificence, and often uſed as an aſylum to noble families in periods of civil war. Inverurie caſtle, the ancient ſeat of the earl-mareſchals of Scotland, is alſo a large and lofty pile, ſituated on a ſteep bank of the river; two very high towers bound the front, and even in their decaying ſtate, give the caſtle an air of much grandeur and antiquity. Vaſt rows of venerable trees, incloſing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the decayed buildings. Near the town of Huntly are the ruins of Huntly caſtle. On the avenue that leads to it, are two large ſquare towers, which had defended the gateway. The caſtle ſeems to be very old, and great part of it is demoliſhed; but there is a maſſy building of a more modern date, in which ſome of the apartments, and in particular their curious cielings, are ſtill in tolerable preſervation. They are painted with a great variety of ſubjects, in ſmall diviſions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

Beſides theſe remains of Roman, Pictiſh, Daniſh, and Scottiſh antiquities, many Druidical monuments and temples are diſcernible in the northern parts of Scotland, as well as in the iſles, where we may ſuppoſe that paganiſm took its laſt refuge. They are eaſily perceived by their circular forms; but though they are equally regular, yet none of them are ſo ſtupendous as the Druidical erections in South Britain. There is in Perthſhire a barrow which ſeems to be a Britiſh erection, and the moſt beautiful of the kind perhaps in the world. It exactly reſembles the figure of a ſhip with the keel uppermoſt.

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The common people call it Ternay, which ſome interpret to be *terræ navis*, the ſhip of earth. It ſeems to be of the moſt remote antiquity, and perhaps was erected to the memory of ſome Britiſh prince, who acted as auxiliary to the Romans; for it lies near Auchterarder, not many miles diſtant from the great ſcene of Agricola's operations.

The traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finehaven is one inſtance; and the hill of Bergonium near Dunſtaffage-caſtle, is another, yielding vaſt quantities of pumices or ſcoria of different kinds, many of which are of the ſame ſpecies with thoſe of the volcanic Iceland. Among other natural curioſities of this country, mention is made of a heap of white ſtones, moſt of them clear like cryſtal, together with great plenty of oyſter and other ſea ſhells; they are found on the top of a mountain called Skorn a Lappich, in Roſs-ſhire, twenty miles diſtant from the ſea. Slains in Aberdeenſhire, is ſaid to be remarkable for a petrifying cave, called the Dropping cave, where water oozing through a ſpungy porous rock at the top, doth quickly conſolidate after it drops to the bottom. Other natural curioſities belonging to Scotland have their deſcriptions and hiſtories; but they generally owe their extraordinary qualities to the credulity of the vulgar, and vaniſh when they are ſkilfully examined. Some caverns that are to be found in Fifeſhire, and are probably natural, are of extraordinary dimenſions, and have been the ſcenes of inhuman cruelties.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] In theſe reſpects Scotland has, for ſome years paſt, been in a very improving ſtate. Without entering into the diſputed point, how far Scotland was benefited by its union with England, it is certain that the expedition of the Scots to take poſſeſſion of Darien, and to carry on the Eaſt and Weſt Indian trade, was founded upon true principles of commerce, and (ſo far as it went) executed with a noble ſpirit of enterpriſe. The miſcarriage of that ſcheme, after receiving the higeſt and moſt ſolemn ſanctions, is a diſgrace to the annals of that reign in which it happened; as the Scots had then a free, independent, and unconnected parliament. We are to account for the long langour of the Scottiſh commerce, and many other misfortunes which that country ſuſtained, by the diſguſt the inhabitants conceived on that account, and ſome invaſions of their rights afterwards, which they thought inconſiſtent with the articles of union. The entails and narrow ſettlements of family eſtates, and ſome remains of the feudal inſtitutions, might contribute to the ſame cauſe.

Mr. Pelham, when at the head of the adminiſtration in England, after the extinction of the rebellion in 1745, was the firſt miniſter who diſcovered the true value of Scotland, which then became a more conſiderable object of governmental inquiry than ever. All the benefits received by that country, for the relief of the people from their feudal tyranny, were effected by that great man. The bounties and encouragements granted to the Scots, for the benefit of trade and manufactures, during his adminiſtration, made them ſenſible of their own importance. Mr. Pitt, a ſucceeding miniſter, purſued Mr. Pelham's wiſe plan; and juſtly boaſted in parliament, that he availed himſelf of the courage, good ſenſe, and ſpirit of the Scots, in carrying on the moſt extenſive war that ever Great Britain was engaged in. Let me add, to the honour of the Britiſh government, that the Scots, have been ſuffered to avail themſelves of all the benefits of commerce and manufactures they can claim, either in right of their former independency, the treaty of union, or poſterior acts of parliament.

This is manifeſt from the extenſive trade they lately carried on with the Britiſh ſettlements in America and the Weſt Indies; and with all the nations

to

to which the Engliſh themſelves trade; ſo that the increaſe of their ſhipping within theſe 30 years paſt has been very conſiderable. The exports of thoſe ſhips are compoſed chiefly of Scotch manufactures, fabricated from the produce of the ſoil, and the induſtry of its inhabitants. In exchange for theſe, they import tobacco, rice, cotton, ſugar, and rum, from the Britiſh plantations; and from other countries, their products, to the immenſe ſaving of their nation. The proſperity of Glaſgow and its neighbourhood hath been greatly owing to the connection and trade with Virginia and the Weſt-Indies.

The fiſheries of Scotland are not confined to their own coaſt, for they have a great concern in the whale-fiſhery carried on upon the coaſt of Spitſbergen; and their returns are valuable, as the government allows them a bounty of 40s. for every ton of ſhipping employed in that article. The late improvement of their fiſheries, which I have already mentioned, and which are daily increaſing, open inexhauſtible funds of wealth; their cured fiſh being by foreigners, and the Engliſh planters in America, preferred to thoſe of Newfoundland.

The buſſes, or veſſels employed in the great herring fiſhery on the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, are fitted out from the north-weſt parts of England, the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring iſlands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbletown, a commodious port in Argyleſhire, facing the north of Ireland, where ſometimes 300 veſſels have been aſſembled. They clear out on the 12th of September, and muſt return to their different ports by the 13th of January. They are alſo under certain regulations reſpecting the number of tons, men, nets, &c. the whole being judiciouſly calculated to promote the beſt of national purpoſes, its ſtrength and its commerce. But though the political exiſtence of Great Britain depends upon the number and bravery of our ſeamen, this noble inſtitution has hitherto proved ruinous to many of thoſe who have embarked in it, and unleſs vigorouſly ſupported, will end in ſmoke.

To encourage this fiſhery, a bounty of 50s. per ton was granted by parliament; but whether from the inſufficiency of the fund appropriated for this purpoſe, or any other cauſe, the bounty was with-held from year to year, while in the mean time the adventurers were not only ſinking their fortunes, but alſo borrowing to the utmoſt limits of their credit. The bounty has ſince been reduced from 50 to 30s. with the ſtrongeſt aſſurances of its being regularly paid when due. Upon the ſtrength of theſe promiſes they have again embarked in the fiſhery, and it is to be wiſhed, that no conſideration whatever may tend to withdraw an inducement ſo requiſite to place this fiſhery on a permanent footing.

The benefits of theſe fiſheries are perhaps equalled by manufactures carrying on at land; particularly that of iron at Carron, Stirling-ſhire.

Their linen manufactory, notwithſtanding a ſtrong rivalſhip from Ireland, is in a flouriſhing ſtate. The thread manufacture of Scotland is equal, if not ſuperior, to any in the world; and the lace fabricated from it has been deemed worthy of royal wear and approbation. It has been ſaid, ſome years ago, that the exports from Scotland to England, and the Britiſh plantations, in linen, cambrics, checks Oſnaburghs, inckle, and the like commodities, amounted annually to 400,000l. excluſive of their home conſumption; and there is reaſon to believe that the ſum is conſiderably larger at preſent. The Scots are likewiſe making very promiſing efforts for eſtabliſhing woollen manufactures; and their exports of caps, ſtockings, mittens, and other articles of their own wool, begin to be very conſiderable. The Scots, it is true, cannot pretend to rival the Engliſh in their finer cloths; but they make at

preſent ſome broad cloth proper for the wear of people of faſhion in an undreſs, and in quality and fineneſs equal to what is commonly called Yorkſhire cloth. Among the other late improvements of the Scots, we are not to forget the vaſt progreſs they have made in working the mines, and ſmelting the ore of their country. Their coal trade in England is well known; and of late they have turned even their ſtones to account, by their contracts for paving the ſtreets of London. If the great trade in cattle, which the Scots carried on of late with the Engliſh, is now diminiſhed, it is owing to the beſt of national cauſes, that of an increaſe of home conſumption.

The trade carried on by the Scots with England, is chiefly from Leith, and the eaſtern ports of the nation; but Glaſgow was the great emporium for the American commerce, before the commencement of the unhappy breach with the colonies. The late junction of the Forth to the Clyde will render the benefits of trade mutual to both parts of Scotland. In ſhort, the more that the ſeas, the ſituation, the ſoil, harbours, and rivers of this country are known, the better adapted it appears for all the purpoſes of commerce, both foreign and domeſtic.

With regard to other manufactures, not mentioned, ſome of them are yet in their infancy. The town of Paiſley alone employs an incredible number of hands, in fabricating a particular kind of flowered and ſtriped lawns, which are a reaſonable and elegant wear. Sugar-houſes, glaſs-works of every kind, delft-houſes, and paper-mills, are erected every where. The Scotch carpeting makes neat and laſting furniture; and ſome eſſays have been lately made, with no inconſiderable degree of ſucceſs, to carry that branch of manufacture to as great perfection as in any part of Europe. After all that has been ſaid, many years will be required before the trade and improvements in Scotland can be brought to maturity. In any event, they never can give umbrage to the Engliſh, as the intereſts of the two people are, or ought to be the ſame.

Having ſaid thus much, I cannot avoid obſerving the prodigious diſadvantages under which both the commercial and landed intereſt of Scotland lies, from her nobility and great land-holders having too fond an attachment for England, and foreign countries, where they ſpend their ready money. This is one of the evils ariſing to Scotland from the union, which removed the ſeat of of her legiſlature to London; but it is greatly augmented by the reſort of volunteer abſentees, to that capital. While this partiality ſubſiſts, the Scots will probably continue to be diſtreſſed for a currency of ſpecie. How far paper can ſupply that defect, depends upon an attention to the balance of trade, and the evil may, perhaps be ſomewhat prevented, by money remitted from England for carrying on the vaſt manufactures and works now ſet on foot in Scotland. The gentlemen who reſide in Scotland, have wiſely abandoned French Claret, and brandy, (though too much is ſtill made uſe of in that country), for rum produced in the Britiſh plantations; and their own malt-liquors are now come nearly to as great perfection as thoſe in England; and it is ſaid, that they have lately exported large quantities of their ale to London, Dublin, and the Plantations.

REVENUES.] See England.

COINS.] In the reign of Edward II. of England, the value and denominations of coins were the ſame in Scotland as in England. Towards the reign of James II. a Scotch ſhilling anſwered to about an Engliſh ſix-pence; and about the reign of queen Mary of Scotland, it was not more than an Engliſh groat. It continued diminiſhing in this manner till after the union of the two crowns under her ſon James VI. when the vaſt reſort of the Scotch nobility

bility and gentry to the Engliſh court, occaſioned ſuch a drain of ſpecie from Scotland, that by degrees a Scotch ſhilling fell to the value of one twelfth of an Engliſh ſhilling, and their pennies in proportion. A Scotch penny is now very rarely to be found; and they were ſucceeded by bodles, which were double the value of a Scotch penny, and are ſtill current, but are daily wearing out. A Scotch halfpenny was called a babie; ſome ſay, becauſe it was firſt ſtamped with the head of James III. when he was a babe or baby; but perhaps it is only the corruption of two French words, *bas piece*, ſignifying a low piece of money. The ſame obſervation that we have made of the Scotch ſhilling, holds of their pounds and merks; which are not coins, but denominations of ſums. In all other reſpects, the currency of money in Scotland and England is the ſame, as very few people now reckon by the Scotch computation.

ORDER OF THE THISTLE.] This is a military order inſtituted, as the Scotch writers aſſert, by their king Achaius, in the ninth century, upon his making an offenſive and defenſive league with Charlemagne, king of France; or as others ſay, on account of his victory over Athelſtan, king of England, when he vowed in the kirk of St. Andrew, that he and his poſterity ſhould ever bear the figure of that croſs in their enſigns on which the ſaint ſuffered. It has been frequently neglected, and as often reſumed. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, and 12 companions, who are called Knights of the Thiſtle, and have on their enſign this ſignificant motto, *Nemo me impune laceſſet*, "None "ſhall ſafely provoke me."

LAWS AND CONSTITUTION.] The ancient conſtitution and government in Scotland has been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preſervation of liberty; and it is certain, that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many checks in the conſtitution upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his aſſuming or exerciſing a deſpotic authority. But the Scottiſh conſtitution of government was too much of the ariſtocratic kind to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was ſufficiently reſtrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannize over and oppreſs their tenants, and the common people.

The ancient kings of Scotland, at their coronation, took the following oath, containing three promiſes, viz.

"In the name of Chriſt, I promiſe theſe three things to the Chriſtian people my ſubjects: Firſt, that I ſhall give order, and employ my force and aſſiſtance that the church of God, and the Chriſtian people, may enjoy true peace during our time, under our government. Secondly, I ſhall prohibit and hinder all perſons, of whatever degree, from violence and injuſtice. Thirdly, in all judgments I ſhall follow the preſcriptions of juſtice and mercy, to the end that our clement and merciful God may ſhew mercy unto me, and to you."

The parliament of Scotland anciently conſiſted of all who held any portion of land, however ſmall, of the crown, by military ſervice. This parliament appointed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and committees to to ſuperintend the adminiſtration during the intervals of parliament; it had a commanding power in all matters of government; it appropriated the public money, ordered the keeping of it, and called for the accounts; it armed the people, and appointed commanders; it named and commiſſioned ambaſſadors; it granted and limited pardons; it appointed judges and courts of judicature; it named officers of ſtate and privy-counſellors; it annexed and

alienated the revenues of the crown, and reſtrained grants by the king. The king of Scotland had no negative voice in parliament; nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public buſineſs of importance without the advice and approbation of parliament. The prerogative of the king was ſo bounded, that he was not even intruſted with the executive part of the government. And ſo late as the minority of James IV. who was contemporary with, and ſon in-law to, Henry VII. of England, the parliament pointed out to him his duty, as the firſt ſervant of his people; as appears by the act ſtill extant. In ſhort, the conſtitution was rather ariſtocratical than monarchical. The abuſe of theſe ariſtocratical powers, by the chieftains and great landholders, gave the king, however, a very conſiderable intereſt among the lower ranks; and a prince who had ſenſe and addreſs to retain the affections of his people, was generally able to humble the moſt overgrown of his ſubjects; but when, on the other hand, a king of Scotland, like James III. ſhewed a diſreſpect to his parliament, the event was commonly fatal to the crown. The kings of Scotland, notwithſtanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were aſſiſted by the clergy, whoſe revenues were immenſe, and who had very little dependence upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by eſtabliſhing a ſelect body of members, who were called *the lords of the articles*. Theſe were choſen out of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgeſſes. The biſhops, for inſtance, choſe eight peers, and the peers, eight biſhops; and theſe ſixteen jointly choſe eight barons (or knights, of the ſhire), and eight commiſſioners for burghs; and to all thoſe were added eight great officers of ſtate, the chancellor being preſident of the whole.

Their buſineſs was to prepare all queſtions and bills, and other matters brought into parliament; ſo that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet being by his clergy, and the places he had to beſtow, always ſure of the lords of articles, nothing could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It muſt be acknowledged, that this inſtitution ſeems to have prevailed by ſtealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular ſyſtem; even its modes varied; and the greateſt lawyers are ignorant when it took place. The Scots, however, never loſt ſight of their original principles; and though Charles I. wanted to form theſe lords of the articles into regular machines for his own deſpotic purpoſes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy conſequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a freſh inſtance how well they underſtood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about *abdication*, and the like terms, and voting king James at once to have forfeited his crown; which they gave to the prince and princeſs of Orange.

This ſpirit of reſiſtance was the more remarkable, as the people had groaned under the moſt inſupportable miniſterial tyranny ever ſince the Reſtoration. It is aſked, Why did they ſubmit to that tyranny? The anſwer is, In order to preſerve that independency upon England, which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to deſtroy, by uniting them with England: they therefore choſe to ſubmit to a temporary evil; but they took the firſt opportunity to get rid of their oppreſſors.

Scotland, when it was a ſeparate kingdom, cannot be ſaid to have had any peers, in the Engliſh ſenſe of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquiſſes, earls, and lords, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no diſtinct houſe, for they ſat in the ſame room with the commons, who had the ſame deliberate and deciſive vote with them in all public matters. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might ſit upon

upon a lord's aſſize in matters of life and death; nor was it neceſſary for the aſſizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict. The feudal cuſtoms, even at the time of the Reſtoration, were ſo prevalent, and the reſcue of a great criminal was commonly ſo much apprehended, that ſeldom above two days paſſed between the ſentence and execution.

Great uncertainty occurs in the Scotch hiſtory, by confounding parliaments with conventions; the difference was, that a parliament could enact laws as well as lay on taxes; a convention, or meeting of the ſtates, only met for the purpoſes of taxation. Before the Union, the kings of Scotland had four great and four leſſer officers of ſtate; the great, were the lord high chancellor, high treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary: the four leſſer were the lords regiſter, advocate, treaſurer-depute, and juſtice clerk. Since the Union none of theſe continue, excepting the lords privy-ſeal, regiſter, advocate, and juſtice-clerk; a third ſecretary of ſtate has occaſionally been nominated by the king for Scottiſh affairs, but under the ſame denomination as the other two ſecretaries. The above officers of ſtate ſat in the Scotch parliament by virtue of their offices.

The officers of the crown were, the high-chamberlain, conſtable, admiral, and marſhal. The offices of conſtable and marſhal were hereditary. A nobleman has ſtill a penſion as admiral; and the office of marſhal is exerciſed by a knight-marſhal.

The office of chancellor of Scotland differed little from the ſame in England. The ſame may be ſaid of the lords treaſurer, privy-ſeal, and ſecretary. The lord-regiſter was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treaſury, exchequer, and ſeſſion, and keeper of all public records. Though this office was only during the king's pleaſure, yet it was very lucrative, by diſpoſing of his deputation, which laſted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament: and it was dangerous for any member to diſpute his report of the numbers upon diviſion. The lord advocate's office reſembles that of the attorney-general in England, only his powers are far more extenſive; becauſe, by the Scotch laws, he is the proſecutor of all capital crimes before the juſticiary, and likewiſe concurs in all purſuits before ſovereign courts, for breaches of the peace, and alſo in all matters civil, wherein the king or his donator hath intereſt. Two ſolicitors are named by his majeſty, by way of aſſiſtants to the lord-advocate. The office of juſtice-clerk entitles the poſſeſſor to preſide in the criminal court of juſtice, while the juſtice-general, an office I ſhall deſcribe hereafter, is abſent.

The ancient conſtitution of Scotland admitted of many other offices both of the crown and ſtate; but they are either now extinct, or too inconſiderable to be deſcribed here. That of Lyon king at arms. or the rex fæcialium, or grand herald of Scotland, is ſtill in being; and it was formerly an office of great ſplendor and importance, inſomuch that the ſcience of heraldry was preſerved there in greater purity than in any other country in Europe. He was even crowned ſolemnly in parliament with a golden circle; and his authority, which is not the caſe in England, in all armorial affairs, might be carried into execution by the civil law.

The privy-council of Scotland before the Revolution, had, or aſſumed inquiſitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now ſunk in the parliament and privy-council of Great Btitan; and the civil and criminal cauſes in Scotland are chiefly cogniſable by two courts of judicature.

The firſt is, that of the college of juſtice, which was inſtituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to ſupply an ambulatory committe of parliament, who took to themſelves the names of the lords of council and ſeſſion, which the preſent members of the college of juſtice ſtill retain.

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This court conſiſts of a preſident and fourteen ordinary members, beſides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may ſit and vote, but have no ſalaries, and are not bound to attendance. This court may be called a ſtanding jury in all matters of property that lie before them. Their forms of proceeding do not lie within my plan, neither does any inquiry how far ſuch an inſtitution, in ſo narrow a country as Scotland, is compatible with the ſecurity of private property. The civil law is their directory in all matters that come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of ſurpriſe, that the Scots were ſo tenacious of the forms of the courts, and the eſſence of their laws, as to reſerve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, can be eaſily accounted for, becauſe thoſe laws and forms were eſſential to the poſſeſſion of eſtates and lands, which in Scotland are often held by modes incompatible with the laws of England. I ſhall juſt add, that the lords of council and ſeſſion act likewiſe as a court of equity; but their decrees are (fortunately perhaps for the ſubject) reverſible by the Britiſh Houſe of Lords, to which an appeal lies.

The juſtice-court is the higheſt criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its preſent form it was inſtituted ſo late as the year 1672, when a lord-juſtice-general, removeable at the king's pleaſure, was appointed. This lucrative office ſtill exiſts in the perſon of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court, are the juſtice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of ſeſſion. In this court the verdict of a jury condemns or acquits; but, as I have already hinted, without any neceſſity of being unanimous.

Beſides theſe two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of exchequer. This court has the ſame powers, authority, privilege, juriſdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of exchquer in England has over the revenues there; and all matters and things competent to the court of exchequer of England relating thereto, are likewiſe competent to the exchqeuer of Scotland. The judges of the exhequer in Scotland exerciſe certain powers which formerly belonged to the treaſury, and are ſtill veſted in that of England.

The court of admirality in Scotland, was, in the reign of Charles II. by act of parliament, declared to be a ſupreme court, in all cauſes competent to its own juriſdiction; and the lord high admiral is declared to be the king's lieutenant and juſtice-general upon the ſeas, and in all ports, harbours, and creeks of the ſame; and upon freſh waters and navigable rivers, below the firſt bridge, or within flood mark; ſo that nothing competent to its juriſdiction can be meddled with, in the firſt inſtance, but by the lord high admiral and the judges of his court. Sentences paſſed in all inferior courts of admirality may be brought again before his court; but no appeal lies from it to the lords of the ſeſſion, or any other judicatory, unleſs in caſes not maritime. Cauſes are tried in this court by the civil law, which in ſuch caſes is likewiſe the common law of Scotland, as well as by the laws of Oleron, Wiſby and the Hanſe-towns, and other maritime practices and deciſions common upon the continent. The place of lord-admiral of Scotland is little more than nominal, but the ſalary annexed to it is reckoned worth 1000l. a year; and the judge of the admirality is commonly a lawyer of diſtinction, with conſiderable perquiſities pertaining to his office.

The college or faculty of advocates, which anſwers to the Engliſh inns of court, may be called the ſeminary of Scotch lawyers. They are within themſelves an orderly court, and their forms require great preciſion and examination to qualify its candidates for admiſſion. Subordinate to them is a

body of inferior lawyers, or, as they may be called, attorneys, who called themſelves writers to the ſignet, becauſe they alone can ſubſcribe the writs that paſs the ſignet; they likewiſe have a bye government for their own regulation. Such are the different law courts that are held in the capital of Scotland: we ſhall paſs to thoſe that are inferior.

The government of the counties in Scotland was formerly veſted in ſheriffs and ſtewards, courts of regality, baron courts, commiſſaries, juſtices of the peace, and coroners.

Formerly ſheriffdoms were generally hereditable; but by a late act of parliament, they are now all veſted in the crown; it being there enacted, that all high ſheriffs, or ſtewards, ſhall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors. In regard to the ſheriff-deputes, and ſteward-deputes, it is enacted that there ſhall only be one in each county, or ſtewartry, who muſt be an advocate, of three years ſtanding at leaſt. For the ſpace of ſeven years, theſe deputies are to be nominated by the king, with ſuch continuance as his majeſty ſhall think fit; after which they are to enjoy their office *ad vitam aut culpam*, that is, for life, unleſs guilty of ſome offence. Some other regulations have been likewiſe introduced, highly for the credit of the ſheriffs courts.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the ſtewards had much the ſame power in them as the ſheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were held by virtue of a royal juriſdiction veſted in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges: but theſe were ſo dangerous, and ſo extravagant, that all the Scoteh regalities are now diſſolved by an act of parliament.

Baron-courts belong to every perſon who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters, they extend to matters not exceeding forty ſhillings ſterling; and in criminal caſes, to petty actions of aſſault and battery; but the puniſhment is not to exceed twenty ſhillings ſterling, or ſetting the delinquent in the ſtocks for three hours, in the day time. Theſe courts, however petty, were in former days inveſted with the power of life and death, which they have now loſt.

The courts of commiſſaries in Scotland anſwer to thoſe of the Engliſh dioceſan chancellors, the higheſt of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning matters relating to wills and teſtaments; the right of patronage to eccleſiaſtical benefices, tythes, divorces, and cauſes of that nature; but in almoſt all other parts of the kingdom, there ſits but one judge on theſe cauſes.

According to the preſent inſtitution, juſtices of the peace in Scotland, exerciſe pretty mueh the ſame powers as thoſe in England. In former times their office, though of very old ſtanding, was inſignificant, being cramped by the powers of the great feudal tyrants, who obtained an act of parliament, that they were not to take cognizance of riots till fifteen days after the fact.

The inſtitution of coroners is as old as the reign of Malcolm II. the great legiſlator of Scotland, who lived before the Norman invaſion of England. They took cognizance of all breaches of the king's peace; and they were required to have clerks to regiſter depoſitions and matters of fact, as well as verdicts of jurors: the office, however, is at preſent much diſuſed in Scotland.

From the above ſhort view of the Scotch laws and inſtitutions, it is plain that they were radically the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh. The latter alledge, indeed, that the Scots borrowed the contents of their *Regiam*

Majeſtatem, their oldeſt law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots on the other hand, ſay, that Glanville's work was copied from their *Regiam Majeſtatem*, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exiſt in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year, at Edinburgh, conſiſting of a repreſentative from each burgh, to conſult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are pretty extenſive, and before the Union they made laws relating to ſhipping, to maſters and owners of ſhips, to mariners, and merchants by whom they were freighted; to manufactures, ſuch as plaiding, linen, and yarn; to the curing and packing of fiſh, ſalmon, and herrings, and to the importing and exporting ſeveral commodities. The trade between Scotland and the Netherlands is ſubject to their regulation: they fix the ſtaple port, which was formerly at Dort, and is now at Campvere. Their conſervator is indeed nominated by the crown, but then their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his ſalary: ſo that, in truth, the whole ſtaple trade is ſubjected to their management. Upon the whole, this is a very ſingular inſtitution, and ſufficiently proves the vaſt attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its preſent form in the reign of James III. 1487, and had excellent conſequences for the benefit of commerce.

Such are the laws and conſtitutions of Scotland, as they exiſt at preſent, in their general view; but our bounds do not permit us to deſcend to farther particulars, which are various and complicated. The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The Engliſh law reports are of the ſame nature with the Scotch practice; and their acts of ſederunt anſwer to the Engliſh rules of court; the Scottiſh wadſets and reverſions, to the Engliſh mortgages and defeaſances; their poinding of goods, after letters of horning, is much the ſame as the Engliſh executions upon outlawries; and an appeal againſt the king's pardon, in caſes of murder, by the next of kin to the deceaſed, is admitted in Scotland as well as in England. Many other uſages are the ſame in both kingdoms. I cannot, however, diſmiſs this head without one obſervation, which proves the ſimilarity between the Engliſh and Scotch conſtitutions, which I believe has been mentioned by no author. In old times, all the freeholders in Scotland met together in preſence of the king, who was ſeated on the top of a hillock, which in the old Scottiſh conſtitution, is called the Moot, or Moot-hill; all national affairs were here tranſacted; judgments given, and differences ended. This Moot-hill I apprehend to be of the ſame nature as the Saxon Folcmote, and to ſignify no more than the hill of meeting.

History.] Though the writers of ancient Scotch hiſtory are too fond of ſyſtem and fable, yet it is eaſy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidences, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by different people. The Caledonians were, probably, the firſt inhahitants; the Picts, undoubtedly were the Britons, who were forced northwards by the Belgic Gauls, about fourſcore years before the deſcent of Julius Cæſar; and who ſettling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, that were driven northwards by the Romans. The Scots, moſt probably, were a nation of adventurers from the ancient Scythia, who had ſerved in the armies on the continent, and, as has been already hinted, after conquering the other inhabitants, gave their own name to the country. The tract lying ſouthward of the Forth, appears

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to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcuith, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all theſe people in proceſs of time were ſubdued by the Scots.

Having premiſed thus much, it is unneceſſary for me to inveſtigate the conſtitution of Scotland from its fabulous, or even its early ages. It is ſufficient to add, to what I have already ſaid upon that head, that they ſeem to have been as forward as any of their ſouthern neighbours in the arts of war and government.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before Agricola, anno 79. The name of the prince he fought with was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the hiſtory of that war is not only tranſmitted with great preciſion, but corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raiſed by Agricola in his march towards Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave ſtand made by Galdus againſt that great general, does honour to the valour of both people; and the ſentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independency of this country, appeared to have warmed the noble hiſtorian, with the ſame generous paſſion. It is plain, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola, to conceal ſome part of this war; for though he makes his countrymen victorious, yet they certainly returned ſouthward, to the province of the Horeſti, which was the county of Fife, without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwiſe called Corbred, was according to the Scotch hiſtorians, the 21ſt in the lineal deſcent from Fergus I. the founder of their monarchy; and though this genealogy has of late been diſputed, yet nothing can be more certain, from the Roman hiſtories, than that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a ſucceſſion of brave and wiſe princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant reſiſtance obliged Agricola himſelf, and after him the emperors Adrian and Severus, to build the two famous pretentures or walls, one between the Frith of Clyde and Forth already mentioned; and the other between Tinmouth and the Solway Frith, which will be deſcribed in our account of England, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; and which prove that the independence of the latter was never ſubdued.

Chriſtianity was introduced into Scotland about the year 201 of the Chriſtian æra, by Donald I. The Picts, who, as before mentioned, were the deſcendents of the ancient Britons, forced northwards by the Romans, had at this time gained a footing in Scotland; and being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, they joined the Romans againſt the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the ſame original, and conſidered themſelves as one people; ſo that the Scots monarchy ſuffered a ſhort eclipſe; but it broke out with more luſtre than ever, under Fergus II. who recovered his crown; and his ſucceſſors gave many ſevere overthrows to the Romans and Britons.

When the Romans left Britan in 448, the Scots as appears by Gildas, a Britiſh hiſtorian, were a powerful nation, and in conjunction with the Picts, invaded the Britons; and having forced the Roman walls, drove them to the very ſea; ſo that the Britons applied to the Romans for relief; and in the famous letter, which they called *their groans*, they tell them, that they had no choice left, but that of being ſwallowed up by the ſea, or periſhing by the ſwords of the barbarians; for ſo all nations were called who were not Romans, or under the Roman protection.

Dongard was then king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldeſt hiſtories, and thoſe that are leaſt favourable to monarchy, that the ſucceſſion to the crown of Scotland ſtill continued in the family of Fergus, but generally

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deſcended collaterally; till the inconveniencies of that mode of ſucceſſion were ſo much felt, that by degrees it fell into diſuſe, and it was at laſt ſettled in the deſcending line.

About the year 769, the Scots were governed by Achaius, a prince ſo much reſpected, that his friendſhip was courted by Charlemagne, and a league was concluded between them, which continued inviolate while the monarchy of Scotland had an exiſtence. No fact of equal antiquity is better atteſted than this league, together with the great ſervice performed by the learned men of Scotland, in civilizing the vaſt dominions of that great conqueror, as has been already obſerved under the article of Learning. The Picts ſtill remained in Scotland as a ſeparate nation, and were powerful enough to make war upon the Scots; who, about the year 843, when Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of Scotland, finally ſubdued them; but not in the ſavage manner mentioned by ſome hiſtorians, by extermination. For he obliged them to incorporate themſelves with their conquerors, by taking their names, and adopting their laws. The ſucceſſors of Kenneth Mac Alpin maintained almoſt perpetual wars with the Saxons on the ſouthward, and the Danes and other barbarous nations towards the eaſt: who being maſters of the ſea, harraſſed the Scots by powerful invaſions. The latter, however, were more fortunate than the Engliſh; for while the Danes were erecting a monarchy in England, they were every where overthrown in Scotland by bloody battles, and at laſt driven out of the kingdom. The Saxon and Daniſh monarchs who then governed England were not more ſucceſsful againſt the Scots, who maintained their freedom and independency, not only againſt foreigners, but againſt their own kings, when they thought them endangered. The feudal law was introdueed among them by Malcolm II.

Malcolm III. commonly called Malcolm Cranmore from two Gaëlic words which ſignify a *large head*, but moſt probably from his great capacity, was the eighty-ſixth king of Scotland, from Fergus I. the ſuppoſed founder of the monarchy; the forty-ſeventh from its reſtorer, Fergus II. and the twenty-ſecond from Kenneth III. who conquered the kingdom of the Picts. Every reader who is acquainted with the tragedy of Macbeth, as written by the inimitable Shakſpeare, who keeps cloſe to the facts delivered by hiſtorians, can be no ſtranger to the fate of Malcolm's father, and his own hiſtory, previous to his mounting the throne in the year 1057. He was a wiſe and magnanimous prince, and in no reſpect inferior to his cotemporary the Norman conqueror, with whom he was often at war. He married Margaret, daughter to Edward, ſirnamed the Out-law, ſon to Edmund Ironſide, king of England. By the death of her brother Edgar Atheling, the Saxon right to the crown of England devolved upon the poſterity of that princeſs, who was one of the wiſeſt and worthieſt women of the age; and her daughter Maud was accordingly married to Henry I. of England. Malcolm, after a glorious reign, was killed, with his ſon, treacherouſly, it is ſaid, at the ſiege of Alnwick, by the beſieged.

Malcolm III. was ſucceeded by his brother Donald VII. and he was dethroned by Duncan II. whoſe legitimacy was diſputed. They were ſucceeded by Edgar, the ſon of Malcolm III. who was a wiſe and valiant prince; he was ſucceeded by Alexander I. and upon his death David I. mounted the throne.

Notwithſtanding the endeavours of ſome hiſtorians to conceal what they cannot deny, I mean the glories of this reign, it yet appears, that David was one of the greateſt princes of his age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legiſlator. The noble actions he performed in the ſervice of his niece, the empreſs Maud, in her competition with king Stephen for the

Engliſh crown, give us the higheſt idea of his virtues, as they could be the reſult only of duty and principle. To him Henry II. the mightieſt prince of his age, owed his crown; and his poſſeſſions in England, joined to the kingdom of Scotland, placed David's power nearly on an equality with that of England, when confined to this iſland. His actions and adventures, and the reſources he always found in his own courage, prove him to have been a hero of the firſt rank. If he appeared to be too laviſh to churchmen, and in his religious endowments, we are to conſider theſe were the only means by which he could then civilize his kingdom: and the code of laws I have already mentioned to have been drawn up by him, do his memory immortal honour. They are ſaid to have been compiled under his inſpection by learned men, whom he aſſembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melroſs. He was ſucceeded by his grandſon Malcolm IV. and he by William, ſurnamed from his valour, The Lion. William's ſon Alexander II. was ſucceeded in 1249, by Alexander III. who was a good king. He married, firſt, Margaret daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married the earl of Flander's daughter; David and Margaret, who married Hangowan, or, as ſome call him, Eric, ſon to Magnus IV. king of Norway, who bore to him a daughter named Margaret, commonly called the Maiden of Norway: in whom king William's whole poſterity failed, and the crown of Scotland returned to the deſcendants of David earl of Huntingdon, brother to king Malcolm IV and king William.

I have been the more particular in this detail, becauſe it was productive of great events. Upon the death of Alexander III. John Baliol, who was great-grandſon to David earl of Huntingdon, by his eldeſt daughter Margaret, and Robert Bruce (grandfather to the great king Robert Bruce) grandſon to the ſame earl of Huntingdon, by his youngeſt daughter Iſabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of ſucceſſion, which were not then ſo well eſtabliſhed in Europe as they are at preſent, rendered the caſe very difficult. Both parties were almoſt equally matched in intereſt; but after a confuſed interregnum of ſome years, the great nobility agreed in referring the deciſion to Edward I. of England, the moſt politic, ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter: but having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland. he revived ſome obſolete abſurd claims of its dependency upon that of England; and finding that Baliol was diſpoſed to hold it by that diſgraceful tenure, Edward awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a ſlave, without Baliol's reſenting it.

After this Edward uſed many endeavours to annex their crown to his own which were often defeated, and though Edward for a ſhort time made himſelf maſter of Scotland, yet the Scots were ready to revolt againſt him on every favourable opportunity. Thoſe of them who were ſo zealouſly attached to the independency of their country, as to be reſolved to hazard every thing for it, were indeed but few compared to thoſe in the intereſt of Edward and Baliol, which was the ſame: and for ſome time they were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himſelf of their weakneſs and his own power. He accepted of a formal ſurrender of the crown of Baliol, to whom he allowed a penſion, but detained him in England and ſent every nobleman in Scotland, whom he in the leaſt ſuſpected, to different priſons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to ſign inſtruments of their ſubjection to him; and moſt barbarouſly carried off or deſtroyed all the monuments of their hiſtory, and the evidences of their independency; and

particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic ſtone, which is ſtill to be ſeen in Weſtminſter-Abbey.

Theſe ſevere proceedings, while they rendered the Scots ſenſible of their ſlavery, revived in them the ideas of their freedom; and Edward finding their ſpirits were not to be ſubdued, endeavoured to careſs them, and affected to treat them on a footing of equality with his own ſubjects, by projecting an union, the chief articles of which have ſince taken place between the two kingdoms. The Scotch patriots treated this project with diſdain, and united under the brave William Wallace, the trueſt hero of his age, to expel the Engliſh. Wallace performed actions that entitled him to eternal renown, in executing this ſcheme. Being however no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily encreaſing, the Scotch nobility, among whom was Robert Bruce, the ſon of the firſt competitor, began to ſuſpect that he had an eye upon the crown, eſpecially after he had defeated the earl of Surry, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling, and had reduced the garriſons of Berwick and Roxburgh, and was declared by the ſtates of Scotland their protector. Their jealouſy operated ſo far, that they formed violent cabals againſt the brave Wallace. Edward, upon this, once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the moſt numerous and beſt diſciplined army England had ever ſeen, for it conſiſted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horſemen completely armed, and 4000 light armed; and was attended by a fleet to ſupply it with proviſions. Theſe, beſides the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irreſiſtible body: Edward, however, was obliged to divide it, reſerving the command of 40,000 of his beſt troops to himſelf. With theſe he attacked the Scotch army under Wallace at Falkirk, while their diſputes ran ſo high, that the brave regent was deſerted by Cumming, the moſt powerful nobleman in Scotland, and at the head of the beſt diviſion of his countrymen. Wallace, whoſe troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with vaſt loſs, but made an orderly retreat; during which he found means to have a conference with Bruce, and to convince him of his error in joining with Edward. Wallace ſtill continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions againſt the Engliſh; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who moſt ungenerouſly put him to death at London, as a traitor; but he died himſelf as he was preparing to renew his invaſion of Scotland with a ſtill more deſolating ſpirit of ambition, after having deſtroyed 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Bruce died ſoon after the battle of Falkirk; but not before he had inſpired his ſon, who was a priſoner at large about the Engliſh court, with the glorious reſolution of vindicating his own rights, and his country's independency. He eſcaped from London, and with his own hand killed Cumming, for his attachment to Edward; and after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his own four brothers, he aſſumed the crown, but was defeated by the Engliſh, who had a great army in Scotland, at the battle of Methven. After his defeat, he fled with one or two friends to the Weſtern iſles, and parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and ſufferings were as inexpreſſible as the courage with which he and his few friends bore them (the lord Douglas eſpecially) was incredible. Though his wife and daughters were ſent priſoners to England, where the beſt of his friends and two of his brothers were put to death, yet ſuch was his perſevering ſpirit that he recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the diſſipated conduct of Edward II. who raiſed an army more numerous and better appointed ſtill than that of his father, to make total conqueſt of Scotland. It is ſaid that it conſiſted of 100,000 men, though this has been ſuppoſed to be an exaggerated computation: however it is admitted that the

army of Bruce did not exceed 30,000; but all of them heroes, who had been bred up in a deteſtation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in point of courage, led this mighty hoſt towards Stirling, then beſieged by Bruce: who had choſen with the greateſt judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were, the earls of Glouceſter, Hereford, Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Thoſe under Bruce were, his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himſelf, was reckoned to be the beſt knight in Scotland, his nephew Randolph earl of Murray, and the young lord Walter, high-ſteward of Scotland. Edward's attack of the Scotch army was exceedingly furious, and required all the courage and firmneſs of Bruce and his friends to reſiſt it, which they did ſo effectually, that they gained one of the moſt complete victories that is recorded in hiſtory. The great loſs of the Engliſh fell upon the braveſt part of their troops, who were led on by Edward in perſon againſt Bruce himſelf. The Scotch writers make the loſs of the Engliſh to amount to 50,000 men. Be that as it will, there certainly never was a more total defeat, though the conquerors loſt 4000. The flower of the Engliſh nobility were either killed or taken priſoners. Their camp, which was immenſely rich, and calculated for the purpoſe rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himſelf with a few followers, favoured by the goodneſs of their horſes, were purſued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, from whence he eſcaped in a fiſhing-boat. This great and deciſive battle happened in the year 1314 *.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a ſeries of the moſt glorious ſucceſſes; and ſo well did his nobility underſtand the principles of civil liberty, and ſo unfettered were they by religious conſiderations, that, in a letter they ſent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had ſet aſide Baliol for debaſing the crown by holding it of England: and that they would do the ſame by Robert, if he ſhould make the like attempt. Robert having thus delivered Scotland, ſent his brother Edward to Ireland, at the head of an army, with which he conquered the greateſt part of that kingdom, and was proclaimed its king; but by expoſing himſelf too much, he was killed. Robert, before his death, which happened in 1328, made an advantageous peace with England; and when he died, he was acknowledged to be indiſputably the greateſt hero of his age.

The glory of the Scots may be ſaid to have been in its zenith under Robert I. who was ſucceeded by his ſon David II. He was a virtuous prince, but his abilities, both in war and peace, were eclipſed by his brother in-law and enemy Edward III. of England, whoſe ſiſter he married. Edward, who was as keen as any of his predeceſſors, upon the conqueſt of Scotland, eſpouſed the cauſe of Baliol, ſon to Baliol, the original competitor. His progreſs was at firſt amazingly rapid; and he and Edward defeated the royal party in many bloody battles; but Baliol was at laſt driven out of his uſurped kingdom by the Scotch patriots. David had the misfortune to be taken priſoner by the Engliſh at the battle of Durham: and after continuing above eleven

* That the Scots of thoſe days were better acquainted with Mars than the Muſes, may be ſeen from a ſcoſſing ballad, made on this memorable victory, which begins as follows;

Maydens of England ſore may ye mourn,
For your lemmons you have loſt at Bannockburn.
With heve a low.
What ho! weened the king of England,
So ſoon to have won all Scotland.
With rumby low.

years in captivity, he paid 100,000 marks for his ranſom; and died in peace without iſſue, in the yeat 1371.

The crown of Scotland then devolved upon the family of Stuart, by its head having been married to the daughter of Robert I. The firſt king of that name was Robert II. a wiſe and brave prince. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Robert III. whoſe age and infirmities diſqualified him from reigning; ſo that he was forced to truſt the government to his brother, the duke of Albany, an ambitious prince, who ſeems to have had an eye to the crown for his own family. Robert, upon this, attempted to ſend his ſecond ſon to France; but he was moſt ungenerouſly intercepted by Henry IV. of England; and, after ſuffering a long captivity, he was obliged to pay an exorbitant ranſom. During the impriſonment of James, in England, the military glory of the Scots was carried to its greateſt height in France, where they ſupported that tottering monarchy againſt England, and their generals obtained ſome of the firſt titles of the kingdom.

James, the firſt of that name, upon his return to Scotland, diſcovered great talents for governments, enacted many wiſe laws, and was beloved by the people. He had received an excellent educatiou in England during the reigns of Henry IV. and V. where he ſaw the feudal ſyſtem refined from many of the imperfections which ſtill adhered to it in his own kingdom; he determined therefore to abridge the overgrown power of the nobles, and to recover ſuch lands as had been unjuſtly wreſted from the crown during his minority and the preceding reigns; but the execution of theſe deſigns coſt him his life; he being murdered in his bed by ſome of the chief nobility in 1437, and the 44th year of his age.

A long minority ſucceeded; by James II. would probably have equalled the greateſt of his anceſtors both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been ſuddenly killed by the accidental burſting of a cannon, in the thirteenth year of his age, as he was beſieging the caſtle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the Engliſh.

Suſpicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and many of the errors of a female mind, are viſible in the conduct of James III. and his turbulent reign was cloſed by a rebellion of his ſubjects, being ſlain in battle in 1488, aged thirty-five.

His ſon, James IV. was the moſt accompliſhed prince of the age; he was naturally generous and brave: he loved magnificence, he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his ſubjects, ſo that they greatly increaſed in riches; and the court of James, at the time of his marriage with Henry VII.'s daughter, was ſplendid and reſpectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family diſtemper, a predilection for the French, in whoſe cauſe he raſhly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the Engliſh, in the battle of Flodden, anno 1513, and the fortieth year of his age.

The minority of his ſon, James V. was long and turbulent: and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the firſt being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the houſe of Guiſe. He inſtituted the court of ſeſſion, enacted many ſalutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was ſo equally poiſed between the contending princes of Europe, that James's friendſhip was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle, Henry VIII. of England, from all whom he received magnificent preſents. But James took little ſhare in foreign affairs; he ſeemed rather to imitate his predeceſſors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and the

doctrines

doctrines of the Reformation beginning to be propagated in Scotland, he gave way, at the inſtigation of the clergy, to a religious perſecution, though it is generally believed that, had he lived longer, he would have ſeized all the church revenues, in imitation of Henry. However, having rather ſlighted ſome friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thereby given great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this ſhort expedition, the Engliſh army retired to Berwick. Upon this the king of Scotland, ſent ten thouſand men to the weſtern borders, who entered England, at Solway Frith; and he himſelf followed them at a ſmall diſtance ready to join them upon occaſion. But he ſoon after gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, lord Maxwell, of his commiſſion, and conferring the command on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman, who was his favourite. The army were ſo much diſguſted with this alteration, that they were ready to diſband, when a ſmall body of Engliſh horſe appeared, not exceeding five hundred. A panic ſeized the Scots, who immediately took to flight, ſuppoſing themſelves to be attacked by the whole body of the Engliſh army. The Engliſh horſe, ſeeing them flee with ſuch precipitation, cloſely purſued them, and ſlew great numbers, taking priſoners ſeven lords, two hundred gentlemen, and eight hundred ſoldiers, with twenty-four pieces of ordnance. This diſaſter ſo much affected king James, that it threw him into a fit of illneſs, of which he ſoon after died on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and ſucceſſor, Mary, was but a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her imprudence, and her misfortunes are alike famous in hiſtory. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that during her minority, and while ſhe was wife to Francis II. of France, the Reformation advanced in Scotland: that being called to the throne of her anceſtors while a widow, ſhe married her own couſin-german, the lord Darnley, whoſe untimely death hath given riſe to ſo much controverſy. The conſequence of her huſband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was conſidered as his murderer, was an inſurrection of her ſubjects, from whom ſhe fled into England, where ſhe was ungenerouſly detained a priſoner for eighteen years; and afterwards, on motives of ſtate policy, beheaded by queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the forty-ſixth year of her age.

Mary's ſon, James VI. of Scotland, ſucceeded, in right of his blood from Henry VII. upon the death of queen Elizabeth, to the Engliſh crown, after ſhewing conſiderable abilities in the government of Scotland. This union of the two crowns, in fact, deſtroyed the independency, as it impoveriſhed the people of Scotland; for the ſeat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to ſeek for bread in other countries. James, after a ſplendid, but troubleſome reign over his three kingdoms, left them in 1625, to his ſon, the unfortunate Charles I. That prince, by his deſpotic principles and conduct, induced both his Scottiſh and Engliſh ſubjects to take up arms againſt him; and indeed, it was in Scotland that the ſword was firſt drawn againſt Charles. But when the royal party was totally defeated in England, the king put himſelf into the powers of the Scottiſh army; they at firſt treated him with reſpect, but afterwards delivered him up to the Engliſh parliament, on condition of their paying 400,000 pounds to the Scots, which was ſaid to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made ſeveral bloody but unſucceſsful attempts, to reſtore his ſon Charles II. That

prince

prince was finally defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worceſter, 1651, after which, to the time of his reſtoration, the commonwealth of England and the protector gave law to Scotland. I have, in another place, touched on the moſt material parts of Charles's reign, and that of his deluded brother, James VII. of Scotland, and II. of England, as well as of King William, who was ſo far from being a friend to Scotland, that, relying on his royal word to her parliament, ſhe was brought to the brink of ruin.

The ſtate of parties in England at the acceſſion of queen Anne, was ſuch, that the Whigs once more had recourſe to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to the incorporate Union as it now ſtands. It was long before the majority of the Scotch parliament would liſten to the propoſal; but, at laſt, partly from conviction, and partly through the force of money diſtributed among the needy nobility, it was agreed to; ſince which event the hiſtory of Scotland becomes the ſame with that of England.

ENGLAND.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	380	between	50 and 56 North latitude.
Breadth	300		2 Eaſt and 6-20 Weſt longitude.

Great Britain contains 79,712 ſquare miles, with 119 inhabitants to each.

Climate and boundaries. THE longeſt day in the northern parts contains 17 hours 30 minutes; and the ſhorteſt in the ſouthern near eight hours. It is bounded on the north by that part of the iſland called Scotland; on the Eaſt by the German ocean; on the Weſt by St. George's Channel: and on the South by the Engliſh Channel, which parts it from France, and contains 49,450 ſquare miles,

The ſituation, by the ſea waſhing it on three ſides, renders England liable to a great uncertainty of weather, ſo that the inhabitants on part of the ſea-coaſts are often viſited by agues and fevers. On the other hand, it prevents the extremes of heat and cold, to which other places, lying in the ſame degree of latitude, are ſubject; and it is, on that account, friendly to the longevity of the inhabitants in general, eſpecially thoſe who live on a dry ſoil. To this ſituation likewiſe we are to aſcribe that perpetual verdure for which England is remarkable, occaſioned by refreſhing ſhowers and the warm vapours of the ſea.

Name and divisions, ancient and modern. Antiquaries are divided with regard to the etymology of the word *England*; ſome derive it from a Celtic word, ſignifying a level country; bnt I prefer the common etymology of its being derived from Anglen, a province now ſubject to his Daniſh majeſty, which furniſhed a great part of the original Saxon adventurers into this iſland. In the time of the Romans the whole iſland went by the name of *Britannia*. The word *Brit*, according to Mr. Camden, ſignified painted or ſtained; the ancient inhabitants being famous for painting their bodies; other antiquaries, however, do not agree in this etymology. The weſtern tract of England, which is almoſt ſeparated from the reſt of the rivers Severn


British Statute Miles.
IRELAND
SCOTLAND
IRISH SEA
ENGLISH
Fair Head
Londonderry
Raphoe
Dromore
Down Patrick
Drogheda
DUBLIN
Howth Head
Wicklow
Waterford
Hartland Point
St. George's Channel
Cardigan Bay
Bristol Channel
Scilly I.
Land's End
Lizard Pt
Start Pt
Dartmouth
Plymouth
Exeter
Bath
Wells
Barnstaple
Carlisle
Dumfries
Whitehaven
Lancaster
Liverpool
Chester
Shrewsbury
Hereford
Worcester
Gloucester
Monmouth
Isle of Man
Douglas
Peel
Castletown
Ramsey
Derby Ho
Strangford B
Carlingford B
Holyhead
Anglesea
Caernarvon
Bangor
Conway
Denbigh
Flint
Radnor
Brecknock
Glamorgan
Carmarthen
Pembroke
Cumberland
Westmore-land
Lancashire
Cheshire
Montgomery Sh
Denbigh Sh
Merioneth Sh
Radnor Sh
Brecknock Sh
Glamorgan Sh
Carmarthen Sh
Pembroke Sh
Monmouth Sh
Hereford Sh
Shropshire
Somerset
Devon
Dorset
Wilts
Berks
Northumberland
Berwick
Penrith
Keswick
Kirkcudbright
Solway Firth
Derwent Water
Windermere
Ullswater
Ennerdale Water
Wastwater
Buttermere
Crummock Water
Bassenthwaite Water
Thirlmere
Grasmere
Rydal Water
Coniston Water
Esk
Eden
Derwent
Ribble
Mersey
Dee
Severn
Wye
Usk
Taff
Tamar
Exe
Avon
Thames
Kennet
Kingsbridge
Plymouth Sound
Dartmouth Harbour
Torbay
Tynemouth Haven
Lundy I
Skerries
Holyhead Mountain
Snowdon
Cader Idris
Plinlimmon
Brecon Beacons
Black Mountains
Malvern Hills
Cheviot Hills
Lammermuir Hills
Pentland Hills
Moorfoot Hills
Lowther Hills
Queensberry Hill
Skiddaw
Helvellyn
Scafell
Great Gable
Langdale Pikes
Coniston Old Man
Saddleback
Carrock Fell
Cross Fell
Hartside
Alston
Hexham
Newcastle
Durham
Darlington
Richmond
Northallerton
Ripon
Harrogate
Leeds
Wakefield
Barnsley
Sheffield
Doncaster
Selby
York
Beverley
Hull
Scarborough
Whitby
Malton
Pickering
Thirsk
Boroughbridge
Knaresborough
Otley
Skipton
Settle
Clitheroe
Preston
Wigan
Warrington
Chester
Nantwich
Whitchurch
Oswestry
Shrewsbury
Ludlow
Bridgnorth
Wellington
Newport
Stafford
Lichfield
Tamworth
Coventry
Warwick
Leamington
Stratford upon Avon
Evesham
Pershore
Worcester
Droitwich
Kidderminster
Bewdley
Tenbury
Ludlow
Leominster
Hereford
Ross
Monmouth
Chepstow
Abergavenny
Brecon
Builth
Rhayader
Llandovery
Llandilo
Carmarthen
Haverfordwest
Pembroke
Tenby
Milford Haven
Fishguard
Cardigan
Aberystwith
Machynlleth
Dolgelly
Barmouth
Harlech
Tremadoc
Pwllheli
Carnarvon
Bangor
Beaumaris
Conway
Llanrwst
Denbigh
Ruthin
Wrexham
Mold
Holywell
Flint
Rhuddlan
St. Asaph
Abergele
Llandudno
Penmaenmawr
Bangor Ferry
Menai Bridge
Anglesea
Holyhead
Caernarvon
Nevin
Pwllheli
Tremadoc
Portmadoc
Barmouth
Dolgelly
Machynlleth
Aberystwith
Cardigan
Newcastle Emlyn
Llandyssil
Lampeter
Llanbedr


ENGLAND
AND WALES
From the Best
AUTHORITIES.
Engraved for D. Oyler & Son Holborn
BRITISH OCEAN
BRITISH CHANNEL
FRANCE
NORMANDY
NETHERLANDS
NORTHUMBERLAND
CUMBERLAND
DURHAM
WESTMORELAND
YORKSHIRE
LANCASHIRE
CHESHIRE
DERBYSHIRE
NOTTINGHAMSHIRE
LINCOLNSHIRE
LEICESTERSHIRE
STAFFORDSHIRE
SHROPSHIRE
WARWICKSHIRE
HEREFORDSHIRE
GLOCESTERSHIRE
WILTSHIRE
DORSETSHIRE
NORFOLK
SUFFOLK
ESSEX
HERTFORDSHIRE
MIDDLESEX
SURREY
SUSSEX
KENT
Berwick upon Tweed
Holy Isle
Alnwick
Newcastle
Sunderland
Durham
Tees Mouth
Whitby
Scarborough
Hull
Leeds
Manchester
Liverpool
Lincoln
Nottingham
Derby
Norwich
Yarmouth
Lowestoft
Ipswich
Harwich
Colchester
Chelmsford
Maldon
Thames
Medway
Rochester
Canterbury
Dover
Deal
Margate
Ramsgate
Sheerness
Gravesend
Greenwich
Blackheath
Woolwich
Kingston
Richmond
Windsor
Reading
Oxford
Bath
Bristol
Salisbury
Winchester
Southampton
Portsmouth
Isle of Wight
Brighton
Lewes
Rye
Hastings
Dungeness
Calais
Dunkirk
Gravelines
Ostend
Nieuport
Flushing
Middleburg
Goree
Helvoetsluys
Rotterdam
Amsterdam
Texel
Vlie
Ameland
Schelling
Terschelling
Vlieland
Mukilburg
Cape Grisnez
Boulogne
Etaples
Abbeville
Dieppe
Fecamp
Havre de Grace
Honfleur
Caen
Bayeux
Cherbourg
Cape La Hogue
Alderney
Guernsey
Jersey
Cape Barfleur
Cape Levi
Cape de la Hague
Cape Carteret
Granville
Mont St Michel
St Malo
Cape Frehel
Cape Fresnaye
Cape Erquy
Cape Flamanville
Cape Barfleur
Cape Levi
Cape de la Hague
Cape Carteret
Granville
Mont St Michel
St Malo
Cape Frehel
Cape Fresnaye
Cape Erquy
Cape Flamanville


Irish Statute Miles.
Fair Head
Loughbourg
Raphoe
Belfast
Dromore
Down Patrick
Dundalk
Drogheda
DUBLIN
Howth Head
Wicklow
Waterford
IRELAND

and Dee, is called Wales, or the *land of ſtrangers*, becauſe inhabited by the Belgic Gauls, who were driven thither by the Romans, and were ſtrangers to the old natives.

When the Romans provinciated England, they divided it into,

1. Britannia Prima, which contained the ſouthern parts of the kingdom.

2. Britannia Secunda, containing the weſtern parts, comprehending Wales. And,

3 Maxima Cæſarienſis, which reached from the Trent as far northward as the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, and ſometimes as far as that of Adrian in Scotland, between the Forth and Clyde.

To theſe diviſions ſome add the Flavia Cæſarienſis, which they ſuppoſe to contain the midland counties.

When the Saxons invaded England about the year 550, and when they were eſtabliſhed in the year 582, their chief leaders appropriated to themſelves, after the manner of the other northern conquerors, the countries which each had been the moſt inſtrumental in conquering; and the whole formed a heptarchy, or political republic, conſiſting of ſeven kingdoms. But in time of war, a chief was choſen out of the ſeven kingdoms; for which reaſon I call it a political republic, its conſtitution greatly reſembling that of ancient Greece.

Kingdoms erected by the Saxons, uſually ſtyled the Saxon Heptarchy.

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Kent, founded by Hengiſt in 475, and ended in 823.	Kent –	Canterbury
2. South Saxons, founded by Ella in 491, and ended in 600.	Suſſex –	Chicheſter
	Surry –	Southwark
3. Eaſt Agles founded by Uffa in 575, and ended in 793.	Norfolk –	Norwich
	Suffolk –	Bury St. Edmonds
	Cambridge –	Cambridge
	With the Iſle of Ely	Ely
4. Weſt Saxons founded by Cerdic 512, and ended in 1060.	Cornwall –	Launceſton
	Devon –	Exeter
	Dorſet –	Dorcheſter
	Somerſet –	Bath
	Wilts –	Saliſbury
	Hants –	Winchester
	Berks –	Abingdon
5. Northumberland, founded by Ida in 574, and ended in 792	Lancaſter –	Lancaſter
	York –	York
	Durham –	Durham
	Cumberland –	Carliſle
	Weſtmoreland –	Appleby
	Northumberland and Scotland to the Frith of Edinburgh	Newcaſtle
6. Eaſt Saxons, founded by Erchewin in 527, and ended in 746.	Eſſex	London
	Middleſex, and part of Hertford	

Kingdoms.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
7. Mercia, founded by Cridda in 582, and ended in 874.	The other part of Hertford	Hertford
	Glouceſter	Glouceſter
	Hereford –	Hereford
	Worceſter –	Worceſter
	Warwick –	Warwick
	Leiceſter –	Leiceſter
	Rutland –	Oakham
	Northampton –	Northampton
	Lincoln	Lincoln
	Huntingdon –	Huntingdon
	Bedford –	Bedford
	Buckingham –	Ayleſbury
	Oxford –	Oxford
	Stafford –	Stafford
	Derby –	Derby
	Salop –	Shrewſbury
	Nottingham –	Nottingham
	Cheſter –	Cheſter.

I have been the more ſolicitous to preſerve theſe diviſions, as they account for different local cuſtoms, and many very eſſential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their riſe from different inſtitutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invaſion, England has been divided into counties, a certain number of which, excepting Middleſex and Cheſhire, are comprehended in ſix circuits, or annual progreſs of the judges, for adminiſtering juſtice to the ſubjects who are at a diſtance from the Capital. The circuits are:

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
1. Home Circuit	Eſſex —	Chelmsford, Colcheſter, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, and Stratford.
	Hertford —	Hertford, St. Albans, Ware, Hitchlin, Baldock, Biſhop's-Stortford, Berkhamſted, Hemſted, and Barnet.
	Kent —	Maidſtone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rocheſter, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Feverſham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerneſs, Tunbridge, Margate, Graveſend, and Milton.
	Surry —	Southwark, Kingſton, Guildford, Croydon, Epſom, Richmond, Wandſworth, Batterſea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagſhot, Egham, and Darking.
	Suſſex —	Chicheſter, Lewes, Rye, Eaſt Grinſtead, Haſtings, Horſham, Midhurſt Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelſea, Battel, Brighthelmſtone, and Petworth.

Cir-

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
2. Norfolk Circuit.	Bucks	Aylesbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great-Marlow, Stoney Stratford, and Newport Pagnel.
	Bedford –	Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunstable, Luton, and Biggleswade.
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon, St. Ives, Kimbolton, Godmanchester, St. Neot's Ramsey, and Yaxley.
	Cambridge –	Cambridge, Ely, Newmarket, Royston, and Wisbich.
	Suffolk –	Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leostoff, part of Newmarket, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon, Halesworth, Mildenhall, Beccles, Framlingham, Stow-market, Wood-Bridge, Lavenhman, Hadley, Long-Melford, Stratford, and Easterbergholt.
	Norfolk	Norwich, Thetford, Lynn, Yarmouth.
	Oxon –	Oxford, Banbury, Chippin-Norton, Henley, Burford, Whitney, Dorchester, Woodstock, and Thame.
3. Oxford Circuit.	Berks –	Abingdon, Windsor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, and Oakingham.
	Glocester, –	Glocester, Tewksbury, Cirencester, part of Bristol, Campden, Stow, Berkley, Dursley, Lechdale, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, & Marshfield.
	Worcester –	Worcester, Evesham, Droitwich, Bewdly, Stourbridge, Kidderminster, and Pershore.
	Monmouth –	Monmouth, Chepstow, Abergavenny, Caerleon, and Newport.
	Hereford –	Hereford, Leominster, Weobly, Ledbury, Kyneton, and Ross.
	Salop –	Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgnorth, Wenlock, Bishop's Castle, Whit-Church, Oswestry, Wem, and Newport.
	Stafford –	Stafford, Litchfield, Newcastle under Line, Wolverhampton, Rugeley, Burton, Utoxeter, and Stone.
	Warwick –	Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Stratford upon Avon, Tamworth, Aulcester, Nuncaton, and Atherton.
	Leicester –	Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, Ashby de-la-Zouch, Bosworth, and Haborough

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
		borough.
	Derby –	Derby, Chesterfield, Wirksworth, Ashbourne, Bakewell, Balsover, and Buxton.
	Nottingham –	Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, East and West Retford, Mansfield, Tuxford, Worksop, and Blithe.
4. Midland Circuit.	Lincoln –	Lincoln, Stamford, Boston, Grantham, Croyland, Spalding, New Sleaford, Great Grimsby, Gainsborough, Louth, and Horncastle.
	Rutland –	Oakham and Uppingham.
	Northampton	Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry, Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle, Wellingborough, Thrapston, Towcester, Rockingham, Kettering, and Rothwell.
	Hants –	Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumsey, Arlesford: and Newport, Yarmouth, and Cowes, in the Isle of Weight.
	Wilts –	Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmsbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Trowbridge, Bradford, and Warminster.
	Dorset	Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborne, Shaftebury, Poole, Blandford, Bridport, Weymouth, Melcombe, Wareham, and Winburn.
	Somerset —	Bath, Wells, Bristol in part, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilchester, Minehead, Milbourn-Port, Glastonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunster, Watchet, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton Mallet, Croscomb, and Froome.
5 Western Circuit	Devon —	Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstable, Bideford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, Topsham, Okehampton, Ashburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totnes, Axminster, Plympton, and Ilfracomb.
	Cornwall —	Launceston, Falmouth, Truro, Saltash Bodmyn, St. Ives, Padstow, Tregony, Fowey, Penryn, Kellington, Leskard, Lestwiel, Helston, Penzance, and Redruth.

Cir-

Circuits.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
6. Northern Circuit *.	York —	York, Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverley, Northallerton, Burlington, Knaresborough, Barnesly, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaster, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heydon, Howden, Thirske, Gisborough, Pickering, and Yarum.
	Durham —	Durham, Stockton, Sunderland, Stanhope, Barnard Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, and Awkland.
	Northumberland	Newcastle, Tinmouth, North-Shiels, Morpeth, Alnwick, and Hexham.
	Lancaster —	Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Warington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkshead, and Newton.
	Westmoreland	Appleby, Kendal, Lansdale, Kirby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, Milthorpe.
	Cumberland —	Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven, Ravenglass, Egremont, Keswick, Workington, and Jerby.

Middlesex is not comprehended; and Cheshire is left out of these circuits, because, being a county palatine, it enjoys municipal laws and privileges. The same may be said of Wales, which is divided into four circuits.

Counties exclusive of the Circuits.	Middlesex —	London, first meridian, N. Lat. 51-30. Westminster, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, and Hampton Court.
	Chester —	Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Malpas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sandbach, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodisham, and Haulton.

CIRCUITS OF WALES.

North-East Circuit.	Flint —	Flint, St. Asaph, and Hollywell.
	Denbigh —	Denbigh, Wrexham, and Ruthen.
	Montgomory —	Montgomery, Llanvylin, and Welchpool

*In the Lent or Spring Assizes, the Northern Circuits extend only to York and Lancaster; the assizes at Durham, Newcastle, Appleby, and Carlisle, being held only in the autumn, and distinguished by the appellation of the *long circuit*.

North-West Circuit.	Angleſey	—	Beaumaris Holyhead, and Newburgh.
	Caernarvon	—	Bangor, Conway, Caernarvon, and Pullhilly.
	Merioneth	—	Dolgelly, Bala, and Harleigh.
South-East Circuit.	Radnor	—	Radnor, Preſtean, and Knighton,
	Brecon	—	Brecknock, Built, and Hay.
	Glamorgan	—	Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath, and Swanſey,
South-West Circuit.	Pembroke	—	St. David's, Haverfordweſt Pembroke, Tenby, Fiſeard, and Milfordhaven.
	Cardigan	—	Cardigan, Aberiſtwith, and Llanbadarn-vawer.
	Caermarthen	—	Caermarthen, Kidwelly, Lanimdovery, Landilobawr, Langharn, and Lanelthy.

In ENGLAND.

40	Counties, which ſend up to parliament	80 knights.
25	Cities (Ely none, London four)	50 citizens.
167	Boroughs, two each — —	334 burgeſſes.
5	Boroughs (Abingdon, Banbury, Bewdley, Higham Ferrars, and Monmouth), one each	5 burgeſſes.
2	Univerſities — —	4 repreſentatives.
8	Cinque ports (Haſtings, Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Hythe, and their three dependents, Rye, Winchelſea, and Seaford), two each	16 barons.

WALES.

12	Counties — — —	12 knights.
12	Boroughs (Pembrobe two, Merioneth none), one each	12 burgeſſes.

SCOTLAND.

33	Shires — —	30 knights.
37	Cities and Boroughs — —	15 burgeſſes.
	Total	558

Beſides the 52 counties into which England and Wales are divided, there are counties corporate, conſiſting of certain diſtricts, to which the liberties and juriſdictions peculiar to a county have been granted by royal charter. Thus the city of London is a county diſtinct from Middleſex; the cities of York, Cheſter, Briſtol, Exeter, Norwich, Worceſter, and the towns of Kingſton upon Hull and Newcaſtle upon Tyne, are counties of themſelves, diſtinct from thoſe in which they lie. The ſame may be ſaid of Berwick upon Tweed, which lies in Scotland, and hath within its juriſdiction a ſmall territory of two miles on the north ſide of the river.

Under the name of a town, boroughs and cities are contained: for every

borough or city is a town, though every town is not a borough or city. A borough is ſo called, becauſe it ſends up burgeſſes to parliament; and this makes the difference between a village or town, and a borough. Some boroughs are corporate, and ſome not corporate; and though decayed, as Old Sarum, they ſtill ſend burgeſſes to parliament. A city is a corporate borough, that hath had, or at preſent hath, a biſhop; for if the biſhoprick be diſſolved, yet the city remains. To have ſuburbs proves it to be a city. Some cities are alſo counties, as before mentioned.

SOIL, AIR SEASONS, AND WATER.] The ſoil of England and Wales differs in each county, not ſo much from the nature of the ground, though that muſt be admitted to occaſion a very conſiderable alteration, as from the progreſs which the inhabitants of each county have made in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marſhes, and many other local improvements, which are here carried to a much greater degree of perfection than they are perhaps in any other part of the world, if we except China. To enter upon particular ſpecimens and proofs of theſe improvements, would require a large volume. All that can be ſaid therefore is in general, that if no unkindly ſeaſon happen, England produces corn, not only ſufficient to maintain her own inhabitants, but to bring large ſums of ready money for her exports.

The ſoil of England ſeems to be particularly adapted for rearing timber; and the plantations of trees round the houſes of noblemen and gentlemen, and even of peaſants, are delightful and aſtoniſhing at the ſame time. Some have obſerved a decay of that oak timber which anciently formed the great fleets that England put to ſea, but as no public complaints of this kind have been heard, it may be ſuppoſed that great ſtores are ſtill in reſerve; unleſs it may be thought that our ſhips-yards have lately been partly ſupplied from America, or the Baltic.

As to air, I can add but little to what I have already ſaid concerning the climate *. In many places it is certainly loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by weſterly winds; but they are ventilated by winds and ſtorms, ſo that in this reſpect England is to foreigners, and people of delicate conſtitutions, more diſagreeable than unſalubrious. It cannot, however, be denied that in England the weather is ſo exceſſively capricious and unfavourable to certain conſtitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to fly to foreign countries, in hopes of obtaining a renovation of their health.

After what we have obſerved in the Engliſh air, the reader may form ſome idea of its ſeaſons which are ſo uncertain, that they admit of no deſcription. Spring, ſummer, autumn, and winter, ſucceed each other, but in what month

* The climate of England has more advantages than are generally allowed it, if we admit the opinion of king Charles the Second upon this ſubject, which is corroborated by that of Sir William Temple; and it may be obſerved, that they were both travellers. "I muſt needs add one thing (ſays Sir William, in his Miſcellanea, part ii. p. 11, "edit. 8vo. 1690) in favour of our climate, which I heard the king ſay, and I thought "new and right, and truly like a king of England, that loved and eſteemed his own "country. It was in reply to ſome company that were reviling our climate, and extolling "thoſe of Italy and Spain, or at leaſt of France. He ſaid, He thought that was the "beſt climate where he could be abroad in the air with pleaſure, or at leaſt without "trouble or inconvenience, the moſt days in the year, and the moſt hours in the day; "and this he thought he could be in England, more than in any country he knew in "Europe." "And I believe (adds Sir William) it is true, not only of the hot and the "cold, but even among our neighbours in France and the Low Countries themſelves "where the heats or the colds, and changes of ſeaſons are leſs treatable (or moderate) "than they are with us."

their

their different appearances take place is very undetermined. The ſpring begins ſometimes in February, and ſometimes in April. In May the face of the country is often covered with hoary froſt inſtead of bloſſoms. The beginning of June is ſometimes as cold as in the middle of December, yet at other times the thermometer riſes in that month as high as it does in Italy. Even Auguſt has its viciſſitudes of heat and cold, and upon an average September, and next to it October, are the two moſt agreeable months in the year. The natives ſometimes experience all the four ſeaſons within the compaſs of one day, cold, temperate, hot, and mild weather. After ſaying thus much, it would be in vain to attempt any farther deſcription of the Engliſh ſeaſons. Their inconſtancy, however, is not attended with the effects that might be naturally apprehended. A fortnight, or at moſt three weeks, generally make up the difference with regard to the maturity of the fruits of the earth: and it is hardly ever obſerved that the inhabitants ſuffer by a hot ſummer. Even the greateſt irregularity, and the moſt unfavourable appearance of the ſeaſons, are not, as in other countries, attended with famine, and very ſeldom with ſcarcity. Perhaps this, in a great meaſure, may be owing to the vaſt improvements of agriculture, for when ſcarcity has been complained of, it generally, if not always, proceeded from the exceſſive exportations of grain on account of the drawback, and the profit of the returns.

In ſpeaking of water, I do not include rivers, brooks, or lakes; I mean waters for the common convenience of life, and thoſe that have mineral qualities. The champaign parts of England are generally ſupplied with excellent ſprings and fountains; though a diſcerning palate may perceive, that they frequently contain ſome mineral impregnation. In ſome very high lands, the inhabitants are diſtreſſed for water, and ſupply themſelves by trenches, or digging deep wells. The conſtitutions of the Engliſh, and the diſeaſes to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquiſitive after ſalubrious waters, for the recovery and preſervation of their health; ſo that England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The moſt celebrated are the hot-baths of Bath and Briſtol in Somerſetſhire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyſhire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epſom, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea-water is uſed as commonly as any other for medical purpoſes; and ſo delicate are the tones of the Engliſh fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the ſea-water of one coaſt and that of another.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY AND MOUNTAINS. The induſtry of the Engliſh is ſuch, as to ſupply the abſence of thoſe favours which nature has ſo laviſhly beſtowed upon ſome foreign climates, and in many reſpects even to exceed them. No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in beautiful ſcenes. The variety of high-lands and low lands, the former generally ſwelling, and both of them forming proſpects equal to the moſt luxuriant imagination, the corn and meadow ground, the intermixtures of encloſures and plantation, the noble ſeats, comfortable houſes, cheerful villages, and well-ſtocked farms, often riſing in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the moſt vivid colours of nature, are inexpreſſible. The moſt barren ſpots are not without their verdure; but nothing can give us a higher idea of the Engliſh induſtry than obſerving that ſome of the pleaſanteſt counties in the kingdom are naturally the moſt barren, but rendered fruitful by labour. Upon the whole, it may be ſafely affirmed, that no country in Europe equals England in the beauty of its proſpects, or the opulence of its inhabitants.

Though

Though England is full of delightful riſing grounds, and the moſt enchanting ſlopes, yet it contains few mountains. The moſt noted are the Peak in Derbyſhire, the Endle in Lancaſhire, the Wolds in Yorkſhire, the Cheviot-hills on the borders of Scotland, the Chiltern in Bucks, Malvern in Worceſterſhire, Cotſwould in Glouceſterſhire, the Wrekin in Shropſhire; with thoſe of Plinlimmon and Snowdon in Wales. In general however Wales and the northern parts may be termed mountainous.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers in England add greatly to its beauty as well as its opulence. The Thames, the nobleſt perhaps in the world, riſes on the confines of Glouceſterſhire, a little S. W. of Cirenceſter; and after receiving the many tributary ſtreams of other rivers, it paſſes to Oxford, then by Abingdon, Wallingford, Marlow, and Windſor. From thence to Kingſton, where formerly it met the tide, which, ſince the building of Weſtminſter-bridge, is ſaid to flow no higher than Richmond; from whence it flows to London, and after dividing the counties of Kent and Eſſex, it widens in its progreſs, till it falls into the ſea at the Nore, from whence it is navigable for large ſhips to London-bridge: but for a more particular deſcription the reader muſt conſult the map. It was formerly a matter of reproach to England among foreigners, that ſo capital a river ſhould have ſo few bridges; thoſe of London and Kingſton being the only two it had, from the Nore to the laſt mentioned place, for many ages. This inconveniency was in ſome meaſure owing to the dearneſs of materials for building ſtone bridges; but perhaps more to the fondneſs which the Engliſh, in former days, had for water-carriage, and the encouragement of navigation. The great increaſe of riches, commerce, and inland trade is now multiplying bridges, and the world cannot parallel for commodiouſneſs, architecture, and workmanſhip, thoſe lately erected at Weſtminſter and Black Friars: Batterſea, Putney, Kew, Richmond, Walton, and Hampton-court, have now bridges likewiſe over the Thames, and others are projecting by public-ſpirited proprietors of the grounds on both ſides.

The river Medway, which riſes near Tunbridge, falls into the Thames at Sheerneſs, and is navigable for the largeſt ſhips as far as Chatham. The Severn, reckoned the ſecond river for importance in England, and the firſt for rapidity, riſes at Plinlimmon-hill in North Wales; becomes navigable at Welſh-pool; runs eaſt to Shrewſbury; then turning ſouth, viſits Bridgenorth, Worceſter, and Tewkeſbury, where it receives the Upper Avon; after having paſſed Glouceſter, it takes a ſouth-weſt direction; is near its mouth increaſed by the Wye and Uſtre, and diſcharges itſelf into the Briſtol Channel, near King-road; and there lie the great ſhips which cannot get up to Briſtol. The Trent riſes in the Moorlands of Staffordſhire, and running ſouth-eaſt by Newcaſtle-under-Line, divides that county into two parts; then turning north-eaſt on the confines of Derbyſhire, viſits Nottingham, running the whole length of that county to Lincolnſhire, and being joined by the Ouſe, and ſeveral other rivers towards the mouth, obtains the name of the Humber, falling into the ſea ſouth-eaſt of Hull.

The other principal rivers in England, are the Ouſe (a Gaelic word ſignifying *water* in general), which falls into the Humber, after receiving the water of many other rivers. Another Ouſe riſes in Bucks, and falls into the ſea near Lynn in Norfolk. The Tyne runs from weſt to eaſt through Northumberland, and falls into the German ſea at Tinmouth, below Newcaſtle. The Tees runs from weſt to eaſt, dividing Durham from Yorkſhire, and falls into the German ſea below Stockton. The Tweed runs from weſt to eaſt on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German ſea at Ber-

wick. The Eden runs from ſouth to the north through Weſtmorland and Cumberland, and paſſing by Carliſle, falls into the Solway Frith below that city. The Lower Avon runs weſt through Wiltſhire to Bath, and then dividing Somerſetſhire from Glouceſterſhire, runs to Briſtol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Cumberland, and paſſing by Cockermouth, falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below. The Ribble, which runs from eaſt to weſt through Lancaſhire, and paſſing by Preſton, diſcharges itſelf into the Iriſh ſea. The Merſey, which turns from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt through Cheſhire, and then dividing Cheſhire from Lancaſhire, paſſes by Liverpool, and falls into the Iriſh ſea a little below that town; and the Dee riſes in Wales, and divides Flintſhire from Cheſhire, falling into the Iriſh Channel below Cheſter.

The lakes of England are few; though it is plain from hiſtory and antiquity, and indeed, in ſome places from the face of the country, that meres and fens have been frequent in England, till drained and converted into arable land. The chief lakes remaining, are Soham mere, Wittleſea mere, and Ramſay mere, in the iſle of Ely, in Cambridgeſhire. All theſe meres in a rainy ſeaſon are overflowed, and form a lake of 40 or 50 miles in circumference. Winader mere lies in Weſtmoreland, and ſome ſmall lakes in Lancaſhire go by the name of Derwent waters.

FORESTS.] The firſt Norman kings of England, partly for political purpoſes, that they might the more effectually enſlave their new ſubjects, and partly from the wantonneſs of power, converted immenſe tracts of grounds into foreſts for the benefit of hunting, and theſe were governed by laws peculiar to themſelves: ſo that it was neceſſary, about the time of paſſing the Magna Charta, to form a code of the foreſt-laws; and juſtices in Eyre, ſo called from their ſitting in the open air, were appointed to ſee them obſerved. By degrees thoſe vaſt tracts were diſforeſted, and the chief foreſts, properly ſo called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are thoſe of Windſor, New Foreſt, the Foreſt of Dean, and Sherwood Foreſt. Thoſe foreſts produced formerly great quantities of excellent oak, elm, aſh, and beech, beſides walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not foreſts, of cheſnut-trees, which exceeded all other kinds of timber, for the purpoſes of building, as appears from many great houſes ſtill ſtanding, in which the cheſnut beams and roofs remain ſtill freſh, and undecayed, though ſome of them above 600 years old.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Among the minerals, the tin mines of Cornwall deſervedly take the lead. They were known to the Greeks and Phenicians, the latter eſpecially, ſome ages before that of the Chriſtian Æra; and ſince the Engliſh have found the method of manufacturing their tin into plates, and white iron, they are of immenſe benefit to the nation. An ore called Mundic is found in the beds of tin, which was very little regarded, till above 70 years ago, Sir Gilbert Clark diſcovered the art of manufacturing it, and it is ſaid now to bring in 150,000l. a year, and to equal in goodneſs the beſt Spaniſh copper, yielding a proportionable quantity of lapis calaminaris for making braſs. Thoſe tin-works are under peculiar regulations, by what are called the ſtannary laws, and the miners have parliaments and privileges of their own, which are in force at this time. The number of Corniſh miners alone is ſaid to amount to 100,000. Some gold has likewiſe been diſcovered in Cornwall, and the Engliſh lead is impregnated with ſilver. The Engliſh coined ſilver is particularly known by roſes, and that of Wales by that prince's cap of feathers. Devonſhire, and other counties of

of England, produce marble, but the beſt kind, which reſembles Egyptian granite, is exceſſively hard to work. Quarries of freeſtone are found in many places. Northumberland and Cheſhire yield allum and ſalt pits. The Engliſh fullers earth is of ſuch infinite conſequence to the cloathing trade, that its exportation is prohibited under the ſevereſt penalties. Pit and ſea coal is found in many counties of England, but the city of London, to encourage the nurſery of ſeamen, is chiefly ſupplied from the pits of Northumberland, and the biſhopric of Durham. The cargoes are ſhipped at Newcaſtle and Sunderland, and the exportation of coals to other countries, is a valuable article.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND. This is ſo copious an article, and ſuch improvements have been made in gardening and agriculture, ever ſince the beſt printed accounts we have had of both, that much muſt be left to the reader's own obſervation and experience. I have already touched, in treating on the ſoil, upon the corn trade of England, but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty concerning the quantities of wheat, barley, rye, peas, beans, vetches, oats, and other horſe grain growing in the kingdom. Excellent inſtitutions for the improvement of agriculture, are now common in England, and their members are ſo public ſpirited as to print periodical accounts of their diſcoveries and experiments, which ſerve to ſhew that both agriculture and gardening can admit to be carried to a much higher ſtate of perfection, than they are in at preſent. Honey and ſaffron are natives of England. It is almoſt needleſs to mention to the moſt uninformed reader, in what plenty the moſt excellent fruits, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooſeberries, raſberries, and other hortulane productions, grow here, and what vaſt quantities of cyder, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in ſome counties. The cyder, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is often preferred, by judicious palates, to French white wine. It is not enough to mention thoſe improvements, did we not obſerve that the natives of England have made the different fruits of all the world their own, ſometimes by ſimple culture, but often by hot beds, and other means of forcing nature. The Engliſh pine-apples are delicious, and now plentiful. The ſame may be ſaid of other natives of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, Perſia and Turkey. The Engliſh grapes are pleaſing to the taſte, but their flavour is not exalted enough for making of wine, and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all the other fine fruits raiſed here. Our kitchen gardens abound with all ſorts of greens, roots, and ſallads, in perfection, ſuch as artichokes, aſparagus, cauliflowers, cabbages, coleworts, brocoli, peas, beans, kidney beans, ſpinage, beets, lettuce, cellary, endive, turnips, carrots, potatoes, muſhrooms, leeks, onions and ſhallots.

Woad for dying is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordſhire, as hemp and flax as in other counties. In nothing, however, have the Engliſh been more ſucceſsful, than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, trefoil, ſaintfoin, lucern, and other meliorating graſſes for the ſoil. It belongs to a botaniſt to recount the various kinds of uſeful and ſalutary herbs, ſhrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The ſoil of Kent, Eſſex, Surry, and Hampſhire, is moſt favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops, which is now become a very conſiderable article of trade.

With regard to animal productions, I ſhall begin with the quadrupeds. The Engliſh oxen are large and fat, but ſome prefer for the table the ſmaller breed of the Scotch, and the Welch cattle, after grazing in Engliſh paſ-

tures. The Engliſh horſes, upon the whole, are the beſt of any in the world, whether we regard their ſpirit, ſtrength, ſwiftneſs, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken by all ranks, from the monarch down to the peaſant, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal, and the ſucceſs has been anſwerable, for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Perſian, Arabian, Spaniſh, and other foreign horſes. It is no uncommon thing for an Engliſh horſe, mare, or gelding, though not of the race kind, to run above 20 miles within the hour, and they have been known to do it in a carriage. The irreſiſtible ſpirit and weight of the Engliſh cavalry, renders them the beſt in the world in war: and an Engliſh hunter will perform incredible things in a fox or ſtag-chace. Thoſe which draw equipages on the ſtreets of London, are particularly beautiful, and a ſet often coſts 1000l. a ſtronger and a heavier breed is employed for other draughts. I muſt not omit that the exportation of horſes to France, and other countries, where they ſell for large prices, has of late become a conſiderable article of commerce. It is hard to ſay how far this traffic with our natural enemies is allowable, but there is certainly leſs danger attending it, as the animals are commonly gelded. The breed of aſſes and mules begin likewiſe to be improved and encouraged in England.

The Engliſh ſheep are of two kinds, thoſe that are valuable for their fleece, and thoſe that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces conſtitute the original ſtaple commodity of England. I have been credibly informed, that in ſome counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in their horſes and dogs, and that in Lincolnſhire, particularly, it is no uncommon thing for one of thoſe animals to ſell for 50l. It muſt, however, be owned, that thoſe large fat ſheep are very rank eating. It is thought that in England twelve millions of fleeces are ſhorn annually, which at a medium of 2s. a fleece, makes 1,200,000l. It is ſuppoſed, however, that by the fall of the value of the fleeces, a fourth part of this ſum ought to be deducted at preſent. The other kind of ſheep, which are fed upon the downs, ſuch as thoſe of Banſtead, Bagſhot-heath, and Devonſhire, where they have, what the farmers call, a ſhort bite, is little, if at all, inferior in flavour and ſweetneſs, to veniſon.

The Engliſh maſtiffs and bulldogs, are the ſtrongeſt and fierceſt of the canine ſpecies in the world, but either from the change of ſoil, or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I. of England, by way of experiment, turned out two Engliſh bulldogs, upon one of the moſt terrible lions in the Tower, and they laid him on his back. The maſtiff, however, has all the courage of the bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly diſtinguiſhed for his fidelity and docility. All the different ſpecies of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domeſtic uſes, are to be found in England.

What I have obſerved of the degeneracy of the Engliſh dogs in foreign countries is applicable to the Engliſh game cocks, which afford much barbarous diverſion to our ſportſmen. The courage of theſe birds is aſtoniſhing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors, and feeders of this generous animal are likewiſe extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree.

Tame fowls are pretty much the ſame in England as in other countries; turkies, peacocks, common poultry, ſuch as cocks, pullets, and capons, geeſe, ſwans, ducks, and tame pigeons. The wild ſort are buſtards, wild geeſe, wild ducks, teal, wigeon, plover, pheaſants, partridges, woodcocks, growſe, quail,

quail, landrail, ſnipe, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, jackdaws and jays, blackbirds, thruſhes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great variety of ſmall birds; canary birds alſo breed in England. The wheat-ear is by many preferred to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its fleſh and flavour, and is peculiar to England.

Few countries are better ſupplied than England with river and ſea-fiſh. Her rivers and ponds contain plenty of ſalmon, trout, eels, pike, perch, ſmelts, carp, tench, barble, gudgeons, roach, dace, grey mullet, bream, plaice, flounders, and craw-fiſh, beſides a delicate lake-fiſh called char, which is found in ſome freſh water lakes of Wales and Cumberland, and as ſome ſay no where elſe. The ſea-fiſh are cod, mackarel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards, ſkaite, ſoles. The john-dory, found towards the weſtern coaſt, is reckoned a great delicacy, as is the red mullet. Several other fiſh are found on the ſame coaſts. As to ſhell-fiſh, they are chiefly oyſters, the propagation of which, upon their proper banks, requires a peculiar culture. Lobſters, crabs, ſhrimps, aud Eſcallops, one of the moſt delicious of ſhell-fiſhes, cockles, wilks, periwinkles, and muſcles, with many other ſmall ſhell-fiſh, abound in the Engliſh ſeas. The whales chiefly viſit the northern coaſt; but great numbers of porpoiſes and ſeals appear in the channel.

With regard to reptiles, ſuch as adders, vipers, ſnakes, and worms; and inſects, ſuch as ants, gnats, waſps, and flies, England is pretty much upon a par with the reſt of Europe; and the difference, if any, becomes more proper for natural hiſtory than geography.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The exemption of the Engliſh conſtitution from the deſpotic powers exereiſed in foreign nations, not excepting republics, is one great reaſon why it is very difficult to aſcertain the number of inhabitants in England; and yet it is certain that this might occaſionally be done, by parliament, withont any violation of public liberty, and probably ſoon will take place. With regard to political calculations, they muſt be very fallible, when applied to England. The prodigious influx of foreigners who ſettle in the nation, the emigrations of inhabitants to America and the iſlands, their return from thence and the great number of hands employed in ſhipping, are all of them matters that render any calculation extremely precarious. Upon the whole, I am apt to think that England is more populous than the eſtimators of her inhabitants are willing to allow. The war with France and Spain before the laſt, annuually employed about 200,000 Engliſhmen, excluſive of Scotch and Iriſh, by ſea and land: and its progreſs carried off, by various means, very near that number. The decay of population was indeed ſenſibly felt, but not ſo much as it was during the wars in queen Anne's reign, though not half of the numbers were then employed in the ſea and land ſervice.

At the ſame time, I am not of opinion that England is at preſent naturally more populous than ſhe was in the reign of Charles I, though ſhe is accidentally ſo. The Engliſh of former ages were ſtrangers to the exceſſive uſe of ſpirituous liquors, and other modes, of living that are deſtructive of propagation. On the other hand, the vaſt quantities of cultivated lands in England, ſince thoſe times, it might reaſonably be preſumed, would be favourable to mankind; but this advantage is probably more than counterbalanced by the prevailing practice of engroſſing farms, which is certainly unfavourable to population; and, independent of this, upon an average, perhaps a married couple has not ſuch a numerous progeny now as formerly. I will take

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the liberty to make another obſervation, which falls within the cognizance of almoſt every man, and that is the incredible increaſe of foreign names upon our pariſh books, and public liſts, compared to what they were even in the reign of George I.

After what has been premiſed, it would be praſumptous to pretend to aſcertain the number of inhabitans in England and Wales; but, in my own private opinion, there cannot be fewer than 7,000,000.

Engliſhmen, in their perſons, are generally well-ſized, regularly featured, commonly fair rather than otherwiſe, and florid in their complexions. It is however, to he preſumed that the vaſt number of foreigners that are intermingled and intermarried with the natives, have given a caſt to their perſons and complexions different from thoſe of their anceſtors 150 years ago. The women in their ſhape, features, and complexion, appear ſo graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But beſide the external graces ſo peculiar to the women in England, they are ſtill to be more valued for their prudent behaviour, thorough cleanlineſs, and a tender affection for their huſbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domeſtic life.

Of all the people in the world, the Engliſh keep themſelves the moſt cleanly. Their nerves are ſo delicate, that people of both ſexes are ſometimes forcibly, may mortally affected by imagination; inſomuch, that before the practice of inoculation for the ſmall pox took place, it was thought improper to mention that loathſome diſeaſe by its true name, in any polite company. This over-ſenſibility has been conſidered as one of the ſources of thoſe ſingularities which ſo ſtrongly characterize the Engliſh nation. They ſometimes magnify the ſlighteſt appearances into realities, and bring the moſt diſtant dangers immediately home to themſelves; and yet when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater reſolution or conſtancy of mind. They are fond of clubs and convivial aſſociations; and when theſe are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the beſt cure for thoſe mental evils, which are ſo peculiar to the Engliſh, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The ſame obſervations hold with regard to the higher orders of life, which muſt be acknowledged to have undergone a remarkable change ſince the acceſſion of the Houſe of Hanover, eſpecially of late years. The Engliſh nobility and gentry of great fortunes now aſſimilate their manners to thoſe of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourſe than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they viſit, under the tuition perhaps of a deſpicable pedant, or family dependant; but they travel for the purpoſes of ſociety, and at the more advanced ſtages of life, while their judgements are mature, and their paſſions regulated. This has enlarged ſociety in England, which foreigners now viſit as commonly as Engliſhmen viſited them, and the effects of the intercourſe become daily more viſible, eſpecially as it is not now, as formerly confined to one ſex.

Such of the Engliſh noblemen and gentlemen as do not ſtrike into thoſe high walks of life, affect what we call a ſnug rather than a ſplendid way of living. They ſtudy and underſtand better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houſes, gardens, equipages, and eſtates, and they ſpare no coſt to purchaſe it. It has, however been obſerved, that this turn renders them leſs communicative than they ought to be: but, on the other hand, the few connections they form, are ſincere, cheerful and indiſſoluble. The like habits deſcend pretty far into the lower ranks, and are often diſcernible among tradeſ-

tradeſmen. This love of ſnugneſs and conveniency may be called the ruling paſſion of the Engliſh people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues, which are incredible. A good œconomiſt with a briſk run of trade, is generally, when turned of 50, in a condition to retire from buſineſs; that is, either to purchaſe an eſtate, or to ſettle his money in the funds. He then commonly reſides in a comfortable houſe in the country, often his native county, and expects to be treated on the footing of a gentleman; but his ſtyle of living is always judiciouſly ſuited to his circumſtances.

The over-ſenſibility of the Engliſh is diſcovered in nothing more than in the vaſt ſubſcriptions for public charities, raiſed by all degrees of both ſexes. An Engliſhman feels all the pains which a fellow-creature ſuffers, and poor and miſerable objects are relieved in England with a liberality that ſome time or other may prove injurious to induſtry: becauſe it takes from the lower ranks the uſual motives of labour, that they may ſave ſomewhat for themſelves and families, againſt the days of age or ſickneſs. The very people who contribute to thoſe collections are aſſeſſed in proportion to their property for their parochial poor, who have a legal demand for their maintenance; and upwards of three millions ſterling is ſaid to be collected yearly in this country for charitable purpoſes. The inſtitutions however of extra-parochial infirmaries, hoſpitals, and the like, are in ſome caſes reprehenſible. The vaſt ſums beſtowed in building them, the contracts made by their governors, and even the election of phyſicians, who thereby, qualified or unqualified, acquire credit, which is the ſame as profit, very often beget heats and cabals, which are very different from the purpoſes of diſintereſted charity, owing to the violent attachments and prepoſſeſſions of friends, and too often even to party conſiderations.

Notwithſtanding thoſe noble proviſions, which would baniſh poverty from any other country, the ſtreets of London, and the highways of England, abound with objects of diſtreſs, who beg in defiance of the laws, which render the practice ſeverely puniſhable. This is partly owing to the manner in which the poor people live, who conſider the food to be uneatable which in other countries would be thought luxurious.

The Engliſh liſten to the voice of misfortunes in trade, whether real or pretended, deſerved or accidental, and generouſly contribute to the relief of the parties, ſometimes even by placing them in a more creditable condition than ever. The loweſt bred of the Engliſh are capable of theſe and the like generous actions; but they often make an oſtentatious diſplay of their own merits, which diminiſhes their value. There is among the generality of the Engliſh of all ranks, an unpardonable preference given to wealth, above moſt other conſiderations. Riches, both in public and private, are often thought to compenſate for the abſence of almoſt every good quality. This offenſive failing ariſes partly from the people being ſo much addicted to trade and commerce, the great object of which is gain; and partly from the democratical part of their conſtitution, which makes the poſſeſſion of property a qualification for the legiſlature, and for almoſt every other ſpecies of magiſtracy, government, honours, and diſtinctions.

An Engliſhman, of education and reading, is the moſt accompliſhed gentleman in the world: he is however ſhy and reſerved in his communications. This unamiable coldneſs is ſo far from being affected, that it is a part of their natural conſtitution. Living learning and genius, often meet not with their ſuitable regard even from the firſt-rate Engliſhmen: and it is not unuſual for them to throw aſide the beſt productions of literature, if they are not acquaint-

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ed with the author. While the ſtate diſtinction of Whig and Tory ſubſiſted, the heads of each party affected to patronize men of literary abilities; but the pecuniary encouragements given them were but very moderate, and the very few who met with preferments in the ſtate, might have earned them by a competent knowledge of buſineſs, and that pliability which the dependents in office generally poſſeſs. We ſcarcely have an inſtance, even in the munificent reign of queen Anne, or of her predeceſſors, who owed ſo much to the preſs, of a man of genius, as ſuch, being made eaſy in his circumſtances. Mr. Addiſon had about 300l. a year of the public money to aſſiſt him in his travels; and Mr. Pope, though a Roman catholic, was offered, but did not accept of, the like penſion from Mr. Craggs, the whig ſecretary of ſtate; and it was remarked, that his tory friend and companion the earl of Oxford, when ſole miniſter, did nothing for him, but bewail his misfortune in being a papiſt. Indeed, a few men of diſtinguiſhed literary abilities, as well as ſome without, have of late received penſions from the crown; but from the conduct of ſome of them it ſhould ſeem, that ſtate and party ſervices have been expected in return.

The unevenneſs of the Engliſh in their converſation is very remarkable: ſometimes it is delicate, ſprightly, and replete with true wit; ſometimes it is ſolid, ingenious, and argumentative; ſometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, and borders upon diſguſt, and all in the ſame perſon. In many of their convivial meetings they are very noiſy, and their wit is often offenſive, while the loudeſt are the moſt applauded. This is particulary apt to be the caſe in large companies; but in ſmaller and more ſelect parties, all the pleaſures of rational converſation, and agreeable ſociety, are enjoyed in England in a very high degree. Courage is a quality that ſeems to be congenial to the Engliſh nation. Boys, before they can ſpeak, diſcover that they know the proper guards in boxing with their fiſts; a quality that perhaps is peculiar to the Engliſh, and is ſeconded by a ſtrength of arm that few other people can exert. This gives the Engliſh ſoldier an infinite ſuperiority in all battles that are to be decided by the bayonet ſcrewed upon the muſket. The Engliſh courage has likewiſe the property, under able commanders, of being equally paſſive as active. Their ſoldiers will keep up their fire in the mouth of danger, but when they deliver it, it has a moſt dreadful effect upon their enemies; and in naval engagements they are unequalled. The Engliſh are not remarkable for invention, though they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others, and in the mechanical arts they excel all nations in the world. The intenſe application which an Engliſhman gives to a favourite ſtudy is incredible, and, as it were, abſorbs all his other ideas. This creates the numerous inſtances of mental abſences that are to be found in the nation.

All that I have ſaid concerning the Engliſh, is to be underſtood of them in general, as they are at preſent; for it is not to be diſſembled, that every day produces ſtrong indications of great alterations in their manners. The great fortunes made during the late and the preceding wars, the immenſe acquiſitions of territory by the peace of 1763, and above all, the amazing increaſe of territorial as well as commercial property in the Eaſt Indies, introduced a ſpecies of people among the Engliſh, who have become rich without induſtry, and by diminiſhing the value of gold and ſilver have created a new ſyſtem of finances in the nation. Time alone can ſhew the event; hitherto the conſequences ſeem to have been unfavourable, as it has introduced among the commercial ranks a ſpirit of luxury and gaming that is attended with the moſt fatal effects, and an emulation among merchants and traders of all kinds, to equal, or ſurpaſs the nobility and the courtiers. The plain frugal manners of men of buſineſs, which prevailed ſo lately as the acceſſion of the preſent family to the crown, are now diſregarded for taſteleſs extravagance of dreſs and equipage,

and

and the moſt expenſive amuſements and diverſions, not only in the capital, but all over the trading towns of the kingdom.

Even the cuſtoms of the Engliſh have, ſince the beginning of this century, undergone an almoſt total alteration. Their ancient hoſpitality ſubſiſts but in few places in the country, or is revived only upon electioneering occaſions. Many of their favourite diverſions are now diſuſed. Thoſe remaining, are operas, dramatic exhibitions, ridottos, and ſometimes maſquerades in or near London; but concerts of muſic, and card and dancing aſſemblies, are common all over the kingdom. I have already mentioned ſtag and fox hunting, and horſe races, of which many of the Engliſh are fond, even to infatuation. Somewhat however may be offered by way of apology for thoſe diverſions: the intenſe application which the Engliſh give to buſineſs, their ſedentary lives, and luxurious diet, require exerciſe; and ſome think that their excellent breed of horſes is increaſed and improved by thoſe amuſements. The Engliſh are remarkably cool, both in loſing and winning at play; but the former is ſometimes attended with acts of ſuicide. An Engliſhman will rather murder himſelf, than bring a ſharper, who he knows has fleeced him, to condign puniſhment, even though warranted by law. Next to horſe-racing and hunting, cock-fighting, to the reproach of the nation, is a favourite diverſion among the great as well as the vulgar. Multitudes of both claſſes aſſemble round the pit at one of thoſe matches, and enjoy the pangs and death of this generous animal, every ſpectator being concerned in a bet, ſometimes of high ſums. The athletic diverſion of cricket is ſtill kept up in the ſouthern and weſtern parts of England, and is ſometimes practiſed by people of the higheſt rank. Many other paſtimes are common in England, ſome of them of a very robuſt nature, ſuch as cudgelling, wreſtling, bowls, ſkittles, quoits, and priſon-baſe; not to mention duck-hunting, foot and aſs races, dancing, puppet-ſhews, May garlands, and, above all, ringing of bells, a ſpecies of muſic which the Engliſh boaſt they have brought into an art. The barbarous diverſion of boxing and prize-fighting, which were as frequent in England as the ſhews of gladiators in Rome, are now prohibited, though often practiſed; and all places of public diverſions, excepting the royal theatres, are under regulations by act of parliament. Other diverſions, which are common in other countries, ſuch as tennis, fives, billiards, cards, ſwimming, angling, fowling, courſing, and the like, are familiar to the Engliſh. Two kinds, and thoſe highly laudible, are perhaps peculiar to them, and theſe are rowing and ſailing. The latter, if not introduced, was patronized and encouraged by his preſent majeſty's father, the late prince of Wales, and may be conſidered as a national improvement. The Engliſh are amazingly fond of ſkaiting, in which, however, they are not very expert, but they are adventurous in it often to the danger and loſs of their lives. The game acts have taken from the common people a great fund of diverſion, though without anſwering the purpoſes of the rich: for the farmers and country people deſtroy the game in their neſts, which they dare not kill with the gun. This monopoly of game, among ſo free a people as the Engliſh has been conſidered in various lights.

Dress.] In the dreſs of both ſexes, before the preſent reign of George III. they followed the French: but that of the military officers partook of the German, in compliment to his late majeſty. The Engliſh, at preſent, bid fair to be the dictators of dreſs to the French themſelves, at leaſt with regard to elegance, neatneſs, and richneſs of atrire. People of quality and fortune, of both ſexes, appear on high occaſions, in cloth of gold and ſilver, the richeſt brocades, ſatins, ſilks, and velvets, both flowered and plain: and

it is to the honour of the court, that the foreign manufactures of all theſe are diſcouraged. Some of theſe rich ſtuffs are ſaid to be brought to as great perfection in England as they are in France, or any other nation. The quantities of jewels that appear on public occaſions are incredible, eſpecially ſince the vaſt acquiſitions of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies. The ſame nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, on ordinary occaſions, dreſs like creditable citizens, that is, neat, clean, and plain, in the fineſt cloth and the beſt of linen. The full dreſs of a clergyman conſiſts of his gown, caſſock, ſcarf, beaver hat and roſe, all of black; his undreſs is a dark grey frock, and plain linen. The phyſicians, the formality of whoſe dreſs, in large tie perukes, and ſwords, was formerly remarkable if not ridiculous, begin now to dreſs like other gentlemen, and men of buſineſs. Few Engliſhmen, tradeſmen, merchants, and lawyers, as well as men of landed property, are without ſome paſſion for the ſports of the field, on which occaſions they dreſs with remarkable propriety in a light frock, narrow brimmed hat, &c. The people of England love rather to be neat than fine in their apparel; but ſince the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, the dreſſes at court, on particular occaſions, are ſuperb beyond deſcription. Few even of the loweſt tradeſmen, on Sundays, carry about them leſs than 10l. in clothing, comprehending hat, wig, ſtockings, ſhoes, and linen, and even many beggars in the ſtreets appear decent in their dreſs. In ſhort, none but the moſt abandoned of both ſexes are otherwiſe; and the appearance of an artiſan or manufacturer in holiday times, is commonly an indication of his induſtry and morals.

RELIGION.] Euſebius, and other ancient writers, poſitively aſſert, that Chriſtianity was firſt preached in South Britain by the apoſtles and their diſciples; and it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that the ſucceſs of the Romans opened a highway for the triumphs of the goſpel of peace. It is certain alſo, that many of the ſoldiers and officers in the Roman armies were Chriſtians; and as their legions were repeatedly ſent over to England to extend as well as preſerve their conqueſts, it is probable that thus Chriſtianity was diffuſed among the natives. If any of the apoſtles viſited this country, and our heathen anceſtors, it was St. Paul, whoſe zeal, diligence, and fortitude were abundant. But who was the firſt preacher, or the preciſe year and period, the want of records leaves us at a loſs; and all the traditions about Joſeph of Arimathea and St. Peter's preaching the goſpel in Britain, and Simon Zelotes ſuffering martyrdom here, are romantic fables, monkiſh legends. We have good authority to ſay, that about the year 150, a great number of perſons profeſſed the Chriſtian faith here, and, according to archbiſhop Uſher in the year 182, there was a ſchool of learning to provide the Britiſh churches with proper teachers; and from that period it ſeems as if Chriſtianity advanced its benign and ſalutary influences among the inhabitants in their ſeveral diſtricts. It is unneceſſary to repeat what has been ſaid in the introduction reſpecting the riſe and fall of the church of Rome in Europe. I ſhall only obſerve in this place, that John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman, educated at Oxford in the reign of Edward III. has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion, and boldly refuted thoſe doctrines which had paſſed for certain during ſo many ages. The conſtitution of the church is epiſcopal, and it is governed by biſhops, whoſe benefices were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which every biſhop has a ſeat and vote in the houſe of peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold, but in many places their tithes are impropriated in favour of the laity. The œconomy of the church of England has been accuſed for the inequality of its livings; ſome of them extending from three hundred to

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fourteen hundred a-year, and many, particularly in Wales, being too ſmall to maintain a clergyman, eſpecially if he has a family, with any tolerable decency; but this ſeems not eaſily to be remedied, unleſs the digniſied clergy would adopt and ſupport the reforming ſcheme. The crown, as well as private perſons, has done great things towards the augmentation of poor livings.

The dignitaries of the church of England, ſuch as deans, prebendaries, and the like, have generally large incomes; ſome of them exceeding in value thoſe of biſhoprics, for which reaſon the revenues of a rich deanry, or other living, is often annexed to a poor biſhopric. At preſent, the clergy of the church of England, as to temporal matters, are in a moſt flouriſhing ſituation, becauſe the value of their tithes increaſes with the improvements of lands, which of late have been amazing in England. The ſovereigns of England, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. have been called in public writs, the ſupreme heads of the church; but this title conveys no ſpiritual meaning; as it only denotes the regal power, to prevent any eccleſiaſtical differences, or in other words, to ſubſtitute the king in place of the pope before the Reformation, with regard to temporalities, and the internal œconomy of the church. The kings of England never intermeddle in eccleſiaſtical diſputes, unleſs by preventing the convocation from ſitting to agitate them, and are contented to give a ſanction to the legal rights of the clergy.

The church of England, under this deſcription of the monarchical power over it, is governed by two archbiſhops, and twenty-four biſhops beſides the biſhop of Sodor and Man, who not being poſſeſſed of an Engliſh barony, does not ſit in the houſe of peers. The archbiſhops are thoſe of Canterbury and York, who are dignified with the addreſs of Your Grace. The former is the firſt peer of the realm as well as metropolitan of the Engliſh church. He takes precedence, next to the royal family, of all dukes and officers of ſtate. He is enabled to hold eccleſiaſtical courts upon all affairs that were cogniſable in the court of Rome, when not repugnant to the law of God, or the king's prerogative. He has the privilege conſequently of granting, in certain caſes, licences and diſpenſations, together with the probate of wills, when the party dying is worth upwards of five pounds. Beſides his own dioceſe, he has under him the biſhops of London, Wincheſter, Ely, Lincoln, Rocheſter, Litchfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worceſter, Bath and Wells, Saliſhuty, Exeter, Chicheſter, Norwich, Glouceſter, Oxford, Peterborough, Briſtol; and, in Wales, St. David's, Landaff, St. Aſaph, and Bangor.

The archbiſhop of Canterbury has, by the conſtitution and laws of England, ſuch extenſive powers, that ever ſince the death of archbiſhop Laud (whoſe character will be hereafter given) the government of England has chiefly thought proper to raiſe to that dignity men of very moderate principles; but they have generally been men of conſiderable learning and abilities. This practice has been attended with excellent effects, with regard to the public tranquillity of the church, and conſequently of the ſtate.

The archbiſhop of York takes place of all dukes not of the blood royal, and of all officers of ſtate, the lord chancellor excepted. He has in his province, beſide his own dioceſe, the biſhoprics of Durham, Carliſle, Cheſter, and Sodor and Man. In Northumberland, he has the power of a palatine, and juriſdiction in all criminal proceedings.

The biſhops are addreſſed by the appellation of your Lordſhips; ſtyled "Right reverend fathers in God," and take the precedence of all temporal barons. They have all the privileges of peers; and the biſhoprics of London, Wincheſter, Durham, Saliſbury, Ely, and Lincoln, require no addition-

al revenues to ſupport their prelates in the rank of noblemen. Engliſh biſhops are to examine and ordain prieſts and deacons, to conſecrate churches and burying places, and to adminiſter the rite of confirmation. Their juriſdiction relates to the probation of wills; to grant adminiſtration of goods to ſuch as die inteſtate; to take care of periſhable goods when no one will adminiſter; to collate to benefices; to grant inſtitutions to livings; to defend the liberties of the church; and to viſit their own dioceſes once in three years.

To the following liſt of Arbiſhoprics and Biſhoprics, I have ſubjoined the ſum each ſee is charged in the king's books; for though that ſum is far from being the real annual value of the ſee, yet it aſſiſts in forming a comparative eſtimate between the revenues of each ſee with thoſe of another.

ARCHBISHOPRICS.

	£.				£.		
Canterbury,	2682	12	2	York,	1610	0	0

BISHOPRICS.

London,	2000	0	0	Chicheſter,	677	1	3
Durham,	1821	1	3	St. Aſaph,	187	11	8
Winchеſter,	3124	12	8	Saliſbury,	1385	5	0
Theſe three biſhoprics take precedency of all others in England, and the others according to the ſeniority of their conſecrations.				Bangor,	131	16	3
				Norwich,	834	11	7
				Glouceſter,	315	7	3
				Lincoln,	894	18	1
Ely,	2134	18	6	Landaff,	154	14	2
Bath and Wells,	533	1	3	Briſtol,	294	11	0
Hereford,	768	11	0	Carliſle,	531	4	9
Rocheſter,	358	4	0	Exeter,	500	0	0
Litchfield and Coventry,	559	17	3	Peterborough,	414	17	8
Cheſter	420	1	8	Oxford,	381	11	0
Worceſter,	929	13	3	St. David's,	426	2	1

Deans and prebendaries of cathedrals have been already mentioned: but it would perhaps be difficult to aſſign their utility in the church, farther than to add to the pomp of worſhip, and to make proviſion for clergymen of eminence and merit; but intereſt often prevails over merit in the appointment. England contains about ſixty archdeacons, whoſe office is to viſit the churches twice or thrice every year, but their offices are leſs lucrative than they are honourable. Subordinate to them are the rural deans, formerly ſtyled archpreſbyters, who ſignify the biſhop's pleaſure to his clergy, the lower claſs of which conſiſts of prieſts and deacons.

The eccleſiaſtical government of England is, properly ſpeaking, lodged in the convocation, which is a national repreſentative or ſynod, and anſwers pretty nearly to the ideas we have of a parliament. They are convoked at the ſame time with every parliament, and their buſineſs is to conſider of the ſtate of the church, and to call thoſe to an account who have advanced new opinions, inconſiſtent with the doctrines of the church of England. Some high-flying clergymen, during the reign of queen Anne, and in the beginning of that of George I. raiſed the power of the convocation to a height that was inconſiſtent with the principles of religious toleration, and indeed of civil liberty; ſo that the crown was obliged to exert its prerogative of calling the members together, and of diſſolving them, and ever ſince, they have not been permitted to ſit for any time in which they could do buſineſs.

The court of arches is the moſt ancient conſiſtory of the province of Canter-

terbury, and all appeals in church matters, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed to this. The proceſſes run in the name of the judge, who is ſalled dean of the arches; and the advocates who plead in this court muſt be doctors of the civil law. The court of audience has the ſame authority with this, to which the archbiſhop's chancery was formerly joined. The prerogative court is that wherein wills are proved, and adminiſtration taken out. The court of peculiars, relating to certain pariſhes, have a juriſdiction among themſelves, for the probate of wills, and are therefore exempt from the biſhop's conrts. The ſee of Canterbury has no leſs than fifteen of theſe peculiars. The court of delegates receives its name from its conſiſting of commiſſioners delegated or appointed by the royal commiſſion; but it is no ſtanding court. Every biſhop has alſo a court of his own, called the conſiſtory court. Every archdeacon has likewiſe his court, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The church of England is now, beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character, and in England no religious ſect is prevented from worſhipping God in that manner which their conſciences approve. Some ſevere laws, were, indeed, lately in force againſt thoſe proteſtant diſſenters who did not aſſent to the doctrinal articles of the church of England; but theſe laws were not executed; and in 1779, religious liberty received a conſiderable augmentation, by an act which was then paſſed for granting a legal toleration to diſſenting miniſters and ſchoolmaſters, without their ſubſcribing any of the articles of the church of England. Not to enter upon the motives of the reformation under Henry VIII. it is certain that epiſcopal government, excepting the few years from the civil wars under Charles I. to the reſtoration of his ſon, has ever ſince prevailed in England. The wiſdom of acknowledging the king the head of the church, is conſpicuous, in diſcouraging all religious perſecution and intolerancy; and if religious ſectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the ſame principle that civil licentiouſneſs has prevailed I mean a tenderneſs in matters that can affect either conſcience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had towards popery in the reign of Henry VIII. and his ſon, and even ſo late as that of Elizabeth, occaſioned an interpoſition of the civil power for a farther reformation. Thence alſo the *puritans*, ſo called from their maintaining a ſingular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and ſome of them good patriots. There deſcendants are the modern preſbyterians, who retain the ſame character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological ſentiments have undergone a conſiderable change. Their doctrine, like the church of Scotland, was originaly derived from the Geneva plan, inſtituted by Calvin and tended to an abolition of epiſcopacy, and to veſting the government of the church in a parity of preſbyters. But the modern Engliſh preſbyterians, in their ideas of church government, differ little from the independents, or congregationaliſts, who are ſo called from holding the independency of congregational churches, without any reſpect to doctrine; and in this ſenſe almoſt all the *diſſenters* in England are now become *independents*. As to points of doctrine, the preſbyterians are generally Arminians. Many of their miniſters have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their learning and abilities, and ſome of their writings are held in high eſtimation by many of the clergy, and other members of the eſtabliſhed church. The ſame may be ſaid of ſome of the independent and baptiſt-miniſters. The independents are generally Calviniſts. The baptiſts do not believe that infants are proper ſubjects of baptiſm, and in the baptiſm of adults they practiſe immerſion into water. They are divided

ed into two claſſes, which are ſtyled general baptiſts, and particular baptiſts. The general baptiſts are Arminians, and the particular baptiſts are Calviniſts. The moderate clergy of the church of England treat the proteſtant diſſenters with affection and friendſhip: and though the hierarchy of their church, and the character of biſhops, are capital points in their religion, they conſider their differences with the preſbyterians, and even with the baptiſts, as not being very material to ſalvation; nor indeed do many of the eſtabliſhed church think that they are ſtrictly and conſcientiouſly bound to believe the doctrinal parts of the thirty-nine articles, which they are obliged to ſubſcribe before they can enter into holy orders. Several of them have of late contended in their writings, that all ſubſcriptions to religious ſyſtems are repugnant to the ſpirit of Chriſtianity, and to reformation. Some doctrines which were formerly generally conſidered as too ſacred to be oppoſed, or even examined, are now publicly controverted, particularly the doctrine of the Trinity. Places of worſhip have been eſtabliſhed in which that doctrine has been openly renounced; and ſeveral clergymen have thrown up valuable livings in the church, and aſſigned their diſbelief of that doctrine as the motive of their conduct.

The *Methodiſts* are a ſect of a late inſtitution, and their founder is generally looked upon to be Mr. George Whitefield, a divine of the church of England; but it is difficult to deſcribe the tenets of this numerous ſect. They pretend to great fervour and devotion, and their founder thought that the form of eccleſiaſtical worſhip, and prayers whether taken from a common prayer book, or poured forth extempore, was a matter of indifference, he accordingly made uſe of both theſe methods. His followers are rigid obſervers of the doctrinal articles of the church of England, and profeſs themſelves to be Calviniſts. But even the ſect of methodiſts is ſplit among themſelves, ſome of them acknowledging Mr. Whitefield, and others Mr. Weſley, for their leader; not to mention a variety of ſubordinate ſects (ſome of whom are from Scotland, particularly the *Sandemanians*) who have their ſeparate followers, but very few, at London and other places in England. Mr. Whitefield died a few years ſince; but the places of worſhip erected by him near London, are ſtill frequented by perſons of the ſame principles, and they profeſs a great reſpect for his memory. Some of the Calviniſtic doctrines were oppoſed by Mr. Weſley, and his followers, particularly that of predeſtination; but they appear ſtill to retain ſome of them. He erected a very large place of public worſhip near Moorfields, and had under him a conſiderable number of ſubordinate preachers, who ſubmitted to their leader very implicitly, propagate his opinions, and make proſelytes throughout the kingdom with great induſtry. After a very long life, ſpent in the moſt ſtrenuous endeavours to do good, and having been bleſt in reforming the morals of thouſands of the lower ranks of ſociety, he died in 1791.

The *Quakers* are a religious ſect, which took its riſe about the middle of the laſt century: a ſummary account of their tenets having been publiſhed by themſelves, the following is abſtracted from it.

"They believe in one eternal God, the Creator and preſerver of the univerſe, and in Jeſus Chriſt his Son the Meſſiah and Mediator of the new covenant

"When they ſpeak of the miraculous conception, birth, life, miracles, death, reſurrection, and aſcenſion of our Saviour, they uſe ſcriptural terms, and acknowledge his divinity.

"To Chriſt alone they give the title of the word of God, and not to the

ſcriptures, although they highly eſteem theſe ſacred writings, in ſubordination to the Spirit from which they were given forth.

"They believe (and it is their diſtinguiſhing tenet), that every man coming into the world, is endued with a meaſure of the light, grace, or good ſpirit of Chriſt, by which, as it is attended to, he is enabled to diſtinguiſh good from evil, and to correct the corrupt propenſities of his nature, which mere reaſon is altogether inſufficient to overcome.

"They think the influence of the Spirit eſpecially neceſſary to the performance of worſhip; and conſider as obſtructions to pure worſhip, all forms which divert the attention of the mind from the ſecret influence of this unction from the Holy One. They think it incumbent on Chriſtians to meet often together, and to wait in ſilence to have a true ſight of their condition beſtowed upon them; believing even a ſingle ſigh ariſing from ſuch a ſenſe to be more acceptable to God than any performances, however ſpecious, which originate in the will of man.

"As they do not encourage any miniſtry but that which is believed to ſpring from the influence of the Holy Spirit, ſo neither do they reſtrain this influence to perſons of any condition in life, or to the male ſex alone; but as male and female are one in Chriſt, they allow ſuch of the female ſex as are endued with a right qualification for the miniſtry, to exerciſe their gifts for the general edification of the church.

"Reſpecting baptiſm, and what is termed the Lord's ſupper, they believe, that the baptiſm with water, adminiſtered by John, belonged to an inferior and decreaſing diſpenſation.

"With reſpect to the other rite, they believe that communion between Chriſt and his church is not maintained by any external performance; but only by a real participation of his divine nature through faith.

"They declare againſt oaths and war; abiding literally by Chriſt's poſitive injunction, "Swear not at all." From the precepts of the goſpel, from the example of our Lord, and from his ſpirit in their hearts, they maintain that wars and fightings are repugnant to the goſpel.

"They diſuſe the names of the months and days, which were given in honour of the heroes or falſe gods of the heathens; and the cuſtom of ſpeaking to a ſingle perſon in the plural number, as having ariſen alſo from motives of adulation. Compliments, ſuperfluity of apparel, and furniture, outward ſhews of rejoicing, and mourning, and obſervations of days and times, they eſteem to be incompatible with the ſimplicity and ſincerity of a Chriſtian life; and public diverſions, gaming, and other vain amuſements of the world, they condemn as a waſte of time, and diverting the attention of the mind from the ſober duties of life.

"This ſociety hath a diſcipline eſtabliſhed among them, the purpoſes of which are the relief of the poor—the maintence of good order—the ſupport of the teſtimonies which they believe it is their duty to bear to the world—and the help and recovery of ſuch as are overtaken in faults.

"It is their decided judgment that it is contrary to the goſpel to ſue each other at law. They enjoin all to end their differences by ſpeedy and impartial arbitration according to rules laid down. If any refuſe to adopt this mode, or having adopted it, to ſubmit to the award, it is the rule of the ſociety that ſuch be diſowned."

It is well known that William Penn, one of this ſociety, founded the province of Pennſylvania, and introduced therein a plan of civil and religious liberty, particularly of the latter, at that time unexampled. The government of the province was at firſt, and for many years, chiefly in the hands of the

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quakers; but as perſons of other perſuaſions increaſed, and became partakers of power, they grew uneaſy at the pacific plan of the quakers, and at length ſucceeding to eſtabliſh ſuch modes of defence for their country as did not accord with the principles of the latter, theſe gradually withdrew themſelves from active employments in the ſtate. For ſome time previous to the late revolution, few of them were in any other ſtation than that of private citizens; and during its progreſs, their refuſing to arm expoſed them to much ſuffering, by diſtraints levied on them, in order to procure their quota in ſupport of the war.

Many families in England ſtill profeſs the Roman catholic religion, and its exerciſe is under very mild and gentle reſtrictions. Though the penal laws againſt papiſts in England appear at firſt to be ſevere, yet they are either not executed, or with ſo much lenity, that a Roman catholic feels himſelf under few hardſhips. Legal evaſions are found out for the double taxes upon their landed property, and as they are ſubject to none of the expences and troubles (unleſs voluntary) attending public offices, parliamentary elections, and the like burdens, the Engliſh papiſts are in general in good circumſtances as to their private fortunes. Some of the penal laws againſt them have alſo lately been repealed, much to the ſatisfaction of all liberal-minded men, though a vehement outcry was afterwards raiſed againſt the meaſure by ignorance and bigotry. The papiſts now ſeem to be convinced, that a change of government, inſtead of bettering would hurt their ſituation, becauſe it would increaſe the jealouſy of the legiſlature, which muſt undoubtedly expoſe them daily to greater burdens and heavier penalties. This ſenſible conſideration has of late made the Reman catholics to appear as dutiful and zealous ſubjects as any his majeſty has. Scarcely any Engliſh papiſts, excepting thoſe who were bred, or had ſerved abroad, were engaged in the rebellion of the year 1745, and though thoſe at home were moſt carefully obſerved, few or none of them were found guilty of diſloyal practices.

As England has been famous for the variety of its religious ſects, ſo it has alſo for its *Free-thinkers*; but that term has been applied in very different ſenſes. It has ſometimes been uſed to denote oppoſers of religion in general, and in particular of revealed religion; but it has alſo been applied to thoſe who have been far from diſbelieving Chriſtianity, and who have only oppoſed ſome of thoſe doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceived to be no part of the original Chriſtian ſyſtem. As to thoſe who are truly *deiſts* or *infidels*, there is abundant reaſon to believe, that this claſs of men is much more numerous in ſome popiſh countries than in England. Chriſtianity is ſo much obſcured and diſfigured by the fopperies and ſuperſtitions of the Romiſh church that men who think freely are naturally apt to be prejudiced againſt it, when they ſee it in ſo diſadvantageous a form; and this appears to be in fact very much the caſe abroad. But in England, where men have every opportunity of ſeeing it exhibited in a more rational manner, they have leſs cauſe to be prejudiced againſt it; and therefore are more ready to enter into an examination of the evidence of its divine origin. Nor does it appear, that the writings of the Deiſts againſt Chriſtianity have been of any real diſſervice to it. On the contrary, they have cauſed the arguments in its favour to be uſed with greater force and clearneſs, and have been the means of producing ſuch defences of it, as all the acuteneſs of modern infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

Language.] The Engliſh language is known to be a compound of almoſt every other language in Europe, particularly the Saxon, the French, and the Celtic. The Saxon, however, predominates; and the words that are borrowed

rowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. To deſcribe it abſtractedly, would be ſuperfluous to an Engliſh reader, but relatively, it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is more energetic, manly, and expreſſive, than either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spaniſh, and more eloquent than the German, or the other northern tongues. It is however ſubject to ſome conſiderable provincialities in its accent, there being much difference in the pronunciation of the inhabitants of different counties; but this chiefly affects the loweſt of the people; for as to well-educated and well-bred perſons there is little difference in their pronunciation all over the kingdom. People of fortune and education in England, of both ſexes, alſo commonly either ſpeak or underſtand the French, and many of them the Italian and Spaniſh: but it has been obſerved, that foreign nations have great difficulty in underſtanding the few Engliſh who talk Latin, which is perhaps the reaſon why that language is much diſuſed in England, even by the learned profeſſions.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] England may be looked upon as another word for the ſeat of learning and the Muſes. Her great Alfred cultivated both, in the time of the Saxons, when barbariſm and ignorance overſpread the reſt of Europe: nor has there, ſince his time, been wanting a continual ſucceſſion of learned men, who have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings or ſtudies. Theſe are ſo numerous, that a bare catalogue of their names, down to this day, would form a moderate volume.

The Engliſh inſtitutions, for the benefit of ſtudy, partake of the character of their learning. They are ſolid and ſubſtantial, and provide for the eaſe, the diſencumberance, the peace, the plenty, and the conveniency of its profeſſors; witneſs the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, inſtitutions that are not to be matched in the world, and which were reſpected even amidſt the barbarous rage of civil war. The induſtrious Leland, who was himſelf a moving library, was the firſt who publiſhed a ſhort collection of the lives and characters of thoſe learned perſons who preceded the reign of his maſter Henry VIII. among whom he has inſerted ſeveral of the blood royal of both ſexes, particularly a ſon and daughter of the great Alfred, Editha, the queen of Edward the Confeſſor, and other Saxon princes, ſome of whom were equally devoted to Mars and the Muſes.

In ſpeaking of the dark ages, it would be unpardonable if I ſhould omit the mention of that prodigy of learning, and natural philoſophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in ſcience to the great Bacon lord Verluam, as the latter was to Sir Iſaac Newton. Among the other curious works written by this illuſtrious man, we find treatiſes upon grammar, mathematics, phyſics, the flux and reflux of the Britiſh ſea, optics, geography, aſtronomy, chronology, chemiſtry, logic, metaphyſics, ethics, medicine, theology, philology, and upon the impediments of knowledge. He lived under Henry III. and died at Oxford about the year 1294. The honourable Mr. Walpole has preſerved the memory of ſome noble and royal Engliſh authors, who have done honour to learning and the Muſes, and to this work I muſt refer. Since the Reformation, England reſembles a galaxy of literature*; and it is but doing juſtice to the memory of cardinal Wolſey, though otherwiſe a dangerous and profligate miniſter, to acknowledge, that both his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the revival of claſſical learning in England. As many of the

* See the Biographia Britannica.

Engliſh clergy had different ſentiments in religious matters at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to ſettle in England. Edward VI. during his ſhort life, did a great deal for the encouragement of theſe foreigners, and ſhewed diſpoſitions for cultivating the moſt uſeful parts of learning had he lived. Learning, as well as liberty, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe in England, during the bloody bigotted reign of queen Mary. Elizabeth her ſiſter, was herſelf a learned princeſs. She advanced many perſons of conſummate abilities to high ranks, both in church and ſtate; but ſhe ſeems to have conſidered their literary accompliſhments to have been only ſecondary to their civil. In this ſhe ſhewed herſelf a great politician, but ſhe would have been a more amiable queen had ſhe raiſed genius from obſcurity: for though ſhe was no ſtranger to Spenſer's muſe, ſhe ſuffered herſelf to be ſo much impoſed upon by a taſteleſs miniſter, that the poet languiſhed to death in obſcurity. Though ſhe taſted the beauties of the divine Shakeſpeare, yet we know not that they were diſtinguiſhed by any particular acts of her munificence; but her parſimony was nobly ſupplied by her favourite the earl of Eſſex, the politeſt ſcholar of his age, and his friend the earl of Southampton, who were liberal patrons of genius.

The encouragement of learned foreigners in England continued to the reign of James I. who was very munificent to Caſaubon, and other foreign authors of diſtinction, even of different principles. He was himſelf no great author, but his example had a conſiderable effect upon his ſubjects; for in his reign were formed thoſe great maſters of polemic divinity, whoſe works are almoſt inexhauſtible mines of knowledge. Nor muſt it be forgotten, that the ſecond Bacon, whom I have already mentioned, was by him created viſcount Verulam, and lord high chancellor of England. He was likewiſe the patron of Camden and other hiſtorians, as well as antiquaries, whoſe works are to this day ſtandards in thoſe ſtudies. Upon the whole, therefore, it cannot be denied, that Engliſh learning is under obligations to James I. though, as he had a very pedantic taſte himſelf, he was the means of diffuſing a ſimilar taſte among his ſubjects.

His ſon Charles I. had a taſte for the polite arts, eſpecially ſculpture, painting, and architecture. He was the patron of Rubens, Vandyke, Inigo Jones, and other eminent artiſts; ſo that, had it not been for the civil wars, he would probably have converted his court and capital into a ſecond Athens; and the collections he made for that purpoſe, conſidering his pecuniary difficulties, were ſtupendous. His favourite, the duke of Buckingham, imitated him in that reſpect, and laid out the amazing ſum of 400,000l. upon his cabinet of paintings and curioſities.

The earl of Arundel was however, the great Mæcenas of that age, and by the immenſe acquiſition he made of antiquities, eſpecially his famous marble inſcriptions, he may ſtand upon a footing, as to the encouragement and utility of literature, with the greateſt of the Medicean princes. Charles and his court had little or no reliſh for poetry; but ſuch was his generoſity in encouraging genius and merit of every kind, that he increaſed the ſalary of his poet laureat, the famous Ben Jonſon, from 100 marks to 100l. per annum, and a tierce of Spaniſh wine; which ſalary is continued to this day.

The public enconragement of learning and the arts ſuffered indeed an eclipſe, during the time of the civil wars, and the ſucceeding interregnum. Many very learned men, however, found their ſituations under Cromwell, though he was no ſtranger to their political ſentiments, ſo eaſy, that they followed their ſtudies, to the vaſt benefit of every branch of learning; and many works of

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vaſt literary merit appeared even in thoſe times of diſtraction. Uſher, Walton, Willes, Harrington, Wilkins, and a prodigious number of other great names, were unmoleſted and even favoured by that uſurper; and he would alſo have filled the univerſities with literary merit, could he have done it with any degree of ſafety to his government.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly diſtinguiſhed by the great proficiency to which it carried natural knowledge, eſpecially by the inſtitution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of thoſe ſtudies, and, though irreligious himſelf, England never abounded more with learning and able divines than in his reign. He loved painting, and poetry, but was far more munificent to the former than the latter. The incomparable Paradiſe Loſt, by Milton, was publiſhed in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportiou to its merit; though it was far from being diſregarded ſo much as has been commonly apprehended. The reign of Charles II. notwithſtanding the bad taſte of his court in ſeveral of the polite arts, by ſome is reckoned the Auguſtan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hook, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotſon, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherley, and Otway. The pulpit aſſumed more majeſty, a better ſtyle, and truer energy than it had ever known before. Claſſic literature recovered many of its native graces; and although England could not under him boaſt of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet Sir Chriſtopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than had ever been known before in architecture.* Nor was Sir Chriſtopher Wren merely diſtinguiſhed by his ſkill as an architect *. His knowledge was very extenſive, and his diſcoveries in philoſophy, mechanics, &c. contributed much to the reputation of the new eſtabliſhed Royal Society. Some excellent Engliſh painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) alſo flouriſhed in this reign.

That of James II. though he likewiſe had a taſte for the fine arts, is chiefly diſtinguiſhed in the province of literature by thoſe compoſitions that were publiſhed by the Engliſh divines againſt popery, and which, for ſtrength of reaſoning, and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III. and he had a particular eſteem for the latter, as he had alſo for Tillotſon and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flouriſhed, however, in his reign, merely by the excellency of the ſoil in which it had been planted.

The moſt uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auſpices of queen Anne, and which put her court at leaſt on a footing with that of Lewis XIV. in its moſt ſplendid days. Many of the great men, who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William were ſtill alive, and in the full exerciſe of their faculties, when a new race ſprung up, in the republic of learning and the arts. Addiſon, Prior, Pope, Swift, lord Bolingbroke, lord Shafteſbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, Steele, Rowe, and many other excellent writers, both

* Mr. Horace Walpole ſays, that a variety of knowledge proclaims the univerſality, a multiplicity of works the abundance, and St. Paul's the greatneſs of Sir Chriſtopher's genius. So many great architects as were employed on St. Peter's have not left, upon the whole, a more perfect edifice than this work of a ſingle mind. The nobleſt temple, the largeſt palace and the moſt ſumptuous hoſpital, in ſuch a kingdom as Britain are all the works of the ſame hand. He reſtored London, and recorded its fall. He built about fifty pariſh churches, and deſigned the monument.

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in verſe and proſe, need but to be mentioned to be admired; and the Engliſh were as triumphant in literature as in war. Natural and moral philoſophy kept pace with the polite arts, and even religious and political diſputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the unbounded liberty which the laws of England allow in ſpeculative matters, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of true and valuable knowledge.

The miniſters of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and ſome of them were no mean proficients themſelves. George II. was himſelf no Mæcenas, yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the numbers of learned and ingenious men it produced. The bench of biſhops was never known to be ſo well provided with able prelates as it was in the early years of his reign; a full proof that his nobility and miniſters were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally ſupplied the coldneſs of the court. After the rebellion in the year 1745, when Mr. Pelham was conſidered as being firſt miniſter, this ſcreen between government and literature was in a great meaſure removed, and men of genius began then to taſte the royal bounty. Since that period, a great progreſs has been made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy has been inſtituted, ſome very able artiſts have ariſen, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and ſculpture have been extremely favourable to the arts, by promoting a ſpirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general. But notwithſtanding theſe favourable circumſtances, the fine arts have been far from meeting with that public patronage, to which they have ſo juſt a claim. Few of our public edifices are adorned with paintings or with ſtatues. The ſculptors meet with little employment, nor is the hiſtorical painter much patrionized. Though the Britiſh artiſts of the preſent age have proved that their genius for the fine arts is equal to thoſe of any other nation.

Beſides learning, and the fine arts in genoral, the Engliſh excel in what are called the learned profeſſions. Their courts of juſtice are adorned with greater abilites and virtues, perhaps, than thoſe which any other country can boaſt of. A remarkable inſtance of which occurs, in the appointments for the laſt 200 years of their lord chancellors, who hold the higheſt and the moſt uncontrollable judicial ſeat in the kingdom, and yet it is acknowledged by all parties, that during that time, their bench has remained unpolluted by corruption, or partial affections. The few inſtances that may be alledged to the contrary, fix no imputation of wilful guilt upon the parties. The great lord chancellor Bacon was cenſured indeed for corrupt practices, but malevolence itſelf does not ſay that he was guilty any farther than in too much indulgence to his ſervants. The caſe of one of his ſucceſſors is ſtill more favourable to his memory, as his cenſure reflects diſgrace only upon his enemies; and his lordſhip was, in the judgment of every man of candour and conſcience, fully acquitted. Even Jefferies, infernal as he was in his politics, never ws accuſed of partiality in the cauſes that came before him as chancellor.

It muſt be acknowledged, that neither pulpit nor bar-eloquence have been ſufficiently ſtudied in England; but this is owing to the genius of the people, and their laws, The ſermons of their divines are often learned, and always ſound as to the practical and doctrinal part; for the many religious ſects in England require to be oppoſed rather by reaſoning than eloquence. An unnaccountable notion has however prevailed even among ſome of the clergy themſelves, that the latter is incompatible with the former, as if the arguments of Cicero and Demoſthenes were weakened by thoſe powers of language with which they are adorned. A ſhort time perhaps may remove this

this prepoſſeſſion, and convince the clergy, as well as the laity, that true eloquence is the firſt and faireſt handmaid of argumentation. The reader, however, is not to imagine, that I am inſinuating that the preachers of the Engliſh church are deſtitute of the graces of elocution; ſo far from that, no clergy in the world can equal them in the purity and perſpicuity of language, though I think that if they conſulted more than they do the powers of elocution, they would preach with more effect. If the ſemblance of thoſe powers, coming from the mouths of ignorant enthuſiaſts, are attended with the amazing effects we daily ſee, what muſt not be the conſequence if they were exerted in reality, and ſupported with ſpirit and learning?

The laws of England are of ſo peculiar a caſt, that the ſeveral pleadings at the bar do not admit, or but very ſparingly, of the flowers of ſpeech; and I am apt to think, that a pleading in the Ciceronian manner would make a ridiculous appearance in Weſtminſter-hall. The Engliſh lawyers, however, though they deal little in eloquence, are well verſed in rhetoric and reaſoning.

Parliamentary ſpeaking, not being bound down to that precedent which is required in the courts of law, no nation in the world can produce ſo many examples of true eloquence as the Engliſh ſenate in its two houſes; witneſs the fine ſpeeches made by both parties in parliament in the reign of Charles I. and thoſe that have been printed ſince the acceſſion of the preſent family.

Medicine and ſurgery, botany, anatomy, chemiſtry, and all the arts or ſtudies for preſerving life, have been carried to a great degree of perfection by the Engliſh. The ſame may be ſaid of muſic, and theatrical exhibitions. Even agriculture and mechaniſm are now reduced in England to ſciences, and that too without any public encouragement but ſuch as is given by private noblemen and gentlemen, who aſſociate themſelves for that purpoſe. In ſhip-building, clock-work, and the various branches of cutlery, they ſtand unrivalled.

Universities.] I have already mentioned the two univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge, which have been the ſeminaries of more learned men than any in Europe, and ſome have ventured to ſay, than all other literary inſtitutions. It is certain that their magnificent buildings, which in ſplendour and architecture rival the moſt ſuperb royal edifices, the rich endowments, the liberal eaſe and tranquillity enjoyed by thoſe who inhabit them, ſurpaſs all the ideas which foreigners, who viſit them, conceive of literary ſocieties. So reſpectable are they in their foundations, that each univerſity ſends two members to the Britiſh parliament, and their chancellors and officers have a civil juriſdiction over their ſtudents, the better to ſecure their independency. Their colleges, in their revenues and buildings, exceed thoſe of many other univerſities.

In Oxford there are twenty colleges and five halls: the former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the ſtudents chiefly maintain themſelves. This univerſity is of great antiquity: it is ſuppoſed to have been a conſiderable place even in the time of the Romans: and Camden ſays, that "wiſe antiquity did, even in the Britiſh age, conſecrate this place to the Muſes." It is ſaid to have been ſtyled an univerſity before the time of king Alfred; and the beſt hiſtorians admit, that this moſt excellent prince was only a reſtorer of learning here. Alfred built three colleges at Oxford: one for divinity, another for philoſophy, and a third for grammar.

The Univerſity of Cambridge conſiſts of twelve colleges, and four halls; but

but though they are diſtinguiſhed by different names, the privileges of the colleges and halls, are in every reſpect the ſame.

The ſenate-houſe at Cambridge is a moſt elegant edifice, executed entirely in the Corinthian order, and is ſaid to have coſt ſixteen thouſand pounds. Trinity college library is alſo a very magnificent ſtructure, and in Corpus Chriſti college library is a valuable collection of ancient manuſcripts, which were preſerved at the diſſolution of the monaſtries, and given to this college by archbiſhop Parker.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.

The antiquities of England are either Britiſh, Roman, Saxon, Daniſh, or Anglo-Normanic; but theſe, excepting the Roman, throw no great light upon ancient hiſtory. The chief Britiſh antiquities are thoſe circles of ſtones, particularly that called Stonhenge, in Wiltſhire, which probably were places of worſhip in the times of the Druids. Stonhenge is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukely, and others, deſcribed as a regular circular ſtructure. The body of the work conſiſts of two circles and ovals, which are thus compoſed; the upright ſtones are placed at three feet and a half diſtance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart ſtones, with tenons fitted to the mortoiſes in the uprights, for keeping them in their due poſition. Some of theſe ſtones are vaſtly large, meaſuring two yards in breadth, one in thickneſs, and above ſeven in height; others are leſs in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chiſſel, and ſometimes tapered; but the tranſomes, or over-thwart ſtones, are quite plain. The outſide circle is near one hundred and eighty feet in diameter, between which and the next circle there is a walk of three hundred feet in circumference, which has a ſurpriſing and awful effect upon the beholders.

Monuments of the ſame kind as that of Stonhenge are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordſhire, Cornwall, Devonſhire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland, and the iſles, which have been already mentioned.

The Roman antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly of altars and monumental inſcriptions, which inſtruct us as to the legionary ſtations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of ſome of their commanders. The Roman military ways give us the higheſt idea of the civil as well as military policy of thoſe conquerors. Their veſtiges are numerous; one is mentioned by Leland, as beginning at Dover, and paſſing through Kent to London, from thence to St. Alban's, Dunſtable, Stratford, Towceſter, Littleburn, St. Gilbert's Hill near Shrewſbury, then by Stratton, and ſo through the middle of Wales to Cardigan. The great Via Militaris called Hermen-Street, paſſed from London through Lincoln, where a branch of it from Pontefract to Doncaſter, ſtrikes out to the weſtward, paſſing through Tadcaſter to York, and from thence to Aldby, where it again joined Hermen-ſtreet. There would, however, be no end of deſcribing the veſtiges of the Roman roads in England, many of which ſerve as foundations to our highways. The great earl of Arundel, the celebrated Engliſh antiquary, had formed a noble plan for deſcribing thoſe which paſs through Suſſex and Surry towards London; but the civil war breaking out, put an end to the undertaking. The remains of many Roman camps are diſcernible all over England; one particularly very little defaced, near Dorcheſter in Dorſetſhire, where alſo is a Roman amphitheatre. Their ſituations are generally ſo well choſen, and their fortifications appear to have been ſo complete, that there is ſome reaſon to believe that they were the conſtant habitations of the Roman ſoldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and teſ-

teſſelated pavements, that have been found in different parts, that their chief offieers, or magiſtrates lived in towns or villas. Roman walls have likewiſe been found in England, and perhaps, upon the borders of Wales, many remains of their fortifications and caſtles are blended with thoſe of a latter date; and it is difficult for the moſt expert architect to pronounce that ſome halls and courts are not entirely Roman. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repoſitories, contain a vaſt number of Roman arms, coins, fibulæ, trinkets, and the like, which have been found in England; but the moſt amazing monument of the Roman power in England, is the pretenture, or wall of Severus commonly called the Picts wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at Tinmouth, and ending at Solway Frith, being about eighty miles in length. The wall at firſt conſiſted only of ſtakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with ſtone forts, and turrets at proper diſtances; ſo that each might have a ſpeedy communication with the other, and it was attended all along by a deep ditch, or vallum to the north, and a military highway to the ſouth.

The Saxon antiquities in England conſiſt chiefly in eccleſiaſtical edifices, and places of ſtrength. At Wincheſter is ſhewn the round table of king Arthur with the names of his knights. The antiquity of this table has been diſputed by Camden, and latter writers, perhaps with reaſon; but if it be not Britiſh, it certainly is Saxon. The cathedral of Wincheſter ſerved as the burying place of ſeveral Saxon kings, whoſe bones were collected together by biſhop Fox, in ſix large wooden cheſts. Many monuments of Saxon antiquity preſent themſelves all over the kingdom though they are often not to be diſcerned from the Normanic; and the Britiſh Muſeum contains ſeveral ſtriking original ſpecimens of their learning. Many Saxon charters, ſigned by the king and his nobles, with a plain croſs inſtead of their names, are ſtill to be met with. The writing is neat and legible, and was always performed by a clergyman, who affixed the name and quality of every donor, or witneſs, to his reſpective croſs. The Daniſh erections in England are hardly diſcernible from the Saxon. The form of their camps is round, and they are generally built upon eminences, but their forts are ſquare.

All England is full of Anglo-Normanic monuments, which I chuſe to call ſo, becauſe, though the princes under whom they were raiſed were of Norman original, yet the expence was defrayed by Engliſhmen, with Engliſh money. York-minſter, and Weſtminſter-hall and abbey, are perhaps the fineſt ſpecimens to be found in Europe, of that Gothic manner which prevailed in building, before the recovery of the Greek and Roman architecture. All the cathedrals and old churches in the kingdom, are more or leſs in the ſame taſte, if we except St. Paul's in ſhort, thoſe erections are ſo common, that they ſcarcely deſerve the name of curioſities. It is uncertain, whether the artificial excavations, found in ſome parts of England, are Britiſh, Saxon, or Norman. That, under the old caſtle of Ryegate in Surry is very remarkable, and ſeems to have been deſigned for ſecreting the cattle and effects of the natives, in times of war and invaſion. It contains an oblong ſquare hall, round which runs a bench, cut out of the ſame rock, for ſitting upon; and tradition ſays, that it was the room in which the barons of England met during the wars with king John. The rock itſelf is ſoft and very practicable; but it is hard to ſay where the excavation, which is continued in a ſquare paſſage, about ſix feet high, and four feet wide, terminates, becauſe the work is fallen in, in ſome places.

The natural curioſities of England are ſo various, that I can touch upon them

them only in general; as there is no end of describing the several medicinal waters and springs which are to be found in every part of the country.

The Bath waters are famous through all the world, both for drinking and bathing. Spaws of the same kind are found at Scarborough, and other parts of Yorkshire; at Tunbridge in Kent; Epsom and Dulwich in Surry; and at Acton and Islington in Middlesex. There also are many remarkable springs, whereof some are impregnated either with salt, as that at Droitwith in Worcestershire; or sulphur, as the famous well of Wigan in Lancashire; or bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth in Leicestershire; and a dropping well in the West-riding of Yorkshire. And finally, some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak in Derbyshire, and Laywell near Torbay, whose waters rise and fall several times in an hour. To these we may add that remarkable fountain near Richard's castle in Herefordshire, commonly called Bonewell, which is generally full of small bones, like those of frogs or fish, though often cleared out. At Ancliff, near Wigan in Lancashire, is the famous burning well; the water is cold, neither has it any smell; yet there is so strong a vapour of sulphur issuing out with the stream, that upon applying a light to it, the top of the water is covered with a flame, like that of burning spirits, which lasts several hours, and emits a heat that meat may be boiled over it. The fluid itself will not burn when taken out of the well *.

Derbyshire is celebrated for many natural curiosities. The Mam Tor, or Mother Tower, is said to be continually mouldering away, but never diminishes. The Elden Hole, about four miles from the same place; this is a chasm in the side of a mountain, near seven yards wide, and fourteen long, diminishing in extent within the rock, but of what depth is not known. A plummet once drew 884 yards of line after it, whereof the last eighty were wet, without finding a bottom. The entrance of Poole's hole near Buxton, for several paces, is very low, but soon opens into a very lofty vault, like the inside of a Gothic cathedral. The height is certainly very great, yet much short of what some have asserted, who reckon it a quarter of a mile perpendicular, though in length it exceeds that dimension; a current of water, which runs along the middle, adds, by its sounding stream, re-echoed on all sides, very much to the astonishment of all who visit this vast concave. The drops of water which hang from the roof, and on the sides, have an amusing effect; for they not only reflect numberless rays from the candles carried by the guides, but, as they are of a petrifying quality, they harden in several places into various forms, which, with the help of a strong imagination, may pass for lions, fonts, organs, and the like. The entrance into that natural wonder at Castleton, which is from its hideousness named the Devil's Arse, is wide at first, and upwards of thirty feet perpendicular. Several cottagers dwell under it, who seem in a great measure to subsist by guiding strangers into the cavern, which is crossed by four streams of water, and then is thought impassable. The vault, in several places, makes a noble appearance, and is particularly beautiful by being chequered with various coloured stones.

Some spots of England are said to have a petrifying quality. We are told, that near Whitby in Yorkshire, are found ce[illegible] in stones, resembling the folds and wreaths of a serpent; also other stones of several sizes, and so ex-

* This extraordinary heat has been found to proceed from a vein of coals, which has been since dug from under this well; at which time the uncommon warmth ceased.

actly round, as if artificially made for cannon balls, which being broken, do commonly contain the form and likeneſs of ſerpents, wreathed in circles, but generally without heads. In ſome parts of Glouceſterſhire, ſtones are found reſembling cockels, oyſters, and other teſtaceous marine animals. Thoſe curioſities, however, are often magnified by ignorance and credulity.

CITIES, TOWNS, PORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. This head is ſo very extenſive, that I can only touch upon objects that may aſſiſt in giving the reader ſome idea of its importance, grandeur, or utility.

London *, the metropolis of the Britiſh empire, is the firſt in this diviſion. It appears to have been founded between the reigns of Julius Cæſar and Nero, but by whom is uncertain; for we are told by Tacitus, that it was a place of great trade in Nero's time, and ſoon after became the capital of the iſland. It was firſt walled about with hewn ſtones, and Britiſh bricks, by Conſtantine the Great, and the walls formed an oblong ſquare, in compaſs about three miles, with ſeven principal gates. The ſame emperor made it a biſhop's ſee, for it appears that the biſhops of London and York, and another Engliſh biſhop, were at the council of Arles, in the year 314: he alſo ſettled a mint in it, as is plain from ſome of his coins.

London, in its large ſenſe, including Weſtminſter, Southwark, and part of Middleſex, is a city of a very ſurpriſing extent, of prodigious wealth, and of the moſt extenſive trade. This city, when conſidered with all its advantages, is now what ancient Rome once was; the ſeat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and the admiration of the whole world. London is the centre of trade; it has an intimate connection with all the counties in the kingdom; it is the grand mart of the nation, to which all parts ſend their commodities, from whence they are again ſent back into every town of the nation, and to every part of the world. From hence innumerable carriages by land and water are conſtantly employed; and from hence ariſes the circulation in the national body, which renders every part healthful, vigorous, and in a proſperous condition; a circulation that is equally beneficial to the head and the moſt diſtant members. Merchants are here as rich as noblemen; witneſs their incredible loans to government; and there is no place in the world where the ſhops of tradeſmen make ſuch a noble and elegant appearance, or are better ſtocked.

It is ſituated on the banks of the Thames, a river which, though not the largeſt, is the richeſt and moſt commodious for commerce of any in the world. It being continually filled with fleets, ſailing to or from the moſt diſtant climates; and its banks extend from London-bridge to Blackwall, almoſt one continued great magazine of naval ſtores, containing three large wet docks, 32 dry docks, and 33 yards for the building of ſhips for the uſe of the merchants, beſides the places allotted for the building of boats and lighters; and the king's yards down the river, for the building of men of war. As this city is about ſixty miles diſtant from the ſea, it enjoys, by means of this beautiful river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being ſurpriſed by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the moiſt

* London is ſituated in 51° 31 north latitude, 400 miles ſouth of Edinburgh, and 270 ſouth-eaſt of Dublin; 180 miles weſt of Amſterdam, 210 north-weſt of Paris, 500 ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen, 600 miles north-weſt of Vienna, 790 ſouth-weſt of Stockholm, 800 north-eaſt of Madrid, 810 north-weſt of Rome, 850 north-eaſt of Liſbon, 1360 north-weſt of Conſtantinople, 1414 ſouth-weſt of Moſcow.

vapours

vapours of the ſea. It riſes regularly from the water ſide, and extending itſelf on both ſides along its banks, reaches a prodigious length from eaſt to weſt in a kind of amphitheatre towards the north, and is continued for near 20 miles on all ſides, in a ſucceſſion of magnificent villas, and populous villages, the country ſeats of gentlemen and tradeſmen; whither the latter retire for the benefit of freſh air, and to relax their minds from the hurry of buſineſs. The regard paid by the legiſlature to the property of the ſubject, has hitherto prevented any bounds being fixed for its extenſion.

The irregular form of this city makes it difficult to aſcertain its extent. However, its length from eaſt to weſt, is generally allowed to be above ſeven miles, from Hyde-park corner to Poplar; and its breadth in ſome places three, in others two, and in others again not much above half mile. Hence the circumference of the whole is almoſt 18 miles; or, according to a modern meaſurement, the extent of continued buildings, is 35 miles two furlongs and 39 roods. But it is much eaſier to form an idea of the large extent of a city ſo irregularly built, by the number of the people, who are computed to be near a million; and from the number of edifices devoted to the ſervice of religion.

Of theſe, beſides St. Paul's cathedral, and the collegiate church at Weſtminſter, here are 102 pariſh churches, 69 chapels of the eſtabliſhed religion; 21 French proteſtant chapels; 11 chapels belonging to the Germans, Dutch, Danes, &c. 26 independent meetings; 34 preſbyterian meetings; 20 baptiſt meetings 19 popiſh chapels, and meeting-houſes for the uſe of foreign ambaſſadors, and people of various ſects; and three Jewiſh ſynagogues. So that there are 305 places devoted to religious worſhip, in the compaſs of this vaſt pile of buildings, without reckoning the 21 out-pariſhs uſually included in the bills of mortality, and a great number of methodiſt tabernacles:

There are alſo in and near this city 100 alms-houſes, about 20 hoſpitals and infirmaries, 3 colleges, 10 public priſons; 15 fleſh-markets; 1 market for live cattle, 2 other markets more particularly for herbs; and 23 other markets for corn, coals, hay, &c. 15 inns of court, 27 public ſquares beſides thoſe within ſingle buildings, as the Temple, &c. 3 bridges, 49 halls for companies, 8 public ſchools, called free-ſchools; and 131 charity-ſchools, which provide education for 5034 poor children; 207 inns, 447 taverns, 551 coffee-houſes; 5975 alehouſes; 1000 hackney-coaches; 400 ditto chairs; 7000 ſtreets, lanes, courts, and alleys, and 150,000 dwelling houſes, containing, as has been already obſerved, about 1,000,000 inhabitants, who, according to a late eſtimate, conſume annually the following articles of proviſions *.

Black cattle	98,244
Sheep and lambs	711,123
Calves	194,760
Swine	186,932
Pigs	52,000
Poultry and wild fowl, innumerable	
Mackarel ſold at Billingſgate	14,740,000
Oyſters, buſhels	115,536

* Neither of the ancient and famous cities of Nineveh, Babylon or Rome, had ever ſhipping or trade ſufficient to employ ſo many hands, nor were capable of furniſhing proviſions, firing, or other neceſſaries for their ſupport.

Small

Small boats with cod, haddock, whiting, &c. over and above thoſe brought by land-carriage, and great quantities of river and ſalt-fiſh	1,398
Butter, pounds weight, about	16,000,000
Cheeſe ditto, about	20,000,000
Gallons of milk	7,000,000
Barrels of ſtrong beer	1,172,494
Barrels of ſmall beer	798,495
Tons of foreign wines	3,044
Gallons of rum, brandy, and other diſtilled waters above	11,000,000
Pounds weight of candles, above	11,000,000

London-bridge was firſt built of ſtone in the reign of Henry II. about the year 1163, by a tax laid upon wool, which in courſe of time gave riſe to the notion that it was built upon wool-packs; from that time it has undergone many alterations and improvements, particularly ſince the year 1756, when the houſes were taken down, and the whole rendered more convenient and beautiful. The paſſage for carriages is 31 feet broad, and 7 feet on each ſide for foot paſſengers. It croſſes the Thames, where it is 915 feet broad, and has at preſent 19 arches of about 20 feet wide each, but the centre one is conſiderably larger.

Weſtminſter-bridge is reckoned one of the moſt complete and elegant ſtructures of the kind known in the world. It is built entirely of ſtone, and extended over the river at a place where it is 1,223 feet broad; which is above 300 feet broader than at London-bridge, On each ſide is a fine balluſtrade of ſtone, with places of ſhelter from the rain. The width of the bridge is 44 feet, having on each ſide a fine foot-way for paſſengers, It conſiſts of 14 piers, and 13 large, and two ſmall arches, all ſemicircular, that in the centre being 76 feet wide, and the reſt decreaſing four feet each from the other; ſo that the two leaſt arches of the 13 great ones, are each 52 feet. It is computed that the value of 40,000l. in ſtone, and other materials, is always under water. This magnificent ſtructure was begun in 1738, and finiſhed 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by the parliament.

Black-friars bridge falls nothing ſhort of that of Weſtminſter, either in magnificence or workmanſhip; but the ſituation of the ground on the two ſhores, obliged the architect to employ elliptical arches; which, however, have a very fine effect; and many perſons even prefer it to Weſtminſter bridge. This bridge was begun in 1760, and finiſhed in 1770, at the expence of 152,840l. to be diſcharged by a toll upon the paſſengers. It is ſituated almoſt at an equal diſtance between thoſe of Weſtminſter and London, commands a view of the Thames from the later to Whitehall, and diſcovers the majeſty of St. Paul's in a very ſtriking manner.

The cathedral of St. Paul's is the moſt capacious, magnificent, and regular proteſtant church in the world. The length within is 500 feet; and its height, from the marble pavement to the croſs, on the top of the cupola, is 340. It is built of Portland ſtone, according to the Greek and Roman orders, in the form of a croſs, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome, to which in ſome reſpects it is ſuperior. St. Paul's church is the principal work of Sir Chriſtopher Wren, and undoubtedly the only work of the ſame magnitude that ever was completed by one man. He lived to a great age, and finiſhed the building 37 years after he himſelf laid the firſt ſtone. It takes up ſix acres of ground, though the whole length of this church meaſures no

more than the width of St. Peter's. The expence of rebuilding it after the fire of London, was defrayed by a duty on coals, and is computed at a million ſterling.

Weſtminſter-abbey, or the collegiate church of Weſtminſter, is a venerable pile of building, in the Gothic taſte. It was firſt built by Edward the Confeſſor; king Henry III. rebuilt it from the ground, and Henry VII. added a fine chapel to the eaſt end of it; this is the repoſitory of the deceaſed Britiſh kings and nobility; and here are alſo monuments erected to the memory of many great and illuſtrious perſonages, commanders by ſea and land, philoſophers, poets, &c. In the reign of queen Anne, 4000l. a year out of the coal duty, was granted by parliament for keeping it in repair.

The inſide of the church of St. Stephen's Walbrook, is admired for its lightneſs and elegance, and does honour to the memory of Sir Chriſtopher Wren. The ſame may be ſaid of the ſteeples of St. Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride's, which are ſuppoſed to be the moſt complete in their kind of any in Europe, though architecture has laid down no rules for ſuch erection. Few churches in and about London are without ſome beauty. The ſimplicity of the portico in Covent-Garden is worthy the pureſt ages of ancient architecture. That of St. Martin's in the Fields would be noble and ſtriking, could it be ſeen from a proper point of view. Several of the new churches are built in an elegant taſte, and even ſome of the chapels have gracefulneſs and proportion to recommend them. The Banquetinghouſe at Whitehall, is but a very ſmall part of a noble palace deſigned by Inigo Jones, for the royal reſidence, and as it now ſtands, under all its diſadvantages, its ſymmetry, and ornaments, are in the higheſt ſtyle and execution of architecture.

Weſtminſter-hall, though on the outſide it makes a mean, and no very advantageous appearance, is a noble Gothic building, and is ſaid to be the largeſt room in the world, whoſe roof is not ſupported with pillars; it being 230 feet long, and 70 broad. The roof is the fineſt of its kind that can be ſeen. Here are held the coronation feaſts of our kings and queens; alſo the courts of chancery, king's-bench, and common-pleas, and above ſtairs, that of the exchequer.

That beautiful column, called the monument, erected at the charge of the city, to perpetuate the memory of its being deſtroyed by fire, is juſtly worthy of notice. This column, which is of the Doric order, exceeds all the obeliſks and pillars of the ancients, it being 202 feet high, with a ſtair-caſe in the middle to aſcend to the balcony, which is about 30 feet ſhort of the top, from whence there are other ſteps, made for perſons to look out at the top of all, which is faſhioned like an urn, with a flame iſſuing from it. On the baſe of the monument, next the ſtreet, the deſtruction of the city, and the relief given to the ſufferers by Charles II. and his brother, is emblematically repreſented in bas relief. The north and ſouth ſides of the baſe have each a Latin inſcription, the one deſcribing its dreadful deſolation, and the other its ſplendid reſurrection; and on the eaſt ſide is an inſcription, ſhewing when the pillar was begun and finiſhed. The charge of erecting this monument, which was begun by Sir Chriſtopher Wren in 1671, and finiſhed by him in 1677, amounted to upward of 13,000l.

The Royal-Exchange is a large and noble building, and is ſaid to have coſt above 80,000l.

The terrace in the Adelphi is a very fine piece of architecture, and has laid open one of the fineſt proſpects in the world.

We might here give a deſcription of the Tower, Bank of England, the New Treaſury, the Admirality-office, and the Horſe-guards at White-hall, the

the Manſion-houſe, or houſe, of the Lord-mayor, the Cuſtom-houſe, Exciſe-office, India-houſe, and a vaſt number of other public buildings; beſides the magnificent edifices raiſed by our nobility; as lord Spencer's houſe, Marlborough-houſe, and Buckingham-houſe in St. James's park; the earl of Cheſterfield's houſe, near Hyde park; the Duke of Devonſhire's, and the late earl of Bath's, in Piccadilly; lord Shelburne's in Berkeley ſquare; Northumberland-houſe in the Strand; the duke of Bedford's, and Montague-houſe, in Bloomſbury; with a number of others of the nobility and gentry; but theſe would be ſufficient to fill a large volume.

In Montague-houſe is depoſited the Britiſh Muſeum. Sir Hans Sloane, bart (who died in 1753) may not improperly be called the founder of the Britiſh Muſeum; for its being eſtabliſhed by parliament, was only in conſequence of his leaving by will his noble collection of natural hiſtory, his large library, and his numerous curioſities, which coſt him 50,000l. to the uſe of the public, on condition that the parliament would pay 20,000l. to his executors. To this collection were added the Cottonian library, the Harleian manuſcripts, collected by the Oxford family, and purchaſed likewiſe by the parliament, and a collection of books given by the late major Edwards. His late majeſty, in conſideration of its great uſefulneſs, was graciouſly pleaſed to add thereto the royal libraries of books and manuſcripts collected by the ſeveral kings of England.

The Sloanian collection conſiſts of an amazing number of curioſities: among which are, the library, including books of drawings, manuſcripts, and prints, amounting to about 50,000 volumes. Medals and coins, ancient and modern, 20,000. Cameos and intaglios, about 700. Seals, 268. Veſſels, &c. of agate, jaſper, &c. 542. Antiquities, 1,125. Precious ſtones, agate, jaſper, &c. 2,156. Metals, minerals, ores, &c. 2,725. Chryſtal, ſpars, &c. 1,864. Foſſils, flints, ſtones, 1,275. Earth, ſands, ſalts, 1,035. Bitumens, ſulphurs, amber, &c. 399. Talcs, micæ, &c. 388. Corals, ſpunges, &c. 2,421. Teſtacea, or ſhells, &c. 5,843. Echini, echinitæ, &c. 659. Aſteriæi-trochi, entrochi, &c. 241. Cruſtaceæ, crabs, lobſters, &c, 363. Stellæ marinæ, ſtar-fiſhes, &c. 173. Fiſh, and their parts, &c. 1,555. Birds, and their parts, eggs, and the neſts of different ſpecies, 1,172. Quadrupeds, &c. 1,886. Vipers, ſerpents, &c. 521. Inſects, &c. 5,439. Vegetables, 12,506. Hortus ſiccus, or volumes of dried plants, 334. Humani, as calculi, anatomical preparations, 756. Miſcellaneous things, natural, 2,098. Mathematical inſtruments, 55. A catalogue of all the above is written in a number of large volumes.

This great and populous city is happily ſupplied with abundance of freſh water, from the Thames and the New River; which is not only of inconceivable ſervice to every family, but by means of fire-plugs every where diſperſed, the keys of which are depoſited with the pariſh officers, the city is in a great meaſure ſecured from the ſpreading of fire; for theſe plugs are no ſooner opened than there are vaſt quantities of water to ſupply the engines.

This plenty of water has been attended with another advantage, it has given riſe to ſeveral companies, who inſure houſes and goods from fire; an advantage that is not to be met with in any other nation on earth: the premium is ſmall, and the recovery in caſe of loſs, is eaſy and certain. Every one of theſe offices keeps a ſet of men in pay, who are ready at all hours to give their aſſiſtance in caſe of fire; and who are on all occaſions extremely bold, dexterous, and diligent: but though all their labours ſhould prove unſucceſsful, the perſon who ſuffers by this devouring element, has the comfort

ſort that muſt ariſe from a certainty of being paid the value (upon oath) of what he has inſured.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London (which, like moſt other great cities, had ariſen from ſmall beginnings) was totally inelegant, inconvenient, and unhealthy, of which latter misfortune many melancholy proofs are authenticated in hiſtory, and which, without doubt, proceeded from the narrowneſs of the ſtreets, ad the unaccountable projections of the buildings, that confined the putrid air, and joined with other circumſtances, ſuch as the want of water, rendered the city ſeldom free from peſtilential devaſtation. The fire which conſumed the greateſt part of the city, dreadful as it was to the inhabitants at that time, was productive of conſequences, which made ample amends for the loſſes ſuſtained by individuals; a new city aroſe on the ruins of the old; but, though more regular, open, convenient, and healthful than the former, yet it by no means anſwered to the characters of magnificence or elegance, in many particulars: and it is ever to be lamented (ſuch was the infatuation of thaſe times) that the magnificent, elegant, and uſeful plan of the great Sir Chriſtopher Wren, was totally diſregarded and ſacrificed to the mean and ſelfiſh views of private property. Views which did irreparable injury to the citizens themſelves, and to the nation in general; for had that great architect's plan been followed, what has often been aſſerted, muſt have been the reſult; the metropolis of this kingdom would inconteſtably have been the moſt magnificent and elegant city in the univerſe, and of conſequence muſt, from the prodigious reſort of foreigners of diſtinction and taſte who would have viſited it, have become an inexhauſtible fund of riches to this nation. But as the deplorable blindneſs of that age has deprived us of ſo valuable an acquiſition, it is become abſolutely neceſſary that ſome efforts ſhould be made to render the preſent plan in a greater degree anſwerable to the character of the richeſt and moſt powerful people in the world.

The plan of London, in its preſent ſtate, will in many inſtances appear to very moderate judges, to be as injudicious a diſpoſition as can eaſily be conceived for a city of trade or commerce, on the border of ſo noble a river as the Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks are extremely mean and inconvenient. And the want of regularity and uniformity in the ſtreets of the city of London, and the mean avenues to many parts of it, are alſo circumſtances that greatly leſſen the grandeur of its appearance. Many of the churches, and other public buildings, are likewiſe thurſt up in corners in ſuch a manner, as might tempt foreigners to believe, that they were deſigned to be concealed. The improvements of the city of London for ſome years paſt, have however been very great: and the new ſtreets, which are numerous, are in general more ſpacious, and built with greater regularity and elegance.

In the centre of the town, and upon the banks of the nobleſt river in Europe, was a chain of inelegant, ruinous houſes, known by the name of Durham-Yard, the Savoy, and Somerſet Houſe. The firſt, being private property, engaged the notice of the ingenious Adams, who opened the way to a piece of ſcenery, which no city in Europe can equal. On the ſite of Durham-Yard was raiſed upon arches the pile of the Adelphi, celebrated for its enchanting proſpect, the utility of its wharfs, and its ſubterraneous apartments anſwering a variety of purpoſes of general benefit. Contiguous to the Adelphi ſtands the Savoy, the property of government, hitherto a nuiſance; and, adjoining to the Savoy towards the Temple, ſtood Somerſet-Houſe, where, being the property of government alſo, a new pile of buildings for public offices has been erected; and here, in a very magnificent edifice, are elegant apart-

apartments appropriated for the uſe of the Royal Society, the Royal Academy of painting and ſculpture, and the Society of Antiquaries.

Though a variety of circumſtances have hitherto been diſadvantageous to the embelliſhment of the metropolis, it muſt at the ſame time be acknowledged that a ſpirit of improvement ſeems univerſal among all degrees of people. The very elegant and neceſſary method of paving and enlightening the ſtreets, is felt in the moſt ſenſible manner by all ranks and degrees of people. The roads are continued for ſeveral miles around upon the ſame model; and, excluſive of lamps regularly placed on each ſide, at ſhort diſtances, are rendered more ſecure by watchmen ſtationed within call of each other. Nothing can appear more brilliant than thoſe lights when viewed at a diſtance, eſpecially where the roads run acroſs: and even the principal ſtreets, ſuch as Pall Mall, New Bond-ſtreet, Oxford ſtreet, &c. convey an idea of elegance and magnificence.

Among the liſt of improvements worthy notice, may be included the Six Clerks Office, in Chancery-lane, and that very ſubſtantial building in the Old Bailey, which does honour to a people celebrated for their cleanlineſs, and for their humanity. Here the unfortunate debtor will no longer be annoyed by the dreadful rattle of chains, or by the more horrid ſounds iſſuing from the lips of thoſe wretched beings, who ſet defiance to all laws divine and human; and here alſo the offender, whoſe crime is not capital, may enjoy all the benefits of a free open air.

Windſor caſtle is the only fabric that deſerves the name of a royal palace in England; and that chiefly through its beautiful and commanding ſituation; which with the form of its conſtruction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. Hampton-court was the favourite reſidence of king William, it is built in the Dutch taſte, and has ſome good apartments, and, like Windſor, lies near the Thames. Both theſe palaces have ſome good pictures; but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I. and diſſipated in the time of the civil wars. The cartoons of Raphael, which for deſign and expreſſion are reckoned the maſterpieces of painting, have by his preſent majeſty been removed from the gallery built for them at Hampton-court, to the queen's-palace, formerly Buckingham-houſe, in St. James's park. The palace of St. James's is commodious, but has the air of a convent; and that of Kenſington, which was purchaſed from the Finch Family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens. Other houſes, though belonging to the king, are far from deſerving the name of royal.

Next to theſe, if not ſuperior, in magnificence and expenſive decorations, are many private ſeats in the neighbourhood of London, and all over the kingdom, wherein the amazing opulence of the Engliſh nation ſhines forth in its fulleſt point of view. Herein alſo the princely fortunes of the nobility are made ſubſervient to the fineſt claſſical taſte; witneſs the ſeats of the marquis of Buckingham and earl Pembroke. At the ſeat of the latter, more remains of antiquity are to be found than are in the poſſeſſion of any other ſubject in the world.

But thoſe capital houſes of the Engliſh nobility and gentry have an excellency diſtinct from what is to be met with in any other part of the globe, which is, that all of them are complete without and within, all the apartments and members being ſuitable to each other, both in conſtruction and furniture, and all kept in the higheſt preſervation. It often happens that the houſe, however elegant and coſtly, is not the principal object of the ſeat which conſiſts in its hortulane and rural decorations. Viſtas, opening landſcapes,

ſcapes, temples, all of them the reſult of that enchanting art of imitating nature, and uniting beauty with magnificence.

It cannot be expected that I ſhould here enter into a particular detail of all the cities and towns of England, which would far exceed the limits of this work: I ſhall, therefore, only touch upon ſome of the moſt conſiderable.

Briſtol is reckoned the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions for trade, wealth, and the number of inhabitants. It ſtands upon the north and ſouth ſides of the river Avon, and two parts of the city are connected by a ſtrong bridge. The city is not well built; but it is ſuppoſed to contain 15,000 houſes, and 95,000 inhabitants. Here is a cathedral and eighteen pariſh churches, beſides ſeven or eight other places of worſhip. On the north ſide of a large ſquare, called Queen's ſquare, which is adorned with rows of trees, and an equeſtrian ſtatue of William the Third, there is a cuſtom-houſe, with a quay half a mile in length, ſaid to be one of the moſt commodious in England, for ſhipping and landing of merchants goods. The exchange, wherein the merchants and traders meet, is all of freeſtone, and is one of the beſt of its kind in Europe.

York is a city of great antiquity, pleaſantly ſituated on the river Ouſe; it is very populous, and ſurrounded with a good wall, through which are four gates, and five poſterns. Here are ſeventeen pariſhes churches, and a very noble cathedral, or minſter it being one of the fineſt Gothic buildings in England. It extends in length 525 feet, and in breadth 110 feet. The nave, which is the largeſt of any in the world, excepting that of St. Peter's church at Rome, is four feet and a half wider, and eleven feet higher, than that of St. Paul's cathedral at London. At the weſt end are two towers, connected and ſupported by an arch which forms the weſt entrance, and is reckoned the largeſt gothic arch in Europe. The windows are finely painted, and the front of the choir is adorned with ſtatues of all the kings in England from William the Norman to Henry VI. and here are thirty-two ſtalls, all of fine marble with pillars, each conſiſting of one piece of alabaſter. Here is alſo a very neat Gothic chapter-houſe. Near the cathedral is the aſſembly-houſe, which is a noble ſtructure, and which was deſigned by the late earl of Burlington. This city has a ſtone bridge of five arches over the river Ouſe.

The city of Exeter was for ſome time the ſeat of the Weſt-Saxon kings; and the walls, which at this time encloſe it, were built by king Athelſtan, who encompaſſed it alſo with a ditch. It is one of the firſt cities in England, as well on account of its buildings and wealth, as its extent, and the number of its inhabitants. It has ſix gates, and, including its ſuburbs, is more than two miles in circumference. There are ſixteen pariſh churches, beſides chapels, and five large meeting houſes within the walls of this city. The trade of Exeter in ſerges, perpetuans, long-ells, druggets, kerſeys, and other woollen goods, is very great. Ships come up to this city by means of ſluices.

The city of Glouceſter ſtands on a pleaſant hill, with houſes on every deſcent, and is a clean, well-built town, with the Severn on one ſide, a branch of which brings ſhips up to it. The cathedral here is an ancient and magnificent ſtructure, and there are alſo five pariſh churches.

Litchfield ſtands in a valley, three miles ſouth of the Trent, and is divided by a ſtream which runs into that river. The cathedral was founded in the year 1148: it was much damaged during the civil war, but was ſo completely repaired ſoon after the Reſtoration, that it is now one of the nobleſt Gothic

Gothic ſtructures in England. Litchfield is thought to be the moſt conſiderable city in the north-weſt of England, except Cheſter.

Cheſter is a large, populous, and wealthy city, with a noble bridge, that has a gate at each end, and twelve arches over the Dee, which falls into the ſea. It has eleven pariſhes, and nine well-built churches. The ſtreets are generally even and ſpacious, and croſſing one another in ſtraight lines, meet in the centre. The walls were firſt erected by Edelfleda, a Mercian lady, in the year 908, and join on the ſouth ſide of the city to the caſtle, from whence there is a pleaſant walk round the city upon the walls, except where it is intercepted by ſome of the towers over the gates; and from whence there is a proſpect of Flintſhire, and the mountains of Wales.

Warwick is a town of great antiquity, and appears to have been of eminence even in the time of the Romans. It ſtands upon a rock of free-ſtone, on the banks of the Avon; and a way is cut to it through the rocks from each of the four cardinal points, The town is populous, and the ſtreets are ſpacious and regular, and all meet in the centre of the town.

The city of Coventry is large and populous: it has a handſome town-houſe, and twelve noble gates. Here is alſo a ſpacious market-place, with a croſs in the middle, 60 feet high, which is adorned with ſtatues of ſeveral kings of England as large as life.

Saliſbury is a large, neat, and well-built city, ſituated in a valley, and watered by the Upper Avon on the weſt and ſouth, and by the Bourne on the eaſt. The ſtreets are generally ſpacious, and built at right angles. The cathedral, which was finiſhed in 1358, at the expence of above 26,000 pounds, is, for a Gothic building, the moſt elegant and regular in the kingdom. It is in the form of a lanthorn, with a beautiful ſpire of freeſtone in the middle, which is 410 feet high, being the talleſt in England. The length of the church is 478 feet, the breadth is 76 feet, and the height of the vaulting 80 feet. The church has a cloiſter, which is 150 feet ſquare, and of as fine workmanſhip as any in England. The chapter-houſe, which is an octagon, is 150 feet in circumference; and yet the roof bears all upon one ſmall pillar in the centre, ſo much too weak in agpearance for the ſupport of ſuch a prodigious weight, that the conſtruction of this building is thought one of the greateſt curioſities in England.

The city of Bath took its name from ſome natural hot baths, for the medicinal waters of which this place has been long celebrated, and much frequented. The ſeaſons for drinking the Bath-waters are the ſpring and autumn; the ſpring ſeaſon begins with April, and ends with June; the autumn ſeaſon begins with September and laſts to December, and ſome patients remain here all the winter. In the ſpring, this place is moſt frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleaſure, when at leaſt two thirds of the company conſiſting chiefly of perſons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amuſements of the place. In ſome ſeaſons there have been no leſs than 8000 perſons at Bath, beſides its inhabitants. Some of the buildings lately erected here are extremely elegant, particularly Queen's ſquare, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus, and Creſcent.

Nottingham is pleaſantly ſituated on the aſcent of a rock, overlooking the river Trent, which runs parallel with it about a mile to the ſouth, and has been made navigable. It is one of the neateſt places in England, and has a conſiderable trade.

No nation in the world can ſhew ſuch dock-yards, and all conveniencies for conſtruction and repairs of the royal navy, as Portſmouth (the moſt regular fortification in England), Plymouth (by far the beſt dock-yard) Chatham,

Woolwich, and Depford. The royal Hoſpital at Greenwich, for ſuperannuated ſeamen, is ſcarcely exceeded by any royal palace, for its magnificence and expence.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This article is copious, and has been well diſcuſſed in former publications, many of which are maſter-pieces of their kind. It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raiſed the Engliſh to be the firſt and moſt powerful people in the world. Hiſtorical reviews, on this head, would be tedious. It is ſufficient then to ſay, that it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the ſcale of commerce. She planned ſome ſettlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expence attending them to be defrayed by her ſubjects; and indeed ſhe was too parſimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. entered upon great and beneficial ſchemes for the Engliſh trade. The Eaſt India company owes to him their ſucceſs and exiſtence, and Britiſh America ſaw her moſt flouriſhing colonies riſe under him and his family. The ſpirit of commerce went hand in hand with that of liberty, and though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation was greatly increaſed. It is not within our deſign to follow commerce through all her fluctuations and ſtates. This would be an idle attempt, and it has already taken up large volumes. The nature of a geographical work requires only a repreſentation of the preſent ſtate of commerce in every country; and, in this light, I flatter myſelf that I ſhall be able to treat of it with more preciſion than former writers upon the ſame ſubject.

The preſent ſyſtem of Engliſh politics may properly be ſaid to have taken riſe in the reign of queen Elizabeth. At this time the proteſtant religion was eſtabliſhed, which naturally allied us to the reformed ſtates, and made all the Popiſh powers our enemies.

We began in the ſame reign to extend our trade, by which it became neceſſary for us alſo to watch the commercial progreſs of our neighbours, and if not to incommode and obſtruct their traffic, to hinder them from impairing ours.

We then likewiſe ſettled colonies in America, which was become the great ſcene of European ambition; for, ſeeing with what treaſures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conqueſt or plantation would certainly fill the mother-country with gold and ſilver.

The diſcoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the profit of remote traffic, and the neceſſity of long voyages, produced, in a few years, a great multiplication of ſhipping. The ſea was conſidered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of ſovereignty aroſe, called *naval dominion*.

As the chief trade of Europe, ſo the chief maritime power was at firſt in the hands of the Portugueſe and Spaniards, who, by a compact, to which the conſent of other princes was not aſked, had divided the newly diſcovered countries between them: but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being ſeized by him, he was maſter of the ſhipping of the two nations, with which he kept all the coaſts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada, he had raiſed at a vaſt expence for the conqueſt of England, was deſtroyed; which put a ſtop, and almoſt an end to the naval power of the Spaniards.

At this time the Dutch, who were oppreſſed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, reſolved no longer to endure the inſolence of their

their maſters; they therefore revolted, and after a ſtruggle, in which they were aſſiſted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their ſyſtem of government, and ſome remiſſion of the war gave them leiſure to form ſchemes for future proſperity, they eaſily perceived that as their territories were narrow, and their numbers ſmall, they could preſerve themſelves only by that power, which is the conſequence of wealth; and that by a people whoſe country produced only the neceſſaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by tranſportation of the products of one country into another.

From this neceſſity, thus juſtly eſtimated, aroſe a plan of commerce, which was for many years proſecuted with an induſtry and ſucceſs perhaps never ſeen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impaſſable bogs erected themſelves into high and mighty ſtates, who ſet the greateſt monarchs at defiance, whoſe alliance was courted by the proudeſt, and whoſe power was dreaded by the fierceſt nations. By the eſtabliſhment of this ſtate, there aroſe to England a new ally, and a new rival.

When queen Elizabeth entered upon the government, the cuſtoms produced only 36,000l. a year; at the Reſtoration, they were let to farm for 400,000l. and produced conſiderably above double that ſum before the Revolution. The people of London, before we had any plantations, and when our trade was inconſiderable, were computed at about 100,000; at the death of queen Elizabeth, they were increaſed to 150,000, and are now above ſix times that number. In thoſe days we had not only naval ſtores, but ſhips, from our neighbours. Germany furniſhed us with all things made of metals, even to nails: wine, paper, linen, and a thouſand other things, came from France. Portugal furniſhed us with ſugars: all the produce of America was poured upon us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoeſe retailed to us the commodities of the Eaſt Indies at their own price. In ſhort, the legal intereſt of money was twelve per cent. and the common price of our land ten or twelve years purchaſe. We may add, that our manufactures were few, and thoſe but indifferent; the number of Engliſh merchants very ſmall, and our ſhipping much inferior to what lately belonged to the American colonies.

Great Britain is, of all other countries, the moſt proper for trade; as well from its ſituation as an iſland, as from the freedom and excellency of its conſtitution, and from its natural products, and conſiderable manufactures. For exportation our country produces many of the moſt ſubſtantial and neceſſary commodities; as butter, cheeſe, corn, cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, leather, copperas, pit-coal, alum, ſaffron, &c. Our corn ſometimes preſerves other countries from ſtarving. Our horſes are the moſt ſerviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardineſs, beauty, and ſtrength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biſcuit, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign veſſels that come and go. Our iron we export manufactured in great guns, carcaſes, bombs, &c. Prodigious, and almoſt incredible is the value likewiſe of other goods from hence exported; viz. hops, flax, hemp, hats, ſhoes, houſehold-ſtuff, ale, beer, red-herrings, pilchards, ſalmon, oyſters, liquorice, watches, ribbands, toys, &c.

There is ſcarcely a manufacture in Europe but what is brought to great perfection in England; and therefore it is perfectly unneceſſary to enumerate them all. The woollen manufacture is the moſt conſiderable, and exceeds in

goodneſs and quantity that of any other nation. Hardware is another capital article; locks, edge-tools, guns, ſwords, and other arms, exceed any thing of the kind; houſehold utenſils of braſs, iron, and pewter, alſo are very great articles; and our clocks and watches are in great eſteem. There are but few manufactures in which we are defective. In thoſe of lace and paper we do not ſeem to excel, though they are greatly advancing; we import much more than we ſhould, if the duties on Britiſh paper were taken off. As to foreign traffic, the woolen manufacture is the great foundation and ſupport of it.

The American colonies are the objects which would naturally have firſt preſented themſelves, before the unhappy conteſt between them and the mother country commenced; but as a ſeparation hath taken place, the commercial intercourſe is regulated by a treaty lately entered inro between the two countries.

The principal iſlands belonging to the Engliſh in the Weſt Indies, are Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Chriſtophers, Grenada, Antigua, St. Vincent, Dominica, Anguilla, Nevis, Montſerrat, the Bermudas or Summer Iſlands, and the Bahama or Lucayan Iſlands in the Atlantic ocean.

The Engliſh trade with their Weſt India Iſlands conſiſt chiefly in ſugars, rums, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel planks, drugs, and preſerves; for theſe the exports from England are oſnaburgs, a coarſe kind of linen, with which the Weſt Indians now clothe their ſlaves: linen of all ſorts, with broad cloth and kerſies, for the planters, their overſeers and families: ſilks and ſtuffs for their ladies and houſehold ſervants; hats; red caps for their ſlaves of both ſexes; ſtockings and ſhoes of all ſorts: gloves and millinery ware, and perukes, laces for linen, woolen, and ſilks; ſtrong beer, pale beer, pickles, candles, butter, and cheeſe; iron ware, as ſaws, files, axes, hatchets, chiſels, adzes, hoes, mattocks, gouges, planes, augres, nails; lead, powder, and ſhot; braſs and copper wares; toys, coals, and pantiles; cabinet wares, ſnuffs, and in general whatever is raiſed or manufactured in Great Britain; and alſo negroes from Africa, and all ſorts of India goods.

The trade of England to the Eaſt Indies conſtitutes one of the moſt ſtupendous, political, as well as commercial machines, that is to be met with in hiſtory. The trade itſelf is excluſive, and lodged in a company, which has a temporary monopoly of it, in conſideration of money advanced to the government. Without entering into the hiſtory of the Eaſt India trade, within theſe twenty years paſt, and the company's concerns in that country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that, beſides their ſettlements on the coaſt of India, which they enjoy under certain reſtrictions by act of parliament; they have, through the various internal revolutions which have happened at Indoſtan, and the ambition and avarice of their ſervants and officers, acquired ſuch territorial poſſeſſions, as render them the moſt formidable commercial republic (for ſo it may be called in its preſent ſituation) that has been known in the world ever ſince the demolition of Carthage. Their revenues are only known, and that but imperfectly, to the directors of the company, who are choſen by the proprietors of the ſtock; but it has been publickly affirmed, that they amount annually to above three millions and a half ſterling. The expences of the company in forts, fleets, and armies, for maintaining thoſe acquiſitions, are certainly very great: but after theſe are defrayed, the company not only cleared a vaſt ſum, but was able to pay to the government four hundred thouſand pounds yearly for a certain time, partly by way of indemnification for the expences of the public in protecting the company, and partly

ly, as a tacit tribute for thoſe poſſeſſions that are territorial and not commercial. This republic, therefore, cannot be ſaid to be independent; and it is hard to ſay what form it may take when the term of the bargain with the government is expired. For many years paſt, the company's ſervants abroad have enriched and ſerved themſelves more than the company or the republic.

This company exports to the Eaſt Indies all kinds of woolen manufacture, all ſorts of hard-ware, lead, bullion, and quickſilver. Their imports conſiſt of gold, diamonds, raw ſilks, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China ware, ſalt-petre for home conſumption; and of wrought ſilks, muſlins, callicoes, cottons, and all the woven manufactures of India, for exportation to foreign countries. I ſhall now proceed to a conciſe view of the Engliſh trade to foreign countries, according to the lateſt and moſt authentic accounts.

To Turkey, England ſends in her own bottoms, woollen cloths, tin, lead, and iron, hardware, iron utenſils, clocks, watches, verdegris, ſpices, cochineal, and logwood. She imports from thence raw-ſilks, carpets, ſkins, dying drugs, cotton, fruits, medicinal drugs, coffee, and ſome other articles. Formerly, the balance of this trade was about 500,000l. annualy in favour of England. The Engliſh trade was afterwards diminiſhed through the practices of the French; but the Turkey trade at preſent is at a very low ebb with the French as well as the Engliſh.

England exports to Italy woollen goods of various kinds, peltry, leather, lead, tin, fiſh, and Eaſt India goods; and brings back raw and thrown ſilk, wines, oil, ſoap, olives, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, dried fruits, colours, anchovies, and other articles of luxury: the balance of this trade to England is annually about 200,000l.

To Spain, England ſends all kinds of woollen goods, leather, tin, lead, fiſh, corn, iron, and braſs manufactures; haberdaſhery wares, aſſortments of linen from Germany, and elſewhere, for the American colonies: and receives in return, wines, oils, dried fruits, oranges, lemons, olives, wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dying drugs, colours, gold and ſilver coin.

Portugal formerly was, upon commercial accounts, the favourite ally of England, whoſe fleets and armies have more than once ſaved her from deſtruction. England ſends to this country almoſt the ſame kind of merchandizes as to Spain, and receives in return vaſt quantities of wines, with oils, ſalt, dried and moiſt fruits, dying drugs, and gold coin.

The treaty of commerce between England and France promiſed to have been advantageous to both countries, but that with every other connection is for the preſent diſſolved.

England ſends to Flanders, ſerges, flannels, tin, lead, ſugars, and tobacco; and receives in return, laces, linen, cambrics, and other articles of luxury, by which England loſes upon the balance 250,000l. ſterling yearly. To Germany England ſends cloths and ſtuffs, tin, pewter, ſugars, tobacco, and Eaſt India merchandiſe; and brings thence vaſt quantities of linen, thread, goat-ſkins, tinned plates, timbers, for all uſes, wines, and many other articles. Before the late war, the balance of this trade was thought to be 500,000l. annually, to the prejudice of England, but that ſum is now greatly reduced, as moſt of the German princes find it their intereſt to clothe their armies in Engliſh manufactures. I have already mentioned the trade with Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Ruſſia, which formerly was againſt England; but the balance was lately vaſtly diminiſhed by the great improvements of her American col-

colonies, in raiſing hemp, flax, making pot-aſhes, iron works, and tallow, all which uſed to be furniſhed to her by the northern powers. The goods exported to Poland, chiefly by the way of Dantzick, are many, and the duties upon them low. Many articles are ſent there for which there is no longer any demand in other countries. Poland conſumes large quantities of our woollen goods, hard-ware, lead, tin, ſalt, ſea-coal, &c. and the export of manufactured tobacco is greater to Poland than to any other country. The balance of trade may be eſtimated much in our favour.

To Holland, England ſends an immenſe quantity of many ſorts of merchandiſe; ſuch as all kinds of woollen goods, hides, corn, coals, Eaſt-India and Turkey commodities, tobacco, tar, ſugar, rice, ginger, and other American productions; and makes return in fine linen, lace, cambrics, thread, tapes, incle, madder, boards, drugs, whalebone, train-oil, toys, and many other things; and the balance is uſually ſuppoſed to be much in favour of England.

The foregoing account of the trade of England is adapted to the relative ſituation of the different countries of Europe, as they ſtood before the commencement of the preſent war; but the diſaſtrous events which have taken place during this awful ſtruggle, having totally overthrown the fabric of European politics, diſſolved and broken all her political as well as commercial relations; before any ſpeculation on this ſubject can be hazarded, we muſt wait till tranquillity is reſtored and ſome ſyſtem of connection and intercourſe, which promiſes to be laſting, eſtabliſhed. Whatever this ſyſtem may be, whether one altogether new, or one ſimiliar to the old; we cannot entertain a doubt that Great Britain will retain that dignified ſituation in the ſcale of nations; to which her magnanimous conduct during the conteſt, ſo juſtly entitles her; and tho' her commerce may be at preſent diverted from its former channels, it is at this time greater than it has ever been at any former period.

The acquiſitions which the Engliſh made upon the coaſt of Guinea, particularly their ſettlements at Senegal opened new ſources of commerce with Africa. The French, when in poſſeſſion of Senegal, traded there for gold, ſlaves, hides, oſtrich-feathers, bees-wax, millet, ambergris, and above all, for that uſeful commodity gum Senegal, which was monopolized by them and the Dutch, and probably will again, as Senegal is now delivered up to France by the late treaty of peace. At preſent, England ſends to the coſt of Guinea, ſundry ſorts of coarſe woollen and linen, iron, pewter, braſs, and hardware manufactures, lead, ſhot, ſwords, knives, fire-arms, gunpowder, and glaſs manufactures. And, beſides its drawing no money out of the kingdom, it lately ſupplied the American colonies with negro ſlaves, amounting in number to above 100,000 annually. The other returns are in gold-duſt, gum, dying and other drugs, redwood, Guinea-grains, and ivory.

To Arabia, Perſia, China, and other parts of Aſia, England ſends much foreign ſilver coin and bullion, and ſundry Engliſh manufactures of woollen goods, and of lead, iron, and braſs; and brings home from thoſe remote regions, muſlins and cottons of many various kinds, callicoes, raw and wrought ſilk, chintz; teas, porcelain, gold duſt, coffee, ſalt-petre, and many other drugs. And ſo great a quantity of thoſe various merchandiſes are re-exported to foreign European nations, as more than abundantly compenſates for all the ſilver bullion which England carries out.

During the infancy of commerce with foreign parts, it was judged expedient to grant excluſive charters to particular bodies or corporations of men; hence the Eaſt India, South Sea, Hudſon's Bay, Turkey, Ruſſia, Royal African com-

companies; but the trade to Turkey, Ruſſia, and Africa, is now laid open, though the merchant who propoſes to trade thither, muſt become a member of the company, be ſubject to their laws and regulations, and advance a ſmall ſum at admiſſion, for the purpoſe of ſupporting conſuls, forts, &c.

With regard to the general account of England's foreign balance, the exports, preceeding 1798, according to the accounts of the inſpector general of imports and exports, were 31 millions; the imports 23 millions; the imports from China and the Eaſt Indies 6 millions; ſo that, according to this calculation, England gains, annually, eight millions ſterling, excluſive of the profits of her Eaſt India trade.

Yet our foreign trade does not amount to one-ſixth part of the inland; the annual produce of the natural products and manufactures of England amounting to above forty-two millions The gold and ſilver of England is received from Portugal, Spain Jamaica, the American colonies, and Africa, but great part of this gold and ſilver we again export to Holland, and the Eaſt Indies; and it is ſuppoſed that two-thirds of all the foreign traffic of England is carried on in the port of London.

Our bounds will not afford room to enter into a particular detail of the places where thoſe Engliſh manufactures, which are mentioned in the above account, are fabricated; a few general ſtrictures, however, may be proper.

Cornwall and Devonſhire ſupply tin and lead, and woollen manufactures are common to almoſt all the weſtern counties. Dorſetſhire makes cordage for the navy, feeds an incredible number of ſheep, and has large lace-manufactures. Somerſetſhire, beſides furniſhing lead, copper, and lapis calaminaris, has large manufactories of bone-lace, ſtockings, and caps. Briſtol is ſaid by ſome to employ 2000 maritime veſſels of all ſizes, coaſters as well as ſhips employed in foreign voyages: it has many very important manufactures; its glaſs-bottle, and drinking glaſs, one alone occupying fifteen large houſes; its braſs-wire manufactures are alſo very conſiderable. Vaſt manufactures of all kinds (glaſs, jewellery, clocks, watches, and cutlery, in particular), are carried on in London and its neigbourhood; the gold and ſilver manufactures of London, through the encouragement given them by the court and the nobility, already equal, if they do not exceed, thoſe of any country in Europe. Colcheſter is famous for its manufactures of bays and ſerges; and alſo Exeter for ſerges, and long ells; and Norwich for its excellent ſtuffs, camblets, druggets, and ſtockings. Birmingham, though no corporation, is one of the largeſt and moſt populous towns in England, and carries on an amazing trade in excellent and ingenious hardware manufactures, particularly ſnuff and tobacco boxes, buttons, ſhoe-buckles, etwees, and many other ſorts of ſteel and braſs wares; it is here, and in Sheffield, which is famous for cutlery, that the true genius of Engliſh art and induſtry is to be ſeen; for ſuch are their excellent inventions for fabricating hard wares, that they can afford them for a fourth part of the price at which other nations can furniſh the ſame of an inferior kind: the cheapneſs of coals, and all neceſſaries, and the conveniency of ſituation, no doubt, contribute greatly to this.

The northern counties of England carry on a prodigious trade in the coarſer and ſlighter woollen manufactures; witneſs thoſe of Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, and Richmond, and, above all, Mancheſter; which, by its variety of beautiful cottons, dimities, ticken, checks, and the like ſtuffs, is become a large and populous place, though only a village, and its higheſt magiſtrate a conſtable. I might mention here many other manufacturing

towns

towns and places of England, each of which is noted for ſome parſicular commodity, but the detail would become too bulky. I muſt not however diſmiſs this head, without obſerving the beautiful porcelain and earthen ware that have of late years been manufactured in different places of England, particularly in Worceſterſhire and Staffordſhire. The Engliſh carpets, eſpecially thoſe of Axminſter, Wilton, and Kidderminſter, though but a late manufacture, greatly excel in beauty any imported from Turkey, and are extremely durable; and conſequently are a vaſt ſaving to the nation. Paper, which till very lately was imported in vaſt quantities from France and Holland, is now made in every corner of the kingdom, and is a moſt neceſſary as well as beneficial manufacture. The parliament, of late, has given encouragement for reviving the manufacture of ſalt-petre, which was firſt attempted in England by Sr Walter Raleigh, but was dropt afterwards in favour of the Eaſt-India company; the ſucceſs of ſuch an undertaking would be an immenſe benefit, as well as ſecurity to the nation.

After all that has been ſaid on this head, the ſeats of manufactures, and conſequently of trade, in England, are fluctuating; they will always follow thoſe places where living is cheap and taxes are eaſy: for this reaſon they have been obſerved of late to remove towards the northern counties, where proviſions are in plenty, and the land-tax very low; add to this, that probably, in a few years, the inland navigations, which are opening in many parts of England, will make vaſt alterations as to its internal ſtate.

A Short View *of the* Stocks, *or* Public Funds *in* England *with an* Hiſtorical Account *of the* East India, *the* Bank, *and the* South Companies.

In order to give a clear idea of the money-tranſactions of the ſeveral companies, it is proper we ſhould ſay ſomething of money in general, and particularly of paper-money, and the difference between that and the current ſpecie. Money is the ſtandard of the value of all the neceſſaries and accommodations of life, and paper-money is the repreſentative of that ſtandard to ſuch a degree, as to ſupply its place, and to anſwer all the purpoſes of gold and ſilver coin. Nothing is neceſſary to make this repreſentative of money ſupply the place of ſpecie, but the credit of that office or company who delivers it; which credit conſiſts in its always being ready to turn it into ſpecie whenever required. This is exactly the caſe of the Bank of England; the notes of this company are of the ſame value as the current coin, as they may be turned into it whenever the poſſeſſor pleaſes. From hence, as notes are a kind of money, the counterfeiting them is puniſhed with death, as well as coining.

The method of depoſiting money in the Bank, and exchanging it for notes, (though they bear no intereſt), is attended with many conveniencies: as they are not only ſafer than money in the hands of the owner himſelf, but as the notes are more portable, and capable of a much more eaſy conveyance: ſince a bank-note for a very large ſum may be ſent by the poſt, and, to prevent the deſigns of robbers, may, without damage, be cut in two, and ſent at two ſeveral times. Or bills, called Bank-poſt-bills, may be had by application to the Bank, which are particularly calculated to prevent loſſes by robberies, they being made payable to the order of the perſon who takes them out, at a certain number of days after ſight; which gives an opportunity to ſtop bills at the Bank, if they ſhould be loſt, and prevents their being ſo eaſily negociated by ſtrangers as common bank notes are: and whoever conſiders the

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hazard, the expence, and trouble there would be in ſending large ſums of gold and ſilver to and from diſtant places, muſt alſo conſider this as a very ſingular advantage. Beſides which, another benefit attends them; for if they are deſtroyed by time, or other accident, the Bank will, on oath being made of ſuch accident, and ſecurity being given, pay the money to the perſon who was in poſſeſſion of them.

Bank-notes differ from all kinds of ſtock in theſe three particulars; 1. They are always of the ſame value. 2. They are paid off without being transferred; and, 3. They bear no intereſt; while *ſtocks* are a ſhare in a company's fund, bought without any condition of having the principal returned. *India-bonds* indeed (by ſome perſons, though erroneouſly, denominated ſtock) are to be excepted, they being made payable at ſix months notice, either on the ſide of the company, or of the poſſeſſor.

By the word STOCK was originally meant, a particular ſum of money contributed to the eſtabliſhing a fund to enable a company to carry on a certain trade, by meaus of which the perſon became a partner in that trade, and received a ſhare in the profit made thereby, in proportion to the money employed. But this term has been extended farther, though improperly, to ſignify any ſum of money which has been lent to the government, on condition of receiving a certain intereſt till the money is repaid, and which makes a part of the national debt. As the ſecurity both of the government and the public companies is eſteemed preferable to that of any private perſon; as the ſtocks are negociable and may be ſold at any time; and as the intereſt is always punctually paid when due; ſo they are thereby enabled to borrow money on a lower intereſt than what might be obtained from lending it to private perſons, where there is often ſome danger of loſing both principal and intereſt.

But as every capital ſtock or fund of a company is raiſed for a particular purpoſe, and limited by government to a certain ſum, it neceſſarily follows, that when that fund is completed, no ſtock can be bought of the company; though ſhares, already purchaſed, may be transferred from one perſon to another. This being the caſe, there is frequently a great diſproportion between the original value of the ſhares, and what is given for them when transferred; for if there are more buyers than ſellers, a perſon who is indifferent about ſelling, will not part with his ſhare without a conſiderable profit to himſelf: and on the contrary, if many are diſpoſed to ſell, and few inclined to buy, the value of ſuch ſhares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of thoſe who want to turn their ſtock into ſpecie.

Theſe obſervations may ſerve to give our readers ſome idea of the nature of that unjuſtifiable and diſhoneſt practice called *Stock-jobbing*, the myſtery of which conſiſts in nothing more than this: the perſons concerned in that practice, who are denominated Stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or ſell at a certain diſtant time, a certain quantity of ſome particular ſtock; againſt which time they endeavour, according as their contract is, either to raiſe or lower ſuch ſtock, by ſpreading rumours, and fictitious ſtories, in order to induce people either to ſell out in a hurry, and conſequently cheap, if they are to deliver ſtock; or to become unwilling to ſell it, and conſequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive ſtock.

The perſons who make theſe contracts are not in general poſſeſſed of any real ſtock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity they have contracted for, they only pay ſuch a ſum of money as makes the difference between the price the ſtock was at, when they made the contract, and the price it happens to be at when the contract is fulfilled; and

it is no uncommon thing for perſons not worth 100l. to make contracts for the buying or ſelling 100,000l. ſtock. In the language of Exchange Alley, the buyer is in this caſe called the Bull, and the ſeller the Bear; one is for raiſing or toſſing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon the ſtock.

Beſides theſe, there is another ſet of men, who, though of a higher rank, may properly enough come under the ſame denomination. Theſe are the great monied men, who are dealers in ſtock, and contractors with the government whenever any money is to be borrowed. Theſe, indeed, are not fictitious, but really buyers and ſellers of ſtock; but by raiſing falſe hopes, or creating groundleſs fears, by pretending to buy or ſell large quantities of ſtock on a ſudden, by uſing the forementioned ſet of men as their inſtruments, and other like practices, they are enabled to raiſe or fall ſtocks one or two per cent. at pleaſure.

However, the real value of one ſtock above another, on account of its being more profitable to the proprietors, or any thing that will really, or only in imagination, affect the credit of a company, or endanger the government, by which that credit is ſecured, muſt naturally have a conſiderable effect on the ſtocks. Thus, with reſpect to the intereſt of the proprietors, a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company which produces 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, muſt be more valuable than an annuity with government ſecurity, that produces no more than 3l. or 4l. per cent. per annum: and conſequently ſuch ſtock muſt ſell at a higher price than ſuch an annuity. Though it muſt be obſerved, that a ſhare in the ſtock of a trading company producing 5l. or 6l. per cent. per annum, will not fetch ſo much money at market as a government annuity producing the ſame ſum, becauſe the ſecurity of the company is not reckoned equal to that of the government, and the continuance of their paying ſo much per annum is more precarious, as their dividend is, or ought to be, always in proportion to the profits of their trade.

As the ſtocks of the Eaſt India, the Bank, and the South Sea companies, are diſtinguiſhed by different denominations, and are of a very different nature, we ſhall give a ſhort hiſtory of each of them, together with an account of the different ſtocks each is poſſeſſed of, beginning with the Eaſt India company, as the firſt eſtabliſhed.

EAST INDIA COMPANY.] We have already given ſome account of this company, as being the capital commercial object in England. The firſt idea of it was formed in queen Elizabeth's time, but it has ſince admitted of vaſt alterations. Its ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, were originally only 50l. ſterling, and its capital only 369,891l. 5s. but the directors having a conſiderable dividend to make in 1676, it was agreed to join the profits to the capital, by which the ſhares were doubled, and conſequently each became of 100l. value, and the capital 739,782l. 10s. to which capital, if 963,639l. the profits of the company to the year 1685, be added, the whole ſtock will be found to be 1,703,102l. Though the eſtabliſhment of this company was vindicated in the cleareſt manner by Sir Joſiah Child and other able advocates, yet the partiality which the duke of York, afterwards James II. had for his favourite African trade, the loſſes it ſuſtained in wars with the Dutch, and the Revolutions which had happened in the affairs of Indoſtan, damped the ardour of the people to ſupport it; ſo that at the time of the Revolution, when the war broke out with France, it was in a very indifferent ſituation. This was in a great meaſure owing to its having no parliamentary ſanction, whereby its ſtock often ſold for one half leſs than it was really worth; and it was reſolved that a new company ſhould be erected under the authority of parliament.

The oppoſition given to all the public-ſpirited meaſures of king William, by faction, rendered this propoſal a matter of vaſt difficulty; but at laſt, after many parliamentary enquiries, the new ſubſcription prevailed; and the ſubſcribers, upon advancing two millions to the public at 8 per cent. obtained an act of parliament in their favour. The old company, however, retained a vaſt intereſt both in the parliament and nation; and the act being found in ſome reſpects defective, ſo violent a ſtruggle between the two companies aroſe, that in the year 1702, they were united by an indenture tripartite. In the year 1708, the yearly fund of 8 per cent. for two millions, was reduced to 5 per cent. by a loan of 1,200,000l. to the public, without an additional intereſt for which conſideration the company obtained a prolongation of its excluſive privileges; and a new charter was granted to them, under the title of "The United Company of Merchants trading to the Eaſt Indies." Its excluſive right of trade was prolonged from time to time; and a farther ſum was lent by the company in 1730; by which, though the company's privileges were extended for thirty-three years, yet the intereſt of their capital, which then amounted to 3,190,000l. was reduced to three per cent. and called the India three per cent. annuities.

Thoſe annuities are different from the trading ſtock of the company, the proprietors of which, inſtead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different ſhares, a dividend of the profits ariſing from the company's trade: and that dividend riſes or falls according to the circumſtances of the company, either real, or, as is too often the caſe, pretended. A proprietor of ſtock to the amount of 500l. formerly had, but now of 1000l. whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council. Two thouſands pounds is the qualification for a director: the directors are twenty-four in number, including the chairman, and deputy-chairman, who may be re-elected in turn, ſix a year, for four years ſucceſſively. The chairman has a ſalary of 200l. a year, and each of the directors 150l. The meetings, or court of directors, are to be held at leaſt once a week; but are commonly oftner, being ſummoned, as occaſion requires. Out of the body of directors are choſen ſeveral committees, who have the peculiar inſpection of certain branches of the company's buſineſs; as the committee of correſpondence, a committe of treaſury, a houſe committee, a committee of warehouſe, a committee of ſhipping, a committee of accounts, a committee of lawſuits, and a committee to prevent the growth of private trade; who have under them a ſecretary, caſhier, clerks, and warehouſe-keepers.

The amazing territorial acquiſitions of this company, computed to be 287,000 ſquare miles, and containing thirty millions of people, muſt be neceſſarily attended with a proportionable increaſe of trade *; and this joined to the diſſenſions among its managers both at home and abroad, have of late greatly engaged the attention of the legiſlature. A reſtriction has occaſionally been laid on their dividends for a certain time. From the report of the committee in 1773, appointed by parliament on Indian affairs, it appears that the India Company, from the year 1708 to 1750, for the ſpace of forty-ſeven years and a half, divided the ſum of 12,000,000l. or above

* According to liſts laid before the Houſe of Commons, the Company employed 110 ſhips and 8170 men.

Between India and Europe in carrying cargoes to and from. — — —	70 ſhips and	7130 men.
	6 Packets	320
In the country trade, and from China	34 Grabs	720

280,000l. per annum, which, on a capital of 3,190,000l. amounted to above eight and a half per-cent. and that at the laſt mentioned period it appeared, that beſides, the above dividend, the capital ſtock of the company had been increaſed 180,000l. Conſiderable alterations were made in the affairs and conſtitution of the Eaſt India Company by an act paſſed in 1773, intitled, "An "act for eſtabliſhing certain rules and orders, for the future management of "the affairs of the Eaſt India Company, as well in India as in Europe." It was thereby enacted, that the court of directors ſhould, in future, be elected for four years: ſix members annually, but none to hold their ſeats longer than four years. That no perſon ſhould vote at the election of the directors, who had not poſſeſſed their ſtock twelve months. That the ſtock of qualification ſhould, inſtead of 500l. as it had formerly been, be 1000l. That the mayor's court of Calcutta ſhould for the future be confined to ſmall mercantile cauſes, to which only its juriſdiction extended before the territorial acquiſition. That in lieu of this court, thus taken away, a new one be eſtabliſhed, conſiſting of a chief juſtice and three puiſne judges; and that theſe judges be appointed by the crown. That a ſuperiority be given to the preſidency of Bengal, over the other preſidencies in India. That the right of nominating the governor and council of Bengal ſhould be veſted in the crown. The ſalaries of the judges were alſo fixed, at 8000l. to the chief juſtice, and 6000l. a year to each of the other three. The appointments of the governor-general and council were alſo fixed, the firſt at 25,000l. and the four others at 10,000l. each annually. This was certainly a very extraordinary act, and an immenſe power and influence were thereby added to the crown. But no proportional benefit has hitherto reſulted to the company: on the contrary, the new eſtabliſhed court of juſtice has paid ſo little attention to the manners of the inhabitants of India, and to the uſages of that country, as to occaſion the moſt alarming diſcontents among the natives, and great diſſatisfaction even among the company's own ſervants.

In the month of November, 1783, Mr. Fox, then ſecretary of ſtate, brought forward a bill for new regulating the company, under the ſuppoſition of the incompetency of the directors, and the preſent inſolvent ſtate of the company.

The bill paſſed the commons; but, it ſeems by the ſecret influence of the crown, an oppoſition was formed againſt it in the houſe of lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the hands of any men, and which would be ſure to operate againſt the neceſſary power of the crown; and, after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of nineteen peers. The conſequence of this, was the downfall of the miniſtry, and a general revolution of the cabinet.

By the new bill, which paſſed at the cloſe of the ſeſſion 1784, three things were intended.

Firſt, the eſtabliſhing a power of controul, in this kingdom, by which the executive government in India is to be connected with that over the reſt of the empire.

Secondly, the regulating the conduct of the company's ſervants in India, in order to remedy the evils which have prevailed there.

Thirdly, the providing for the puniſhment of thoſe perſons who ſhall, nevertheleſs, continue in the practice of crimes which have brought diſgrace upon the country.

Accordingly, ſix perſons are to be nominated by the king as commiſſioners for the affairs of India, of which one of the ſecretaries of ſtate and the chan-

chancellor of the Exchequer for the time being, ſhall be two, and the preſident is to have the caſting vote, if equally divided. New commiſſioners to be appointed at the pleaſure of the crown. This board is to ſuperintend, direct and controul all acts, operations, and concerns which in any wiſe relate to the civil and military government or revenues of the Britiſh territorial poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies. They are ſworn to execute the ſeveral powers and truſts repoſed in them without favour or affection, prejudice or malice, to any perſon whatever. The court of directors of the company are to deliver to this board all minutes, orders, and reſolutions of themſelves, and of the courts of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and inſtructions propoſed to be ſent abroad, for their approbation or alteration. None to be ſent until after ſuch previous communication on any pretence whatſoever. The directors are ſtill to appoint the ſervants abroad, but the king has a power by his ſecretary of ſtate to recal either of the governors or members of the councils, or any perſon holding any office under the company in their ſettlements, and make void their appointment. By this bill there is given to the governor and council of Bengal, a controul over the other preſidencies in all points which relate to any tranſactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces or revenues; but the council of Bengal are ſubjected to the abſolute direction of the company at home, and in all caſes, except thoſe of immediate danger and neceſſity, reſtrained from acting without orders received from hence.

BANK OF ENGLAND.] The company of the Bank was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th year of king William and queen Mary, by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England; in conſideration of the loan of 1,200,000l. granted to the government; for which the ſubſcribers received almoſt 8 per cent. By this charter, the company are not to borrow under their common ſeal, unleſs by act of parliament; they are not to trade, or ſuffer any perſon in truſt for them to trade in any goods or merchandiſe; but they may deal in bills of exchange, in buying or ſelling bullion, and foreign gold and ſilver coin, &c.

By an act of parliament paſſed in the 8 and 9th year of William III. they were empowered to enlarge their capital ſtock to 2,201,171l. 10s. It was then alſo enacted, that Bank ſtock ſhould be a perſonal and not a real eſtate; that no contract either in word or writing, for buying or ſelling Bank ſtock, ſhould be good in law, unleſs regiſtered in the books of the Bank within ſeven days, and the ſtock transferred in fourteen days, and that it ſhould be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common ſeal of the Bank or any ſealed Bank bill, or any Bank-note, or to alter or eraſe ſuch bills or notes.

By another act, paſſed in the 7th of queen Anne, the company were impowered to augment their capital to 4,402,343l. and they then advanced 400,000l. more to the government; and in 1714 they advanced another loan of 1,500,000l.

In the third year of king George I. the intereſt of their capital ſtock was reduced to 5 per cent. when the Bank agreed to deliver up as many Exchequer bills as amounted to 2,000,000l. and to accept an annuity of 100,000l. and it was declared lawful for the Bank to call from their members, in proportion to their intereſts in their capital ſtock, ſuch ſums of money as in a general court ſhould be found neceſſary. If any member ſhould neglect to pay his ſhare of the monies ſo called for, at the time appointed, by notice in the London Gazette, and fixed upon the Royal Exchange, it ſhould be lawful for the Bank, not only to ſtop the dividend of ſuch a member, and

to

to apply it toward payment of the money in queſtion, but alſo to ſtop the transfers of the ſhare of ſuch defaulter, and to charge him with the intereſt of 5 per cent. per annum for the money ſo omitted to be paid; and if the principal and intereſt ſhould be three months unpaid, the Bank ſhould then have power to ſell ſo much of the ſtock belonging to the defaulter as would ſatisfy the ſame.

After this the Bank reduced the intereſt of the 2,000,000l. lent to the government, from 5 to 4 per cent. and purchaſed ſeveral other annuities, which were afterwards redeemed by the government and the national debt due to the Bank, reduced to 1,600,000l. But in 1742, the company engaged to ſupply the government with 1,600,000l. at three per cent. which is now called the three per cent. annuities; ſo that the government was now indebted to the company 3,200,000l. the one half carrying 4, and the other 3 per cent.

In the year 1746, the company agreed that the ſum of 986,800l. due to them in the Exchequer bills unſatisfied, on the duties for licences to ſell ſpirituous liquors by retail, ſhould be cancelled, and in lieu thereof to accept of an annuity of 39,442l. the intereſt of that ſum at 4 per cent. The company alſo agreed to advance the farther ſum of 1,000,000l. into the Exchequer, upon the credit of the duties ariſing by the malt and land-tax, at 4 per cent. for Exchequer bills to be iſſued for that purpoſe; in conſideration of which the company were enabled to augment their capital with 986,800l. the intereſt of which, as well as that of the other annuities, was reduced to three and a half per cent. till the 25th of December, 1757, and from that time to carry only 3 per cent.

And in order to enable them to circulate the ſaid Exchequer bills, they eſtabliſhed what is now called Bank circulation: the nature of which not being well underſtood, we ſhall take the liberty to be a little more particular in its explanation than we have been with regard to the other ſtocks.

The company of the Bank are obliged to keep caſh ſufficient to anſwer not only the common, but alſo any extraordinary demand that may be made upon them; and whatever money they have by them over and above the ſum ſuppoſed neceſſary for theſe purpoſes, they employ in what may be called the trade of the company; that is to ſay, in diſcounting bills of exchange, in buying of gold and ſilver, and in government ſecurities, &c. But when the Bank entered into the above-mentioned contract, as they did not keep unemployed a larger ſum of money than what they deemed neceſſary to anſwer their ordinary and extraordinary demands, they could not conveniently take out of their current caſh ſo large a ſum as a million, with which they were obliged to furniſh the government, without either leſſening that ſum they employed in diſcounting, buying gold and ſilver, &c. (which would have been very diſadvantageous to them), or inventing ſome method that ſhould anſwer all the purpoſes of keeping the million in caſh. The method which they choſe, and which fully anſwers their end, was as follows:

They opened a ſubſcription, which they renew annually, for a million of money; wherein the ſubſcribers advance 10 per cent. and enter into a contract to pay the remainder, or any part thereof, whenever the Bank ſhall call upon them, under the penalty of forfeiting the 10 per cent. ſo advanced; in conſideration of which, the Bank pays the ſubſcribers 4 per cent. intereſt for the money paid in, and one fourth per cent. for the whole ſum they agree to furniſh; and in caſe a call ſhould be upon them for the whole, or any part

part thereof, the Bank farther agrees to pay them at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum for ſuch ſum till they repay it, which they are under an obligation to do at the end of the year. By this means the Bank obtains all the purpoſes of keeping a million of money by them; and though the ſubſcribers, if no call is made upon them, (which is in general the caſe), receive ſix and a half per cent. for the money they advance, yet the company gains the ſum of 23,500l. per annum by the contract; as will appear by the following account:

The Bank receives from the government for the advance of a million — —	£.	30,000
The Bank pays to the ſubſcribers who advance 100,000l. and engage to pay (when called for) 900,000l. more		6,500
The clear gain to the Bank therefore is ——		23,500

This is the ſtate of the caſe, provided the company ſhould make no call on the ſubſcribers, which they will be very unwilling to do, becauſe it would not only leſſen their profit, but affect the public credit in general.

Bank ſtock may not improperly be called a trading ſtock, ſince with this they deal very largely in foreign gold and ſilver, in diſcounting bills of exchange *, &c. Beſides which, they are allowed by the government very conſiderable ſums annually for the management of the annuities paid at their office. All which advantages render a ſhare in their ſtock very valuable; though it is not equal in value to the Eaſt India ſtock. The company make dividends of the profits half yearly, of which notice is publicly given; when thoſe who have occaſion for their money, may readily receive it: but private perſons, if they judge convenient, are permitted to continue their funds, and to have their intereſt added to the principal †.

This company is under the direction of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court, in the ſame manner as in the Eaſt India company. Thirteen, or more, compoſe a court of directors for managing the affairs of the company.

The officers and ſervants of this company are very numerous.

SOUTH SEA COMPANY.] During the long war with France in the reign of queen Anne, the payment of the ſailors of the royal navy being neglected, and they receiving tickets, inſtead of money, were frequently obliged, by their neceſſities, to ſell theſe tickets to avaricious men at a diſcount of 40l. and ſometimes 50l. per cent. By this, and other means, the debts of the nation unprovided for by parliament, and which amounted to 9,471,321l. fell into the hands of theſe uſurers. On which Mr Harley, at that time chancellor of the Exchequer, and afterwards earl of Oxford, propoſed a ſcheme to allow the proprietors of theſe debts and deficiencies 6l. per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them, in order to their carrying on a trade to the South Sea; and they were accordingly incorporated under the title of, "the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain, trading to the South Seas, and other parts of America, and for encouraging the fiſhery, &c."

Though this company ſeemed formed for the ſake of commerce, it is certain that the miniſtry never thought ſeriouſly, during the courſe of the war,

* At 4 per cent till the year 1773, when it was advanced to five.

† The Bank company is ſuppoſed now to have twelve millions of circulating paper.

about making any ſettlement on the coaſt of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Aſſiento, in purſuance of the treaty of Utrecht, for furniſhing the Spaniards with Negroes, of which this company was deprived upon receiving 100,000l. in lieu of all claims upon Spain, by a convention between the courts of Great Britain and Spain, ſoon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

Some other ſums were lent to the government in the reign of queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third of George I. the intereſt of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent. and they advanced two millions more to the government at the ſame intereſt. By the ſtatute of the 6th of George I. it was declared, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in conſideration of which, the company were empowered to augment their capital according to the ſums they ſhould diſcharge: and for enabling the company to raiſe ſuch ſums for purchaſing annuities, exchanging for ready money new Exchequer bills, carrying on their trade, &c. the company might, by ſuch means as they ſhould think proper, raiſe ſuch ſums of money as in a general court of the company ſhould be judged neceſſary. The company were alſo empowered to raiſe money on the contracts, bonds, or obligations under their common ſeal, on the credit of their public ſtock. But if the ſub-governor, deputy-governor, or other members of the company, ſhould purchaſe lands or revenues of the crown, upon account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any branch of the revenue, other than ſuch part only on which a credit of loan was granted by parliament, ſuch ſub-governor, or other member of the company, ſhould forfeit treble the value of the money ſo lent.

The fatal South Sea ſcheme, tranſacted in the year 1720, was executed upon the laſt mentioned ſtatute. The company had at firſt ſet out with good ſucceſs, and the value of their ſtock, for the firſt five years, had riſen faſter than that of any other company; and his majeſty, after purchaſing 10,000l. ſtock, had condeſcended to be their governor. Things were in this ſituation when, taking advantage of the above ſtatute, the South-Sea bubble was projected. The pretended deſign of which was, to raiſe a fund for carrying on trade to the South Sea, and purchaſing annuities, &c. paid to the other companies: and propoſals were printed and diſtributed, ſhewing the advantages of the deſign, and inviting perſons into it. The ſum neceſſary for carrying it on, together with the profits that were to ariſe from it, were divided into a certain number of ſhares, or ſubſcriptions, to be purchaſed by perſons diſpoſed to adventure therein. And the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends; and actually declared, that every 100l. original ſtock would yield 50l. per annum: which occaſioned ſo great a riſe of their ſtock, that a ſhare of 100l. was ſold for 800l. This was in the month of July; but before the end of September it fell to 150l. by which multitudes were ruined, and ſuch a ſcene of diſtreſs occaſioned, as is ſcarcely to be conceived, But the conſequence of this infamous ſcheme are too well known; moſt of the directors were ſeverely fined, to the loſs of nearly all their property; ſome of whom had no hand in the deception, nor gained a farthing by it; but it was agreed they ought to have oppoſed and prevented it.

By a ſtatute of the 6th of George II. it was enacted, that from and after the 24th of June, 1733, the capital ſtock of this company, which amounted to 14,631,103l. 8s. 1d. and the ſhares of the reſpective proprietors ſhould be divided into four equal parts; three-fourths of which ſhould be converted into

into a joint ſtock, attended with annuities after the rate of 4 per cent. until redemption by parliament, and ſhould be called the New South Sea annuities, and the other fourth part ſhould remain in the company as a trading capital ſtock attended with the reſidue of the annuities or funds payable at the Exchequer to the company for their whole capital, till redemption; and attended with the ſame ſums always allowed for the charge of management, with all effects, profits of trade, debts, privileges, and advantages belonging to the South Sea company. That the accountant of the company ſhould, twice every year, at Chriſtmas and midſummer, or within one month after, ſtate an account of the company's affairs, which ſhould be laid before the next general court, in order to their declaring a dividend; and all dividends ſhould be made out of the clear profits, and ſhould not exceed what the company might reaſonably divide without incurring any farther debt; provided that the company ſhould not at any time divide more than 4 per cent. per annum until their debts were diſcharged; and the South Sea company, and their trading ſtock, ſhould, excluſively from the new joint ſtock of annuities, be liable to all debts and incumbrances of the company; aod that the company ſhould cauſe to be kept, within the city of London, an office and books, in which all transfers of the new annuities ſhould be entered and ſigned by the party making ſuch transfer, or his attorney; and the perſon to whom ſuch transfer ſhould be made, or his attorney, ſhould underwrite his acceptance; and no other method of transferring the annuities ſhould be good in law.

The annuities of this company, as well as the other, are now reduced to 3l. per cent.

This company is under the direction of a governor, ſub-governor, deputy governor, and twenty-one directors; but no perſon is qualified to be governor, his majeſty excepted, unleſs ſuch governor has, in his own name and right, 5000l. in the trading ſtock; the ſub-governor is to have 4000l. the deputy-governor 3000l. and a director 2000l. in the ſame ſtock. In every general court, every member having in his own name and right 500l. in trading ſtock, has one vote; if 2000l. two votes; if 3000l. three votes, and if 5000l. four votes.

The Eaſt India company, the Bank of England, and the South Sea company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the million Bank, whoſe capital is only one million, conſtituted to purchaſe the reverſion of the long Exchequer orders.

The intereſt of all the debts owing by the government was lately reduced to 3 per cent. excepting only the annuities for the year 1758, the life annuities, and the Exchequer orders; but the South Sea company ſtill continues to divide 4 per cent. on their preſent capital ſtock; which they are enabled to do from the profits they make on the ſums allowed to them for management of the annuities paid at their office, and from the intereſt of annuities which are not claimed by the proprietors.

As the prices of the different ſtocks are continually fluctuating above and below *par*; ſo when a perſon, who is not acquainted with tranſactions of that nature, reads in the papers the prices of ſtocks, where Bank ſtock is marked perhaps 127, India ditto, 134 a 134½, South Sea ditto 97½, &c. he is to underſtand that 100l. of thoſe reſpective ſtocks ſell at ſuch a time for thoſe ſeveral ſums.

In comparing the prices of the different ſtocks one with another, it muſt be remembered, that the intereſt due on them from the time of the laſt payment is taken into the current price, and the ſeller never receives any ſeparate

conſideration for it, except in the caſe of India bonds, where the intereſt due is calculated to the day of the ſale, and paid by the purchaſer, over and above the premium agreed for. But as the intereſt on the different ſtocks is paid at different times, this, if not rightly underſtood, would lead a perſon, not well acquainted with them, into conſiderable miſtakes in his computation of their value; ſome always having a quarter's intereſt due to them more than others, which makes an appearance of a conſiderable difference in the price, when in reality there is none at all; thus for inſtance, Old South Sea annuities ſell for 85¼l. or 85l. 10s. while New South Sea annuities fetch only 84¼l. or 84l. 15s though each of them produce the annual ſum of 3 per cent.; but the old annuities have a quarter's intereſt more due on them than the new annuities, which amounts to 15s. the exact difference. There is, however, one or two cauſes that will always make one ſpecies of annuities ſell ſomewhat lower than another, though of the ſame real value; one of which is, the annuities making but a ſmall capital, and there not being, for that reaſon, ſo many people at all times ready to buy into it, as into others, where the quantity is larger; becauſe it is apprehended that whenever the government pays off the national debt, they will begin with that particular ſpecies of annuity, the capital of which is the ſmalleſt.

While the annuities and intereſt for money advanced, is regularly paid, and the principal inſured by both prince and people (a ſecurity not to be had in other nations), foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be intereſted in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandiſe, and Great Britain can never want caſh to carry her ſchemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is eſtabliſhed on the intereſt of both prince and people, which is the ſtrongeſt ſecurity: for however lovely and engaging honeſty may be in other ſubjects, intereſt in money matters will always obtain confidence: becauſe many people pay great regard to their intereſt, who have but little veneration for virtue.

CONSTITUTION AND LAWS.] Tacitus, in deſcribing ſuch a conſtitution as that of England, ſeems to think, that however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved this miſtake; for, by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the Engliſh conſtitution has exiſted for above 500 years. It muſt at the ſame time be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendements, and ſome interruptions; but its principles are the ſame with thoſe deſcribed by the above-mentioned hiſtorian, as belonging to the Germans, and the other northern anceſtors of the Engliſh nation, and which are very improperly blended under the name of Gothic. On the firſt invaſion of England by the Saxons, who came from Germany and the neighbouring countries, their laws and manners were pretty much the ſame as thoſe mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merits of his followers, and their abilities to ſerve him, were diſtributed among them: and the whole was conſidered as the common property which they were to unite in defending againſt all invaders. Freſh adventurers coming over, under ſeparate leaders, the old inhabitants were driven into Wales; and thoſe leaders, at laſt, aſſumed the titles of kings over the ſeveral diſtricts they had conquered. This change of appellation made them more reſpectable among the Britons, and their neighbours the Scots and Picts, but did not increaſe their power, the operations of which continued to be confined to military affairs.

All

All civil matters were propoſed in a general aſſembly of the chief officers and the people, till, by degrees, ſheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that maſterpiece of judicial policy the ſubdiviſion of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the ſubdiviſion of hundreds into tythings, names that ſtill ſubſiſt in England; and overſeers were choſen to direct them for the good of the whole. The ſheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county, and to him, after the introduction of Chriſtianity, was added the biſhop. In proceſs of time, as buſineſs multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but by the earlieſt records, it appears that all civil matters were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the diſpute lay; and here we have the original of Engliſh juries. It is certain that they were in uſe among the earlieſt Saxon colonies, their inſtitution being aſcribed by biſhop Nicholſon to Woden himſelf, their great legiſlator and captain. Hence we find traces of juries in the laws of all thoſe nations which adopted the feodal ſyſtem, as in Germany, France, and Italy; who had all of them a tribunal compoſed of 12 good men and true, equals or peers of the party litigant. In England we find actual mention made of them ſo early as the laws of king Ethelred, and that not as a new invention.

Before the introduction of Chriſtianity, we know not whether the Saxons admitted of juries in criminal matters; but we are certain that there was no action ſo criminal as not to be compenſated for by money *. A mulct was impoſed in proportion to the guilt, even if it was the murder of the king, upon the malefactor, and by paying it he purchaſed his pardon. Thoſe barbarous uſages ſeem to have ceaſed ſoon after the Saxons were converted to Chriſtianity; and caſes of felony and murder were then tried, even in the king's court, by a jury.

Royalty, among the Saxons, was not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, hereditary, though, in fact, it came to be rendered ſo through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and for preſerving the regularity of government. Even eſtates and honours were not ſtrictly hereditary, till they were made ſo by William the Norman.

In many reſpects, the firſt princes of the Norman line afterwards did all they could to efface from the minds of the people the remembrance of the Saxon conſtitution; but the attempt was to no purpoſe. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaint againſt the crown, and, after much war and bloodſhed, the famous charter of Engliſh liberties, ſo well known by the name of Magna Charta, was forcibly, in a manner, obtained from king John, and confirmed by his ſon Henry III. who ſucceeded to the crown in 1216. It does not appear, that till this reign, and after a great deal of blood had been ſpilt, the commons of England were repreſented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; ſo entirely had the barons engroſſed to themſelves the diſpoſal of property.

The preciſe year when the houſe of commons was formed is not known: but we are certain there was one in the reign of Henry III. though we ſhall not enter into any diſputes about their ſpecific powers. We therefore now proceed to deſcribe the CONSTITUTION as it ſtands at preſent.

In all ſtates there is an abſolute ſupreme power, to which the right of legiſlation belongs; and which, by the ſingular conſtitution of theſe kingdoms, is here veſted in the king, lords, and commons.

* Called by the Saxons GUELT, and thence the word guilty, in criminal trials.

OF THE KING.] The ſupreme executive power of Great Britain, and Ireland, is veſted by our conſtitution in a ſingle perſon, king or queen; for it is indifferent to which ſex the crown deſcends: the perſon intitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately entruſted with all the enſigns, rights, and prerogatives of ſovereign power.

The grand fundamental maxim upon which the right of ſucceſſion to the throne of theſe kingdoms depends, is, "that the crown, by common law and conſtitutional cuſtom, is hereditary, and this in a manner peculiar to itſelf: but that the right of inheritance may, from time to time, be changed, or limited, by act of parliament: under which limitations the crown ſtill continues hereditary."

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the following royal ſucceſſion, by its being transferred from the houſe of Tudor to that of Stuart, it may be proper to inform him, that on the death of queen Elizabeth, without iſſue, it became neceſſary to recur to the other iſſue of her grandfather Henry VII. by Elizabeth of York his queen; whoſe eldeſt daughter Margaret, having married James IV. king of Scotland, king James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the Firſt, was the lineal deſcendant from that alliance. So that in his perſon, as clearly as in Henry VIII. centered all the claims of the different competitors, from the Norman invaſion downward; he being indiſputably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is ſtill more remarkable, in his perſon alſo centred the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been ſuſpended from the Norman invaſion till his acceſſion. For Margaret, the ſiſter of Edgar Atheling, the daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of king Edmund Ironſide, was the perſon in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings, ſuppoſing it not aboliſhed by the Conqueſt, reſided. She married Malcolm III. king of Scotland; and Henry II. by a deſcent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the reſtorer of the Saxon line. But it muſt be remembered, that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had ſons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of this royal family king James I. was the direct and lineal deſcendant; and therefore united in his perſon every poſſible claim by hereditary right, to the Engliſh as well as Scottiſh throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the Revolution in 1688, the convention of eſtates, or repreſentative body of the nation, declared that the miſconduct of king James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was thereby vacant.

In conſequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Proteſtant heirs of the blood royal of king Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of ſucceſſion; with a temporary exception, or preference to the perſon of king William III.

On the impending failure of the Proteſtant line of king Charles I. (whereby the throne might again have become vacant) the king and parliament extended the ſettlement of the crown to the Proteſtant line of king James I. viz. to the princeſs Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Proteſtants; and ſhe is now the common ſtock, from whom the heirs of the crown muſt deſcend *.

A chronology of Engliſh Kings, ſince the time that this country became united under one monarchy, in the perſon of Egbert, who ſubdued the other princes of the Saxon heptarchy, and gave the name of Angle-land to this part of the iſland, the Saxons and

The true ground and principle, upon which the Revolution proceeded, was entirely a new caſe in politics, which had never before happened in our hiſtory; the abdication of the reigning monarch, and the vacancy of the throne thereupon. It was not a defeaſance of the right of the ſucceſſion, and a new limitation of the crown by the king and both houſes of parliament; it was the act of the nation alone, upon a conviction that there was no king in being. For in a full aſſembly of the lords and commons, met in convention upon the ſuppoſition of this vacancy, both houſes came to this reſolution; "that king James II. having endeavoured to ſubvert the conſtitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and by the advice of Jeſuits, and other wicked perſons, having violated the fundamental laws, and having withdrawn himſelf out of this kingdom, has abdicated the government, and that the throne is thereby vacant." Thus ended at once, by this ſudden and unexpected revolution, the old line of ſucceſſion: which from the Norman invaſion had laſted above 600 years, and from the union of the Saxon heptarchy in king Egbert almoſt 900.

the Angles having, about four centuries before, invaded and ſubdued the ancient Britons, whom they drove into Wales and Cornwall.

Began to reign.		
800	Egbert	Saxon Princes.
818	Ethelwulf	
857	Ethelbald	
860	Ethelbert	
866	Ethelred	
871	Alfred the great	
901	Edward the Elder	
925	Athelſtan	
941	Edmund	
946	Edred	
955	Edwy	
959	Edgar	
975	Edward the Martyr	
978	Ethelred II.	
1016	Edmund II. or Ironſide	
1017	Canute king of Denmark	Daniſh.
1035	Harold	
1039	Hardicanute	
1041	Edward the Confeſſor	Saxon.
1065	Harold	
1066.	William I.	(Commonly called the Conqueror) duke of Normandy, a province facing the ſouth of England, now annexed to the French monarchy.
1087	William II.	Sons of the Conqueror.
1100	Henry I.	
1135	Stephen, grandſon to the Conqueror, by his fourth daughter Adela.	
1154	Henry II.	(Plantagenet) grandſon of Henry I. by his daughter the empreſs Maud and her ſecond huſband Geoffry Plantagenet.
1189	Richard I.	ſons of Henry II.
1199	John	
1216	Henry III. ſon of John.	
1272	Edward I. ſon of Henry III.	
1307	Edward II. ſon of Edward I.	
1327	Edward III. ſon of Edward II.	
1377	Richard II. grandſon of Edward III. by his eldeſt ſon the Black Prince.	
1399	Henry IV.	ſon to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaſter, 4th ſon to Edward III. — Houſe of Lancaſter.
1413	Henty V. ſon of Henry IV.	
1422	Henry VI. ſon to Henry V.	

Though

Though in ſome points the revolution was not ſo perfect as might have been wiſhed, yet from thence a new æra commenced, in which the bounds of prerogative and liberty have been better defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and underſtood, and the rights of the ſubject more explicitly guarded by legal proviſions, than in any other period of the Engliſh hiſtory. In particular, it is worthy of obſervation, that the convention, in this their judgement, avoided with great wiſdom the extremes into which the viſionary theories of ſome zealous republicans would have led them. They held that this miſconduct of king James amounted to an endeavour to ſubvert the conſtitution, and not to an actual ſubverſion, or total diſſolution of the government. They, therefore, very prudently voted it to amount to no more than an abdication of the government, and a conſequent vacancy of the throne; whereby the government was allowed to ſubſiſt, though the executive magiſtrate was gone: and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king. And thus the conſtitution was kept entire; which, upon every ſound principle of government muſt otherwiſe have fallen to pieces, had ſo principal and conſtituent a part as the royal authority been aboliſhed, or even ſuſpended.

Hence it is eaſy to collect, that the title to the crown is at preſent hereditary, though not quite ſo abſolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common ſtock or anceſtor, from whom the deſcent muſt be derived, is alſo different. Formerly the common ſtock was king Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in James I.'s time, the two common ſtocks united, and ſo continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688: now it is the princeſs Sophia, in whom the inheritance was veſted by the new king and parliament. Formerly the deſcent was abſolute, and the crown went to the next heir without any

1461 Edward IV. deſcended from Edward III. by Lionel his 3d ſon
1483 Edward V. ſon of Edward IV.
1483 Richard III. brother to Edward IV.
} Houſe of York.

1485 Henry VII. (Tudor) ſon of the counteſs of Richmond, of the houſe of Lancaſter.
1509 Henry VIII. ſon of Henry VII.
1547 Edward VI. ſon of Henry VIII.
1553 Mary
1558 Elizabeth } Daughters of Henry VIII.
} Houſe of Tudor, in whom were uniunited the houſes of Lancaſter and York, by Henry VII's marriage with Elizabeth daughter of Edward IV.

1603 James I. Great Grandſon of James IV king of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of Henry VII. and firſt of the Stuart family in England.
1625 Charles I. ſon of James I.
Commonwealth and protectorate of Cromwell,
1649 Charles II. } ſons of Charles I.
1685 James II. }
1688. William III. and ſon-in law of James II. and Mary } Daughters of James II, in whom ended the Proteſtant line of Charles I. for James II. upon his abdicating the throne, carried with him his ſuppoſed infant ſon (the late Pretender), who was excluded by act of parliament, which ſettled the ſucceſſion in the next Proteſtant heirs of James I. The ſurviving iſſue of James at the time of his death, were a ſon and a daughter, viz. Charles, who ſucceeded him, and the princeſs Elizabeth, who married the elector Palatine, who took the title of king of Bohemia and left a daughter, the princeſs Sophia, who married the duke of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, by whom ſhe had George, elector of Hanover, who aſcended the throne, by act of parliament expreſly made in favour of his mother.
1701 Anne

1714 George I.
1727 George II. ſon of George I.
1760 George III. grandſon of George II.
} Houſe of Hanover.

reſtriction; but now, upon the new ſettlement, the inheritance is conditional; being limited to ſuch heirs only, of the body of the princeſs Sophia, as are proteſtant members of the church of England, and are married to none but Proteſtants.

And in this due medium conſiſts the true conſtitutional notion of the right of ſucceſſion to the imperial crown of theſe kingdoms. The extremes between which it ſteers, have been thought each of them to be deſtructive of thoſe ends for which ſocieties were formed, and are kept on foot. Where the magiſtrate, upon every ſucceſſion, is elected by the people, and may by the expreſs proviſion of the laws be depoſed (if not puniſhed) by his ſubjects, this may ſound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough when delineated on paper; but in practice will be ever found extremely difficult. And, on the other hand divine indefeaſible hereditary right as our laws have created and veſted in the royal ſtock, is cloſely interwoven with thoſe liberties, which are equally the inheritance of the ſubject, this union will form a conſtitution in theory the moſt beautiful of any, in practice the moſt approved, and, in all probability will prove in duration the moſt permanent. This conſtitution it is the duty of every Briton to underſtand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expreſſed in his oath at the coronation, which is adminiſtered by one of the archbiſhops or biſhops of the realm, in the preſence of all the people; who on their parts, do reciprocally take the oath of allegiance to the crown. This coronation oath is conceived in the following terms:

"*The archbiſhop, or biſhop, ſhall ſay.* Will you ſolemnly promiſe and ſwear, to govern the people of this kingdom of England, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the ſtatutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and cuſtoms of the ſame?—*The king or queen ſhall ſay,* I ſolemnly promiſe ſo to do.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop.* Will you to your power cauſe law and juſtice, in mercy, to be executed in all your judgments?—*King or queen.* I will.

"*Archbiſhop or biſhop.* Will you to the utmoſt of your power maintain the laws of God, the true profeſſion of the goſpel, and the proteſtant reformed religion eſtabliſhed by the law? and will you preſerve unto the biſhops and clergy of this realm, and to the churches committed to their charge, all ſuch rights and privileges as by the law, do, or ſhall appertain unto them, or any of them.—All this I promiſe to do.

"*After this the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy goſpels, ſhall ſay.* The things which I have here before promiſed. I will perform and keep; So help me God. *And then kiſs the book.*"

This is the form of the coronation oath, as it is now preſcribed by our laws: and we may obſerve, that, in the king's part, in this original contract, are expreſſed all the duties that a monarch can owe to his people; viz. to govern according to law; to execute judgment in mercy; and to maintain the eſtabliſhed religion. With reſpect to the latter of theſe three branches we may farther remark, that by the act of union, 5 Ann. c. 8. two preceding ſtatutes are recited and confirmed; the one of the parliament of Scotland, the other of the parliament of England, which enact; the former, that every king at his ſucceſſion ſhall take and ſubſcribe an oath, to preſerve the Proteſtant religion, and Preſbyterian church government in Scotland: the latter, that, at his coronation, he ſhall take and ſubſcribe a ſimilar oath, to preſerve the ſettlement of the church of England within England, Ireland, Wales, and Berwick, and the territories thereunto belonging.

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The king of Great Britain, notwithſtanding the limitations of the power of the crown, already mentioned, is the greateſt monarch reigning over a free people. His perſon is ſacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treaſon ſo much as to imagine or intend his death; neither can he, in himſelf, be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cogniſance of his actions, but only in the perſons of his miniſters, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prærogative beyond the ancient limits or the boundaries preſcribed by the conſtitution; he can make no new laws, nor raiſe any new taxes, nor act in oppoſition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace; ſend and receive ambaſſadors; make treaties of league and commerce; levy armies, and fit out fleets, for the defence of his kingdom, the annoyance of his enemies, or the ſuppreſſion of rebellions; grant commiſſions to his officers, both by ſea and land, or revoke them at pleaſure; diſpoſe of all magazines, caſtles &c. ſummon the parliament to meet, and, when met, adjourn, prorogue, or diſſolve it at pleaſure; refuſe his aſſent to any bill, though it had paſſed both houſes; which, conſequently, by ſuch a refuſal, has no more force than if it had never been moved; but this is a prerogative that the kings of England have very ſeldom ventured to exerciſe. He poſſeſſeth the right of chuſing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of ſtate, of the houſhold, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain of honour, from whom all degrees of nobility and knighthood are derived. Such is the dignity and power of a king of Great Britain.

Of the parliament.] Parliaments, or general councils, in ſome ſhape, are, as has been before obſerved of as high antiquity as the Saxon government in this iſland, and coeval with the kingdom itſelf. Blackſtone, in his valuable Commentaries, ſays, "it is generally agreed, that in the main the conſtitution of parliament as it now ſtands, was marked out ſo long ago as the 17th of king John, A. D. 1215, in the Great Charter granted by that prince; wherein he promiſes to ſummon all archbiſhops, biſhops, abbots, lords, and greater barons perſonally; and all other tenants in chief, under the crown, by the ſheriff and bailiffs to meet at a certain place, with forty days notice, to aſſeſs aids and ſcutages when neceſſary. And this conſtitution had ſubſiſted, in fact, at leaſt from the year 1266, to 49 Henry III. there being ſtill extant writs of that date to ſummon knights, citizens, and burgeſſes to parliament."

The parliament is aſſembled by the king's writs, and its ſitting muſt not be intermitted above three years. Its conſtituent parts are, the king ſitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three eſtates of the realm; the lords ſpiritual, the lords temporal (who ſit together with the king in one houſe), and the commons, who ſit by themſelves in another. The king and theſe three eſtates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is ſaid to be *caput, principium, et finis*. For upon their coming together the king meets them, either in perſon, or by repreſentation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alſo has alone the power of diſſolving them.

It is highly neceſſary for preſerving the balance of the conſtitution, that the executive power ſhould be a branch, though not the whole, of the legiſlature. The crown cannot begin of itſelf any alterations in the preſent eſtabliſhed law; but it may approve or diſapprove of the alterations ſuggeſted and conſented to by the two houſes. The legiſlative therefore cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own conſent: ſince the law muſt perpetually ſtand as it now does, unleſs all the powers

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will agree to alter it. And herein indeed conſiſts the true excellence of the Engliſh government, were it maintained in its purity, that all the parts of it form a mutual check upon each other. In the legiſlature, the people are a check upon the nobility, and the nobility a check upon the people; by the mutual privilege of rejecting what the other has reſolved: while the king is a check upon both, which preſerves the executive power from encroachments.

The lords ſpiritual conſiſt of two archbiſhops and twenty-four biſhops. The lords temporal conſiſt of all the peers of the realm, the biſhops not being in ſtrictneſs held to be ſuch, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers ſit by deſcent, as do all ancient peers; ſome by creation, as do all the new-made ones: others, ſince the union with Scotland, by election, which is the caſe of the ſixteen peers, who repreſent the body of the Scots nobility. The number of peers is indefinite, and may be increaſed at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly neceſſary in our mixed and compounded conſtitution, in order to ſupport the rights of both the crown and the people; by forming a barrier to withſtand the encroachments of both. It creates and preſerves that gradual ſcale of dignity, which proceeds from the peaſant to the prince; riſing like a pyramid from a broad foundation, and diminiſhing to a point as it riſes. The nobility therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to ſupport the throne; and if that falls, they muſt alſo be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when in the laſt century the commons had determined to extirpate monarchy, they alſo voted the houſe of lords to be uſeleſs and dangerous.

The commons conſiſt of all ſuch men of any property in the kingdom, as have not ſeats in the houſe of lords; every one of which has a voice in parliament, either perſonally, or by his repreſentatives *. In a free ſtate, every man who is ſuppoſed a free agent, ought to be in ſome meaſure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at leaſt of the legiſlative power ſhould reſide in the whole body of the people. In ſo large a ſtate as ours, it is very wiſely contrived, that the people ſhould do that by their repreſentatives, which it is impracticable to perform in perſon; repreſentatives choſen by a number of minute and ſeparate diſtricts, wherein all the voters are, or eaſily may be, diſtinguiſhed. The counties are therefore repreſented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands: the cities and boroughs are repreſented by citizens and burgeſſes, choſen by the mercantile part, or ſuppoſed trading intereſt of the nation †. The number of Engliſh repreſentatives is 513, and of Scots 45; in all 558. And every member, though choſen by one particular diſ-

* This muſt be underſtood with ſome limitation. Thoſe who are poſſeſſed of landeſtates, though to the value of only 40s per annum, have a right to vote for members of parliament; as have moſt of the members of corporations, boroughs, &c. But there are very large trading towns, and populous places, which ſend no members to parliament; and of thoſe towns which do ſend members, great numbers of the inhabitants have no votes. Many thouſand perſons of great perſonal property, have, therefore, no repreſentatives. Indeed the inequality and defectiveneſs of the repreſentation, has been juſtly conſidered as one of the greateſt imperfections in the Engliſh conſtitution. The duration of parliaments being extended to ſeven years, has alſo been viewed in the ſame light.

† Copy of the bribery oath, which is adminiſtered to every perſon before they poll.

"I' do ſwear (or being one of the people called Quakers, do ſolemnly affirm) I have not received or had, by myſelf, or any perſon whatſoever in truſt for me, or for my uſe and benefit, directly or indirectly, any ſum or ſums of money, office, place or employment, gift or reward or any promiſe or ſecurity for any money, office, or employment, or gift, in order to give my vote at this election: and that I have not before been polled at this election. So help me God."

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trict, when elected and returned, ſerves for the whole realm. For the end of his coming thither is not particular, but general; not merely to ſerve his conſtituents, but alſo the commonwealth, and to adviſe his majeſty, as appears from the writ of ſummons.

Theſe are the conſtituent parts of a parliament, the king, the lords ſpiritual and temporal, and the commons. Parts, of which each is ſo neceſſary, that the conſent of all three is required to make any new law that ſhould bind the ſubject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no ſtatute; and to it no regard is due, unleſs in matters relating to their own privileges.

The power and juriſdiction of parliament, ſays Edward Coke, is ſo tranſcendent and abſolute, that it cannot be confined, either for cauſes or perſons, within any bounds. It hath ſovereign and uncontrollable authority in making, confirming, enlarging, reſtraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding of laws, concerning matters of all poſſible denominations, eccleſiaſtical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal: this being the place where that abſolute deſpotic power, which muſt in all governments reſide ſomewhere, is entruſted by the conſtitution of theſe kingdoms. All miſchiefs and grievances, operations and remedies, that tranſcend the ordinary courſe of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new model the ſucceſſion to the crown: as was done in the reign of Henry VIII. and William III. It can alter and eſtabliſh the religion of the land; as was done in a variety of inſtances in the reign of Henry VIII. and his three children, Edward VI. Mary, and Elizabeth. It can change and create afreſh even the conſtitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themſelves; as was done by the act of union, and the ſeveral ſtatutes for triennial and ſeptennial elections. It can, in ſhort, do every thing that is not naturally impoſſible; and therefore ſome have not ſcrupled to call its power by a figure rather too bold, the *omnipotence of parliament*. But then their power, however great, was given them in truſt, and therefore ought to be employed according to the rules of juſtice, and for the promotion of the general welfare of the people. And it is a matter eſſential to the liberties of the kingdom, that ſuch members be delegated to this important truſt, as are moſt eminent for their probity, their fortitude, and their knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord treaſurer Burleigh, "that England could never be ruined but by a parliament;" and, as Sir Mathew Hale obſerves, this being the higheſt and greateſt court, over which none other can have juriſdiction in the kingdom, if by any means a miſgovernment ſhould any way fall upon it, the ſubjects of this kingdom are left without all manner of legal remedy.

In order to prevent the miſchiefs that might ariſe, by placing this extenſive authority in hands that are either incapable, or elſe improper, to manage it, it is provided, that no one ſhall ſit or vote in either houſe of parliament, unleſs he be twenty-one years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it is enacted, that no member ſhall vote or ſit in either houſe, till he hath, in the preſence of the houſe, taken the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy, and abjuration; and ſubſcribed and repeated the declaration againſt tranſubſtantiation, the invocation of ſaints, and the ſacrifice of the maſs. To prevent dangers that may ariſe to the kingdom from foreign attachments, connexions, or dependencies, it is enacted, that no alien, born out of the dominions of the crown of Great Britain, even though he be naturalized, ſhall be capable of being a member of either houſe of parliament.

Some of the moſt important privileges of the members of either houſe are pri-

privilege of ſpeech, of perſon, of their domeſtics, and their lands and goods. As to the firſt, privilege of ſpeech, it is declared by the ſtatute of 1. W. & M. ſt. 2. c. 2. as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of ſpeech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or queſtioned in any court or place out of parliament." And this freedom of ſpeech is particularly demanded of the king in perſon, by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, at the opening of every new parliament. So are the other privileges, of perſon, ſervants, lands, and goods. This includes not only privilege from illegal violence, but alſo from legal arreſts, and ſeizures by proceſs from the courts of law. To aſſault by violence a member of either houſe, or his menial ſervants, is a high contempt of parliament, and there puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity. Neither can any member of either houſe be arreſted and taken into cuſtody, nor ſerved with any proceſs of the courts of law; nor can his menial ſervants be arreſted; nor can any entry be made on his lands; nor can his goods be diſtrained or ſeized, without a breach of the privilege of parliament *.

The houſe of lords have a right to be attended, and conſtantly are, by the judges of the court of king's bench and common pleas, and ſuch of the barons of the exchequer as are of the degree of the coif, or have been made ſerjeants at law; as likewiſe by the maſters of the court of chancery; for their advice in point of law, and for the greater dignity of their proceedings.

The ſpeaker of the houſe of lords is generally the lord chancellor, or lord keeper of the great ſeal, which dignities are commonly veſted in the ſame perſon.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the houſe, as being his own repreſentative, when a vote paſſes contrary to his ſentiments, to enter his diſſent on the journals of the houſe, with the reaſons of ſuch diſſent; which is uſually ſtyled his proteſt. Upon particular occaſions, however, theſe proteſts have been ſo bold as to give offence to the majority of the houſe, and have therefore been expunged from their journals; but this has always been thought a violent meaſure, and not very conſiſtent with the general right of proteſting.

The houſe of commons may be properly ſtyled the grand inqueſt of Great Britain, impowered to enquire into all national grievances, in order to ſee them redreſſed.

The peculiar laws and cuſtoms of the houſe of commons relate principally to the raiſing of taxes, and the elections of members to ſerve in parliament.

With regard to taxes: it is the ancient indiſputable privilege and right of the houſe of commons, that all grants of ſubſidies, or parliamentary aids, do begin in their houſe, and are firſt beſtowed by them; although their grants are not effectual to all intents and purpoſes, until they have the aſſent of the other two branches of the legiſlature. The general reaſon given for this excluſive privilege of the houſe of commons is, that the ſupplies are raiſed upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone ſhould have the right of taxing themſelves.

The method of making laws is much the ſame in both houſes. In each houſe the act of the majority binds the whole; and this majority is declared

* This exemption from arreſts for lawful debts, was always conſidered by the public as a grievance. The lords and commons therefore generouſly relinquiſhed their privilege by act of parliament in 1700; and members of both houſes may now be ſued debtors.

by votes publicly and openly given; not as at Venice, and many other ſenatorial aſſemblies, privately or by ballot. This latter method may be ſerviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconſtitutional combinations, but it is impoſſible to be practiſed with us, at leaſt in the houſe of commons, where every member's conduct is ſubject to the future cenſure of his conſtituents, and therefore ſhould be openly ſubmitted to their inſpection.

To bring a bill into the houſe of commons, if the relief ſought by it is of a private nature, it is firſt neceſſary to prefer a petition; which muſt be preſented by a member, and uſually ſets forth the grievance deſired to be remedied. This petition, (when founded on facts that may be in their nature diſputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alledged, and accordingly report it to the houſe; and then (or, otherwiſe upon the mere petition) leave is given to bring in the bill. In public matters, the bill is brought in upon motion made to the houſe without any petition. (In the houſe of lords, if the bill begins there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges, to examine and report the ſtate of the facts alleged, to ſee that all neceſſary parties conſent, and to ſettle all points of technical propriety.) This is read a firſt time, and, at a convenient diſtance, a ſecond time; and after each reading, the ſpeaker opens to the houſe the ſubſtance of the bill, and puts the queſtion whether it ſhall proceed any farther. The introduction of the bill may be originally oppoſed, as the bill itſelf may at either of the readings; and if the oppoſition ſucceeds, the bill muſt be dropt for that ſeſſion; as it muſt alſo, if oppoſed with ſucceſs in any of the ſubſequent ſtages.

After the ſecond reading it is committed, that is referred to a committee: which is either ſelected by the houſe in matters of ſmall importance, or elſe, if the bill is a matter of great, or national conſequence, the houſe reſolves itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe. A committee of the whole houſe is compoſed of every member; and, to form it, the ſpeaker quits the chair (another member being appointed chairman), and may ſit and debate as a private member. In theſe committees, the bill is debated clauſe by clauſe, amendments made, the blanks filled up, and ſometimes the bill is entirely new modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the houſe, with ſuch amendments as the committee have made; and then the houſe re-conſider the whole bill again, and the queſtion is repeatedly put upon every clauſe and amendment. When the houſe have agreed or diſagreed to the amendments of the committee, and ſometimes added new amendments of their own, the bill is then ordered to be engroſſed or written in a ſtrong groſs hand, on one or more long rolls of parchment ſewed together. When this is finiſhed, it is read a third time, and amendmeuts are ſometimes then made to it; and, if a new clauſe be added, it is done by tacking a ſeparate piece of parchment on the bill, which is called a rider. The ſpeaker then again opens the contents; and holding it up in his hands, puts the queſtion whether the bill ſhall paſs. If this be agreed to, the title to it is then ſettled. After this it is carried to the lords, for their concurrence, by one of the members; who, attended by ſeveral more, preſents it to the bar of the houſe of peers, and there delivers it to their ſpeaker, who comes down from his woolſack to receive it. It there paſſes through the ſame forms as in the other houſe (except engroſſing, which is already done), and if rejected, no more notice is taken, but it paſſes *sub ſilentio*, to prevent unbecoming altercations. But if it be agreed to, the lords ſend a meſſage by two maſters in chancery (or ſometimes, in matters of high importance, by two of the judges) that they have agreed to the ſame; and the

the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. But if any amendments are made, ſuch amendments are ſent down with the bill to receive the concurrence of the commons. If the commons diſagree to the amendments, a conference uſually follows between members deputed from each houſe; who, for the moſt part, ſettle and adjuſt the difference: but if both houſes remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. If the commons agree to the amendments, the bill is ſent back to the lords by one of the members with a meſſage, to acquaint them therewith. The ſame forms are obſerved *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the houſe of lords. But when an act of grace or pardon is paſſed, it is firſt ſigned by his majeſty, and then read once only in each of the houſes, without any new engroſſing or amendment. And when both houſes have done with any bill, it always is depoſited in the houſe of peers, to wait the royal aſſent; except in the caſe of a money-bill which, after receiving the concurrence of the lords, is ſent back to the houſe of commons. It may be neceſſary here to acquaint the reader, that both in the houſes, and in their committees, the ſlighteſt expreſſion, or moſt minute alteration, does not paſs till the ſpeaker, or the chairman, puts the queſtion; which in the houſe of commons, is anſwered by *aye* or *no*; and in the houſe of peers, by *content* or *not content*.

The giving the royal aſſent to bills is a matter of great form. When the king is to paſs bills in perſon, he appears on his throne in the houſe of peers, in his royal robes, with the crown on his head, and attended by his great officers of ſtate and heralds. A ſeat on the right hand of the throne, where the princes of Scotland, when peers of England, formerly ſat, is reſerved for the prince of Wales. The other princes of the blood ſit on the left hand of the king; and the chancellor on a cloſe bench removed a little backwards. The viſcounts and temporal barons, or lords, face the throne, on benches, or wool-packs covered with red cloth or baize. The bench of biſhops runs along the houſe to the bar on the right hand of the throne; as the dukes and earls do on the left. The chancellor and judges, on ordinary days, ſit upon wool-packs, between the barons and the throne. The common opinion is, that the houſe ſitting on wool, is ſymbolical of wool being formerly the ſtaple commodity of the kingdom. Many of the peers, on ſolemn occaſions, appear in their parliamentary robes. None of the commons have any robes, excepting the ſpeaker, who wears a long black ſilk gown; and when he appears before the king it is trimmed with gold.

The royal aſſent may be given two ways; 1. In perſon. When the king ſends for the houſe of commons to the houſe of peers, the ſpeaker carries up the money-bill or bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addreſſes his majeſty in a ſolemn ſpeech, in which he ſeldom fails to extol the generoſity and loyalty of the commons and to tell his majeſty how neceſſary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occaſion, that the commons of Great Britain appear in their higheſt luſtre. The titles of all bills that have paſſed both houſes are read; and the king's anſwer is declared by the clerk of the parliament in Norman French. If the king conſents to a public bill, the clerk uſually declares, *le roy le veut*, "the king wills it ſo to be:" if to a private bill, *ſoit fait come il eſt deſiré*, "be it as it is deſired." If the king refuſes aſſent, it is in the gentle language of *le roy s'aviſera*, "the king will adviſe upon it." When a money-bill is paſſed, it is carried up and preſented to the king by the ſpeaker of the houſe of commons, and the royal aſſent is thus expreſſed, *le roy remercie ſes loyal ſubjects, accepte lour benevolence, et auſſi le veut*, "the king thanks his loyal ſubjects, accepts their benevolence, and "wills it ſo to be." In caſe of an act of grace, which originally proceeds from

from the crown, and has the royal aſſent in the firſt ſtage of it, the clerk of the parliament thus pronounces the gratitude of the ſubject; *les prelats, ſeigneurs, et commons, en ce preſent parliament aſſemblés, au nom de touts vous autres ſubjects, remercient tres humblement votre majeſté: et prient à Dieu vous donner en ſanté bonne vie et longue*; "the prelates, lords, and commons, in this preſent parliament aſſembled, in the name of all your other ſubjects, moſt humbly thank your majeſty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. By the ſtatute 33 Hen. VIII. c. 21. the king may give his aſſent by letters patent under his great ſeal, ſigned with his hand, and notified, in his abſence, to both houſes aſſembled together in the high houſe, by commiſſioners, conſiſting of certain peers named in the letters. And when the bill has received the royal aſſent in either of theſe ways, it is then, and not before, a ſtatute or act of parliament.

This ſtatute or act is placed among the records of the kingdom; there needing no formal promulgation to give it the force of a law, as was neceſſary by the civil law with regard to the emperor's edicts; becauſe every man in England is, in judgment of law, party to the making of an act of parliament, being preſent thereat by his repreſentatives. However, copies thereof are uſually printed at the king's preſs, for the information of the whole land.

From the above general view of the Engliſh conſtitution, it appears, that no ſecurity for its permanency, which the wit of man can deviſe, is wanting. If it ſhould be objected, that parliaments may become ſo corrupted, as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the anſwer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are ſuppoſed to watch over their political exiſtence, as a private perſon does his natural life. If a parliament was to act in that manner, it muſt become *felo de ſe*, an evil that no human proviſions can guard againſt. But there are great reſources of liberty in England; and though the conſtitution has been even overturned, and ſometimes dangerouſly wounded, yet its own innate powers have recovered and ſtill preſerve it. Monſ. Mezeray, the famous hiſtorian, ſaid to a countryman of ours, in the cloſe of the laſt century, "We had once in France the ſame happineſs and the ſame privileges which you have; *our laws were then made by repreſentatives of* OUR OWN *chuſing, therefore our money was not taken from us, but granted by us.* Our kings were then ſubject to the rules of law and reaſon—now, alas! we are miſerable, and all is loſt. Think nothing Sir, too dear to maintain theſe precious advantages; if ever there ſhould be occaſion, venture your life and eſtate rather than baſely and fooliſhly ſubmit to that abject condition to which you ſee us reduced."

The king of England, beſides his high court of parliament, has ſubordinate officers and miniſters to aſſiſt him, and who are reſponſible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and on taking the neceſſary oaths, they become immediately privy-counſellors during the life of the king that chuſes them, but ſubject to removal at his direction.

The duty of a privy-counſellor appears from the oath of office, which conſiſts of ſeven articles; 1. To adviſe the king according to the beſt of his cunning and diſcretion. 2. To adviſe for the king's honour and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counſel ſecret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and ſtrengthen the execution of what ſhall be there reſolved. 6. To withſtand all perſons who would attempt the contrary. And, laſtly, in

general, 7. To obſerve, keep, and do all that a good and true counſellor ought to do to his ſovereign lord.

As no government can be ſo complete as to be provided with laws that may anſwer every unforeſeen emergency, the privy-council, in ſuch caſes, can ſupply the deficiency. It has been even known, that, upon great and urgent occaſions, ſuch as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they can ſuperſede the operation of the law; if the parliament is not ſitting; but this is conſidered as illegal, and an act of parliament muſt paſs for the pardon and indemnification of thoſe concerned.

The office of ſecretary of ſtate is at preſent divided into a ſouthern and a northern department. The ſouthern contains France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, the Swiſs Cantons, Conſtantinople, and, in ſhort, all the ſtates in the ſouthern parts. The northern comprehends the different ſtates of Germany, Pruſſia, Poland, Ruſſia, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Flanders, and the Hanſeatic towns.

With regard to the capital acts of government which were formerly entruſted with the ſecretaries of ſtate, a committee of the privy-conncil, commonly called a cabinet-council, are chiefly entruſted. This cabinet generally conſiſts of a ſelect number of miniſters and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court: but though its operations are powerful and extenſive, a cabinet council is not eſſential to the conſtitution of England.

This obſervation naturally leads me to mention the perſon who is ſo well known by the name of the *firſt miniſter*; a term unknown to the Engliſh conſtitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps neceſſary. The conſtitution points out the lord high chancellor as miniſter, but the affairs of his own court give him ſufficient employment. When the office of the firſt lord of the treaſury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer (offices which I am to explain hereafter) in the ſame perſon, he is conſidered as firſt miniſter. The truth is, his majeſty may make any of his ſervants his firſt miniſter. But though it is no office, yet there is a reſponſibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a poſt of difficulty and danger. I ſhall now take a ſhort review of the nine great officers of the crown, who, by their poſts, take place next to the princes of the royal family and the two primates.

The firſt is the lord high ſteward of England. This is an office very ancient, and formerly was hereditary, or at leaſt for life; but now and for centuries paſt it is exerciſed only occaſionally; that is, at a coronation, or to ſit as a judge on a peer or peereſs, when tried for a capital crime. In coronations, it is held for that day only, by ſome high nobleman. In caſes of trials, it is exerciſed generally by the lord chancellor, or lord keeper; whoſe commiſſion as high ſteward, ends with the trial, by breaking his white rod, the badge of his office.

The lord high chancellor preſides in the court of chancery, to moderate the ſeverities of the law, in all caſes where the property of the ſubject is concerned; and he is to determine according to the dictates of equity and reaſon. He is an officer of the greateſt weight and power of any now ſubſiſting in the kingdom, and is ſuperior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is a privy counſellor by his office, and, according to ſome, prolocutor of the houſe of lords by preſcription. To him belongs the appointment of all juſtices of the peace; he is viſitor, in right of the king, of all hoſpitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of 20l. per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and hath the ſuperintendance of all chari-

charitable uſes in the kingdom, over and above the extenſive juriſdiction which he exerciſes in his judicial capacity in the court of chancery.

The poſt of lord high treaſurer has of late been veſted in a commiſſion conſiſting of five perſons, who are called lords of the treaſury; but the firſt commiſſioner is ſuppoſed to poſſeſs the power of lord high treaſurer. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the exchequer: as alſo the letting of the leaſes of all crown-lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the cuſtoms in the ſeveral ports of the kingdom.

The lord preſident of the council was an officer formerly of great power, and hath precedence next after the lord chancellor, and lord treaſurer. His duty is to propoſe all the buſineſs tranſacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majeſty is not preſent, all its debates and proceedings. It is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vaſt number of American and Weſt India cauſes, captures, and the like affairs, that come before the board: all which may be abridged to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubject by an able preſident.

The office of lord privy ſeal conſiſts in his putting the king's ſeal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are ſigned by the king, in order to their paſſing the great ſeal; and he is reſponſible if he ſhould apply the privy-ſeal to any thing againſt the law of the land.

The office of lord great chamberlain of England is hereditary to the duke of Ancaſter's family. He attends the king's perſon, on his coronation, to dreſs him: he has likewiſe charge of the houſe of lords during the ſitting of parliament; and of fitting up Weſtminſter-hall for coronations, or trials of peers.

The office of lord high conſtable has been diſuſed ſince the attainder and execution of Stafford duke of Buckingham, in the year 1521, but is occaſionally revived for a coronation.

The duke of Norfolk is hereditary earl marſhal of England. Before England became ſo commercial a country as it has been for a hundred years paſt, this office required great abilities, learning, and knowledge of the Engliſh hiſtory for its diſcharge. In war time he was judge of army cauſes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cauſe did not admit of ſuch a deciſion, it was left to a perſonal combat, which was attended with a vaſt variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the ſmalleſt trifle, fell within the marſhal's province. To this day, he or his deputy regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the herald's office which is entirely within his juriſdiction. He directs all ſolemn proceſſions, coronations, proclamations, general mournings and the like.

The office of lord high admiral of England is * now likewiſe held by commiſſion, and is equal in its importance to any of the preceding, eſpecially ſince the growth of the Britiſh naval power. The Engliſh admirality is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itſelf. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs are appointed and held under a commiſſion immediately iſſuing from that board: and the members muſt ſign even the death-warrants for execution; but it may be eaſily conceived, that, as they are removable at pleaſure, they do nothing that can claſh with the prerogative of the crown, and conform themſelves to the directions they receive from his majeſty. The board of admirality regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all their

* The laſt lord high admiral was George prince of Denmark, and huſband to queen Anne.

officers, or confirms them when named; ſo that its juriſdiction is very extenſive. They appoint vice-admirals under them; but an appeal from them lies to the high court of admirality, which is of a civil nature: London is the place where it is held; and all its proceſſes and proceedings run in the lord high admiral's name, or thoſe of the commiſſioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the method of the civil law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at ſea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witneſſes and a jury, ever ſince the reign of Henry VIII. It now remains to treat of the courts of law in England.

COURTS OF LAW.] The court of chancery, which is the court of equity, is next in dignity to the high court of parliament, and is deſigned to relieve the ſubject againſt frauds, breaches of truſt, and other oppreſſions, and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The lord high chancellor ſits as ſole judge, and in his abſence, the maſter of the rolls. The form of proceeding is by bills, anſwers, and decrees; the witneſſes being examined in private; however, the decrees of this court are only binding to the perſons of thoſe concerned in them, for they do not affect their lands and goods; and conſequently, if a man refuſes to comply with the terms, they can do nothing more than ſend him to the priſon of the Fleet. This court is always open; and if a man be ſent to priſon, the lord chancellor, in any vacation, can, if he ſees reaſon for it grant a *habeas corpus*.

The clerk of the crown likewiſe belongs to this court, he, or his deputy, being obliged always to attend on the lord chancellor as often as he ſits for the diſpatch of buſineſs; through his hands paſs all writs for ſummoning the parliament or chooſing of members, commiſſions of the peace, pardons, &c.

The King's Bench, ſo called either from the kings of England ſometimes ſitting there in perſon, or becauſe all matters determinable by common law between the king and his ſubjects are here tried, except ſuch affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer. This court is, likewiſe, a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges and juſtices of the peace. Here preſide four judges, the firſt of whom is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of England, to expreſs the great extent of his juriſdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cauſe depending either in ſpiritual or temporal courts; and the houſe of peers does often direct the lord chief juſtice to iſſue out his warrant for apprehending perſons under ſuſpicion of high crimes. The other three judges are called juſtices, or judges of the King's Bench.

The court of Common Pleas takes cogniſance of all pleas debatable, and civil actions depending between ſubject and ſubject and in it, beſides all real actions, fines and recoveries are tranſacted, and prohibitions are likewiſe iſſued out of it, as well as from the King's Bench. The firſt judge of this court is ſtyled lord chief juſtice of the Common Pleas, or common bench: beſides whom there are likewiſe three other judges, or juſtices of this court. None but ſerjeants at law are allowed to plead here.

The court of Exchequer was inſtituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging both according to law and according to equity. In the proceedings according to law, the lord chief baron of the Exchequer, and three other barons, preſide as judges. They are ſtyled barons, becauſe formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be

judges in this court. Beſides there is a fifth, called curſitor baron, who has not a judicial capacity, but is only employed in adminiſtering the oath to ſheriffs and other officers, and alſo to ſeveral of the officers of the cuſtom-houſe. But when this court proceeds according to equity, then the lord treaſurer and the chancellor of the Exchequer preſide, aſſiſted by the other barons. All matters touching the king's treaſury, revenue, cuſtoms, and fines, are here tried and determined. Beſides the officers already mentioned, there belong to the Exchequer, the king's remembrancer, who takes and ſtates all accounts of the revenue, cuſtoms, exciſe, parliamentary aid and ſubſidies, &c. except the accounts of the ſheriffs and their officers: the lord treaſurer's remembrancer, whoſe buſineſs it is to make out proceſſes againſt ſheriffs, receivers of the revenue, and other officers.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, a high-ſheriff is annually appointed for every county (except Weſtmoreland and Middleſex) by the king *; whoſe office is both miniſterial and judicial. He is to execute the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him out of the king's court of juſtice; to impannel juries, to bring cauſes and malefactors to trial, to ſee ſentence, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed; and at the aſſize to attend the judges, and guard them all the time they are in his county. He is likewiſe to decide the elections of knights of the ſhire, of coroners and verderers; to judge of the qualifications of voters, and to return ſuch as he ſhall determine to be duly elected. It is alſo part of his office to collect all public fines, diſtreſſes, amerciaments, into the Exchequer, or where the king ſhall appoint, and to make ſuch payments out of them as his majeſty ſhall think proper.

As his office is judicial, he keeps a court, called the county court, which is held by the ſheriff, or his under-ſheriffs, to hear and determine all civil cauſes in the county, under forty ſhillings: this, however, is no court of record; but the court, formerly called the ſheriff's torn, was one; and the king's leet, through all the county: for in this court inquiry was made into all criminal offences againſt the common law, where by the ſtatute law there was no reſtraint. This court, however, has been long ſince aboliſhed. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and ſpecial commiſſion, he is the firſt man in the county, and ſuperior in rank to any nobleman therein, during his office. He may command all the people of his county to attend him, which is called the *poſſe comitatus*, or power of the county.

Under the ſheriff are various officers; as the under-ſheriff, clerks, ſtewards of courts, bailiffs (in London called ſerjeants), conſtables, goalers, beadles, &c.

The next officer to the ſheriff, is the *juſtice of peace*, ſeveral of whom are commiſſioned for each county: and to them is intruſted the power of putting great part of the ſtatute law in execution, in relation to the highways, the poor, vagrants, treaſons, felonies, riots, the preſervation of the game, &c. &c. and they examine and commit to priſon all who break or diſturb the peace, and diſquiet the king's ſubjects. In order to puniſh the offenders, they meet every quarter at the county-town, when a jury of twelve men, called the grand inqueſt of the county, is ſummoned to appear. This

* Sheriffs were formerly choſen by the inhabitants of the ſeveral counties. In ſome counties the ſheriffs were formerly hereditary, and ſtill continue in the county of Weſtmoreland. The city of London hath alſo the inheritance of the ſhrievalty of Middleſex veſted in their body by charter.

jury, upon oath, is to inquire into the caſes of all delinquents, and to preſent them by bill, guilty of the indictment, or not guilty: the juſtices commit the former to gaol for their trial at the next aſſizes, and the latter are acquitted. This is called the quarter-ſeſſions for the county. The juſtice of peace ought to be a perſon of great good ſenſe, ſagacity, and integrity, and to be not without ſome knowledge of the law: for as much power is lodged in his hands, and as nothing is ſo intoxicating, without theſe qualifications, he will be apt to make miſtakes, and to ſtep beyond his authority, for which he is indeed liable to be called to an account at the court of King's Bench.

Each county contains two *coroners*, who are to enquire by a jury of neighbours, how and by whom any perſon came by a violent death and to enter it on record as a plea of the crown. Another branch of his office is to enquire concerning ſhipwreck, and certify whether wreck or not, and who is in poſſeſſion of the goods. In his miniſterial office, he is the ſhiriff's ſubſtitute.

The civil government of cities is a kind of ſmall independent policy of itſelf; for every city hath, by charter from the king, a juriſdiction within itſelf, to judge in all matters civil and criminal: with this reſtraint only, that all civil cauſes may be removed from their courts to the higher courts at Weſtminſter; and all offences that are capital, are committed to the judge of the aſſize. The government of cities differs according to their different charters, immunities, and conſtitutions. They are conſtituted with a mayor, aldermen, and burgeſſes, who, together, make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature, where the mayor preſides as judge. Some cities are counties, and chuſe their own ſheriffs; and all of them have a power of making by-laws for their own government. Some have thought the goverment of cities, by mayor, aldermen, and common council, is an epitome of the Engliſh government, by king, lords, and commons.

The government of incorporated boroughs is much after the ſame manner: in ſome there is a mayor, and in others two bailiffs; all which, during their mayoralty or magiſtracy, are juſtices of the peace within their liberties, and conſequently eſquires.

The cinque ports are five havens, formerly eſteemed moſt important ones, that lie on the eaſt part of England towards France, as Dover, Sandwich, Romney, Haſtings and Hythe, to which Winchelſea and Rye have been ſince added, with ſimilar franchiſes in many reſpects. Theſe cinque-ports were endowed with particular privileges by our ancient kings, upon condition that they ſhould provide a certain number of ſhips, at their own charge, to ſerve in the wars for forty days, as often as they were wanted.

For the better government of villages, the lords of the ſoil, or manor, (who were formerly called barons), have generally a power to hold courts, called courts-leet and courts-baron, where their tenants are obliged to attend and receive juſtice. The buſineſs of courts-leet is chiefly to preſent and puniſh nuiſances; and at courts-baron the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their eſtates on a deſcent or purchaſe.

A *conſtable* is a very ancient and reſpectable officer of the peace, under the Engliſh conſtitution. Every hundred has a high conſtable, and every pariſh in that hundred a conſtable; and they are to attend the high conſtable upon proper occaſions. They are aſſiſted by another ancient officer, called the tythingman, who formerly ſuperintended the tenth part of an hundred, or ten free burghs, as they were called in the time of the Saxons, and each free burgh

conſiſting of ten families. The buſineſs of conſtable is to keep the peace in all caſes of quarrels and riots. He can impriſon offenders till they are brought before a juſtice of peace; and it is his duty to execute, within his diſtrict, every warrant that is directed to him from that magiſtrate, or a bench of juſtices. The neglect of the Old Saxon courts, both for the preſervation of the peace, and the more eaſy recovery of ſmall debts, has been regretted by many eminent lawers; and it has of late been found neceſſary to revive ſome of them, and to appoint others of a ſimilar nature.

Beſides theſe, there are courts of conſcience ſettled in many parts of England for the relief of the poor, in the recovery of payment of ſmall debts not exceeding forty ſhillings.

There neither is, nor ever was, any conſtitution provided with ſo many fences, as that of England is, for the ſecurity of perſonal liberty. Every man impriſoned has a right to bring a writ before a judge at Weſtminſter-hall, called his Habeas Corpus. If that judge, after conſidering the cauſe of commitment, ſhall find that the offence is bailable, the party is immediately admitted to bail, till he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of juſtice.

The rights of individuals are ſo attentively conſidered, that the ſubject may, without the leaſt danger, ſue his ſovereign, or thoſe who act in his name, and under his authority; he may do this in open court, where the king may be caſt, and be obliged to pay damages to his ſubject. He cannot take away the liberty of the leaſt individual, unleſs he has, by ſome illegal act, of which he is accuſed or ſuſpected upon oath, forfeited his right or liberty; or except when the ſtate is in danger, and the repreſentatives of the people think the public ſafety makes it neceſſary, that he ſhould have the power of confining perſons on ſuch a ſuſpicion of guilt; ſuch as the caſe of a rebellion within the kingdom, when the legiſlature has thought proper to paſs a temporary ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus act; but this ſeldom has been done but with great difficulty and caution, and when the national ſafety has abſolutely required it. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he nor the judges, to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be firſt found guilty by twelve men, who muſt be his peers or his equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king or his miniſters, to miſrepreſent the caſe to the jury, they have their ſalaries for life, and not during the pleaſure of their ſovereign. Neither can the king take away, nor endanger the life of any ſubject, without trial, and the perſons being firſt chargeable with a capital crime, as treaſon, murder, felony, or ſome other act, injurious to ſociety; nor can any ſubject be deprived of his liberty, for the higheſt crime, till ſome proof of his guilt be given upon oath before a magiſtrate; and he has then a right to inſiſt upon his being brought, the firſt opportunity, to a fair trial, or to be reſtored to liberty on giving bail for his appearance. If a man is charged with a capital offence, he muſt not undergo the ignominy of being tried for his life, till the evidences of his guilt are laid before the grand jury of the town or county in which the fact is alledged to be committed, and not without twelve of them agreeing to a bill of indictment againſt him. If they do this, he is to ſtand a ſecond trial before twelve other men, whoſe opinion is definitive. By the 28 Edward III. it is enacted, that where either party is an alien born, the jury ſhall be one half aliens, and the other denizens if required, for the more impartial trial. A privilege indulged to ſtrangers in no other country in the world, but which is as ancient with us as the time of king Ethelred *. In

* Statute de Monticolis Walliæ.

ſome caſes, the man (who is always ſuppoſed innocent till there be ſufficient proof of his guilt) is allowed a copy of his indictment, in order to help him to make his defence. He is alſo furniſhed with the pannel, or liſt of the jury, who are his true and proper judges, that he may learn their characters, and diſcover whether they want abilities, or whether they are prejudiced againſt him. He may in open court peremptorily object to twenty of the number *, and to as many more as he can give reaſon for their not being admitted as his judges; till at laſt twelve unexceptionable men, the neighbours of the party accuſed, or living near the place where the ſuppoſed fact was committed, are approved of, who take the following oath, that they *ſhall well and truly try, and true deliverance make, between the king and the priſoners, whom they ſhall have in charge, according to the evidence.* By challenging the jury, the priſoner prevents all poſſibility of bribery, or the influence of any ſuperior power; by their living near the place where the fact was committed, they are ſuppoſed to be men who knew the priſoner's courſe of life, and the credit of the evidence. Theſe only are the judges from whoſe ſentence the priſoner is to expect life or death, and upon their integrity and underſtanding the lives of all that are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or candle, till they are unanimous in acquitting or condemning the priſoner. Every juryman is therefore inveſted with a ſolemn and awful truſt: if he without evidence ſubmits his opinion to that of any other of the jury, or yields in complaiſance to the opinion of the judge; if he neglects to examine with the utmoſt care; if he queſtions the veracity of the witneſſes, who may be of an infamous character; or after the moſt impartial hearing, has the leaſt doubt upon his mind, and yet joins in condemning the perſon accuſed; he will wound his own conſcience, and bring upon himſelf the complicated guilt of perjury and murder. The freedom of Engliſhmen conſiſts in its being out of the power of the judge on the bench to injure them, for declaring a man innocent whom he wiſhes to bring in guilty. Were not this the caſe, juries would be uſeleſs; ſo far from being judges themſelves, they would only be the tools of another, whoſe province is not to guide, but to give a ſanction to their determination. Tyranny might triumph over the lives and liberties of the ſubject, and the judge on the bench be the miniſter of the prince's vengeance.

Trial by jury is ſo capital a privilege, and ſo great a ſecurity to the liberty of the ſubject, it is much to be regretted, that perſons of education and property are often too ready to evade ſerving the office. By this means juries frequently conſiſt of ignorant and illiterate perſons, who neither have knowledge enough to underſtand their rights and the privileges of Engliſhmen, nor ſpirit enough to maintain them. No man ſhould be above ſerving ſo important an office, when regularly called upon: and thoſe who, from indolence or pride, decline diſcharging this duty to their country, ſeem hardly to deſerve that ſecurity and liberty which the inhabitants of this country derive from this invaluable inſtitution. Juries have, indeed, always been conſidered as giving the moſt effectual check to tyranny: for in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing againſt law, they are a ſecurity that he ſhall never make the laws, by a bad adminiſtration, the inſtruments of cruelty and oppreſſion. Were it not for juries, the advice given by father Paul, in his maxims of the republic at Venice, might take effect in its fulleſt latitude. "When the offence is committed by a nobleman againſt a ſubject, ſays he,

* The party may challenge thirty five in caſe of treaſon.

let all ways be tried to juſtify him; and if that is not poſſible to be done, let him be chaſtiſed with greater noiſe than damage. If it be a ſubject that has affronted a nobleman, let him be puniſhed with the utmoſt ſeverity, that the ſubjects may not get too great a cuſtom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In ſhort, was it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleaſed, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But by our happy conſtitution, which breaths nothing but liberty and equity, all imaginary indulgence is allowed to the meaneſt, as well as the greateſt. When a priſoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and though the judges are ſuppoſed to be counſel for the priſoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cauſe, other counſel are allowed him; he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may ſet it aſide, if it be contrary to law. Nothing is wanting to clear up the cauſe of innocence, and to prevent the ſufferer from ſinking under the power of corrupt judges, and the oppreſſion of the great. The racks and tortures that are cruelly made uſe of in other parts of Europe, to make a man accuſe himſelf, are here unknown, and none puniſhed without conviction, but he who refuſes to plead in his own defence.

As the trial of malefactors in England is very different from that of other nations, the following account thereof may be uſeful to foreigners and others, who have not ſeen thoſe proceedings.

The court being met, and the priſoner called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accuſed, and aſks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the priſoner anſwers *guilty*, his trial is at an end; but if he anſwers *not guilty*, the court proceeds on the trial, even though he may before have confeſſed the fact; for the law of England takes no notice of ſuch confeſſion; and unleſs the witneſſes, who are upon oath, prove him guilty of the crime, the jury muſt acquit him; for they are directed to bring in their verdict according to the evidence given in court. If the priſoner refuſes to plead, that is, if he will not ſay in court whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*, he might, till lately, by the law of England, be preſſed to death, with a load of iron upon his breaſt.

When the witneſſes have given in their evidence, and the priſoner has, by himſelf or his counſel, croſs-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the ſubſtance of the evidence given againſt the priſoner, and bids them diſcharge their conſcience; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman, for himſelf and the reſt, declares the priſoner *guilty*, or *not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But if any doubt ariſes among the jury, and the matter requires debate, they all withdraw into a room with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up till they are unanimouſly agreed on the verdict; and if any one of the jury ſhould die during this their confinement, the priſoner will be acquitted.

When the jury have agreed on the verdict, they inform the court thereof by an officer who waits without, and the priſoner is again ſet to the bar to hear his verdict. This is unalterable, except in ſome doubtful caſes, when the verdict is brought in *ſpecial*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges of England.

If the priſoner be found guilty, he is then aſked what reaſon he can give why ſentence of death ſhould not be paſſed upon him? There is now properly no benefit of clergy; it is changed to tranſportation, or burning in the hand. Upon a capital conviction, the ſentence of death, after a ſummary account of the

the trial, is pronounced on the priſoner, in theſe words: *The law is, That thou ſhalt return to the place from whence thou cameſt, and from thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou ſhalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead, and the Lord have mercy on thy ſoul:* whereupon the ſheriff is charged with the execution.

All the priſoners found *not guilty* by the jury, are immediately acquitted and diſcharged, and in ſome caſes obtain a copy of their indictment from the court, to proceed at law againſt their proſecutors.

OF PUNISHMENTS.] The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treaſon*, *petty treaſon*, and *felony*. The firſt conſiſts in plotting, conſpiring, or riſing up in arms againſt the ſovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. The traitor is puniſhed by being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged upon a gallows for ſome minutes, the body is cut down alive, the heart taken out and expoſed to public view, and the entrails burnt; the head is then cut off, and the body quartered, after which the head is uſually fixed on ſome conſpicuous place. All the criminal's lands and goods are forfeited, his wife loſes her dowry, and his children both their eſtates and nobility.

But though coining of money is adjudged high treaſon, the criminal is only drawn upon a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the ſentence paſſed upon all traitors is the ſame, yet with reſpect to perſons of quality, the puniſhment is generally altered to beheading: a ſcaffold is erected for that purpoſe, on which the criminal placing his head upon a block, it is ſtruck off with an axe *.

The puniſhment for miſpriſion of high treaſon, that is, for neglecting or concealing it, is impriſonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and the profits ariſing from his lands.

Petty treaſon is when a child kills his father, a wife her huſband, a clergyman his biſhop, or a ſervant his maſter or miſtreſs. This crime is puniſhed by the offender's being drawn on a ſledge to the place of execution, and there hanged upon a gallows till dead. Women guilty both of this crime and of high treaſon, are ſentenced to be burnt alive; but inſtead of ſuffering the full rigour of the law, they are ſtrangled at the ſtake before the fire takes hold of them.

Felony includes murders, robberies, forging notes, bonds, deeds, &c. Theſe are all puniſhed by hanging, only * murderers are to be executed ſoon after ſentence is paſſed, and then delivered to the ſurgeons in order to be publicly diſſected. Perſons guilty of robbery, when there were ſome alleviating circumſtances, uſed ſometimes to be tranſported for a term of years to his majeſty's plantations; but ſince the American war, they are now generally condemned to hard labour in works of public utility, upon the river, &c. for a certain number of years, and lately ſome have been ſent to Africa, Nova Scotia, and Botany Bay.

Other crimes puniſhed by the laws are,

Manſlaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a perſon without premeditated malice, but with a preſent intent to kill; as when two who formerly meant no harm to each other, quarrel, and the one kills the other: in this caſe, the crim-

* This is not to be conſidered as a different puniſhment, but as a remiſſion of all the parts of the ſentence mentioned before, excepting the article of beheading.

* By a late act, murderers are to be executed within twenty-four hours after ſentence is pronounced; but as Sunday is not reckoned a day, they are generally tried on a Saturday, ſo that they obtain a reſpite till Monday.

criminal is allowed the benefit of his clergy for the firſt time, and only burnt in the hand.

Chance-medley, is the accidental killing of a man without an evil intent, for which the offender is alſo to be burnt in the hand, unleſs the offender was doing an unlawful act; which laſt circumſtance makes the puniſhment death.

Shop-lifting, and receiving goods known them to be ſtolen, are puniſhed with hard labour for a number of years, or burning in the hand.

Perjury, or keeping diſorderly houſes, are puniſhed with the pillory and impriſonment.

Petty-larceny, or ſmall theft, under the value of twelve pence, is puniſhed by whipping.

Libelling, uſing falſe weights and meaſures, and foreſtalling the market, are commonly puniſhed with ſtanding on the pillory.

For ſtriking, ſo as to draw blood, in the king's court, the criminal is puniſhed with loſing his right hand.

For ſtriking, in Weſtminſter hall, while the courts of juſtice are ſitting the puniſhment is impriſonment for life, and forfeiture of all the offender's eſtate.

Drunkards, vagabonds, and looſe, idle, diſorderly perſons, are puniſhed by being ſet in the ſtocks, or by paying a fine.

OF HUSBAND AND WIFE.]. The firſt private relation of perſons is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of huſband and wife; or, as moſt of our elder law books call them, *baron* and *feme*. The holineſs of the matrimonial ſtate is left entirely to the eccleſiaſtical law; the puniſhment, therefore, or annulling of inceſtuous, or other unſcriptural marriages, is the province of ſpiritual courts.

There are two kinds of divorce; the one total, the other partial. The total divorce muſt be for ſome of the canonical cauſes of impediment, and thoſe exiſting before the marriage: as conſanguinity, affinity, or corporeal imbecility. The iſſue of ſuch marriage, as it is thus entirely diſſolved, are baſtards.

The other kind of divorce is, when the marriage is juſt and lawful, and therefore the law is tender of diſſolving it; but, for ſome ſupervenient cauſe, it becomes improper, or impoſſible, for the parties to live together; as in the caſe of intolerable ill temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this caſe the law allows alimony to the wife (except when for adultery, the parliament grants a total divorce, as has happened frequently of late years), which is that allowance which is made to a woman for her ſupport out of the huſband's eſtate, being ſettled at the diſcretion of the eccleſiaſtical judge, on the conſideration of all the circumſtances of the caſe, and the rank and quality of the parties.

In the civil law, the huſband and the wife are conſidered as two diſtinct perſons; and may have ſeparate eſtates, contracts, debts and injuries; and therefore in our eccleſiaſtical courts a woman may ſue, and be ſued, without her huſband.

But though our law in general conſiders man and wife as one perſon, yet there are ſome inſtances in which ſhe is ſeperately conſidered, as inferior to him, and acting by his compulſion. And therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void; except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which caſe ſhe muſt be ſolely and ſecretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will deviſe land to her huſband, unleſs under ſpecial circumſtances; for at that time of making it,

it, ſhe is ſuppoſed to be under his coercion. And in ſome felonies, and other inferior crimes committed by her, through conſtraint of her huſband, the law excuſes her; but this extends not to treaſon or murder.

The huſband alſo (by the old, and likewiſe by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction. For, as he is to anſwer for her miſbehaviour, the law thought it reaſonable to entruſt him with this power of reſtraining her, by domeſtic chaſtiſement, in the ſame moderation that a man is allowed to correct his ſervants or children; for whom the maſter or parents is alſo liable in ſome caſes to anſwer. But in the politer reign of Charles II. this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have ſecurity of the peace againſt her huſband; or in return, a huſband againſt his wife: yet the lower ranks of people, who were always fond of the old common law, ſtill claim and exert their ancient privilege: and the courts of law will ſtill permit a huſband to reſtrain a wife of her liberty, in caſe of any groſs miſbehaviour.

Theſe are the chief legal effects of marriage during the coverture; upon which we may obſerve that even the diſabilities, which the wife lies under, are for the moſt part intended for her protection and benefit. So great a favourite is the female ſex with the laws of England.

REVENUES OF THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT. The king's eccleſiaſtical revenues conſiſt in, 1. The cuſtody of the temporalities of vacant biſhopricks; from which he receives little or no advantage. 2. Corodies and penſions, formerly ariſing from allowances of meat, drink, and clothing due to the king from an abbey or monaſtery, and which he generally beſtowed upon favourite ſervants; and his ſending one of his chaplains to be maintained by the biſhop, or to have a penſion beſtowed upon him till the biſhop promoted him to a benefice. Theſe corodies are due of common right, but now I believe, diſuſed. 3. Extra-parochial tithes. 4. The firſt-fruits and tenths of benefices. At preſent, ſuch has been the bounty of the crown to the church, that theſe four branches afford little or no revenue.

The king's ordinary temporal revenue conſiſts in, 1. The demeſne lands of the crown, which at preſent are contracted within a narrow compaſs. 2. The hereditary exciſe; being part of the conſideration for the purchaſe of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption. 3. An annual ſum iſſuing from the duty on wine licences; being the reſidue of the ſame conſideration. 4. His foreſts. 5. His courts of juſtice, &c.

The exrraordinary grants are uſually called by the ſynoymous names of aids, ſubſidies, and ſupplies; and are granted, as has been before hinted, by the commons of Great Britain in parliament aſſembled; who, when they have voted a ſupply to his majeſty, and ſettled the *quantum* of that ſupply uſually reſolve themſelves into what is called a committee, of ways and means, to conſider the ways and means of raiſing the ſupply ſo voted. And in this condition every member (though it is looked upon as the peculiar province of the chancellor of the exchequer) may propoſe ſuch ſcheme of taxation as he thinks will be leaſt detrimental to the public. The reſolutions of this committee (when approved by a vote of the houſe) are in general eſteemed to be (as it were) final and concluſive. For, though the ſupply cannot be actually raiſed upon the ſubject till directed by an act of the whole parliament, yet no monied man will ſcruple to advance to the government any quantity of ready caſh, if the propoſed terms be advantageous, on the credit of the bare vote of the houſe of commons, though no law be yet paſſed to eſtabliſh it.

The annual taxes are, 1. The land tax, or the ancient ſubſidy raiſed up-

on a new aſſeſſment. 2. The malt-tax, being an annual exciſe on malt, mum, cyder, and perry.

The perpetual taxes are, 1. The cuſtoms, or tonnage and poundage of all merchandiſe exported or imported. 2. The exciſe duty, or inland impoſition on a great variety of commodities. 3. The ſalt duty. 4. The poſt-office *, or duty for the carriage of letters. 5. The ſtamp duty on paper, parchment, &c. 6. The duty on houſes and windows. 7. The duty on licences for, hackney coaches and chairs. 8. The duty on offices and penſions; with a variety of new taxes in the ſeſſions of 1784, and ſince the commencement of the preſent war.

The clear neat produce of theſe ſeveral branches of the revenue, old and new taxes, after all charges of collecting and management paid, is eſtimated to amonnt annually to upwards of 17 millions ſterling; with two millions and a quarter raiſed at an average, by the land and malt tax. How theſe immenſe ſums are appropriated, is next to be conſidered. And this is, firſt and principally, to the payment of the *intereſt* of the national debt.

In order to take a clear and comprehenſive view of the nature of this NATIONAL DEBT, it muſt firſt be premiſed, that after the Revolution, when our new connections with Europe introduced a new ſyſtem of foreign politics, the expences of the nation, not only in ſettling the new eſtabliſhment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals on the continent, for the ſecurity of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, ſettling the Spaniſh ſucceſſions ſupporting the houſe of Auſtria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purpoſes, increaſed to an unuſual degree; inſomuch that it was not thought adviſeable to raiſe all the expences of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, leaſt the unaccuſtomed weight of them ſhould create murmurs among the people. It was therefore the bad policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of their poſterity, by borrowing immenſe ſums for the current ſervice of the ſtate, and to lay no more taxes upon the ſubject than would ſuffice to pay the annual intereſt of the ſums ſo borrowed: by this means converting the principal debt into a new ſpecies of property, transferable from one man to another, at any time and in any quantity. A ſyſtem which ſeems to have had its original in the ſtate of Florence, A. D. 1344: which government then owed about 60,000l. ſterling; and being unable to pay it, formed the principal into an aggregate ſum, called, metaphorically a mount or bank; the ſhares whereof were transferable like our ſtocks. This laid the foundation of what is called the NATIONAL DEBT: for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II. will hardly deſerve that name. And the example then ſet, has been ſo cloſely followed during the long wars in the reign of queen Anne, and ſince, that the capital of the funded debt, at Midſummer 1775 was 129, 860,018l. and the annual charge of it amounted to 4,219,244l. 7s. The unfortunate American war, commencing at this time, and the execrable policy of continuing and alienating the ſinking fund, with the extravagancies in every department of government, and the manner of borrowing the money for ſupplies, have conſiderably increaſed it †.

* From the year 1644, to 1744, the annual amount of this revenue gradually increaſed from 5000l. to 198,326l. but it ſhould be obſerved, that the groſs amount of both inland and foreign offices was that year 235,492l. In 1764, the groſs amount of the revenue of the Poſt office for that year was 432,048l. which by the act paſſed in the ſeſſions of 1784, increaſing the duty according to the diſtance, and abridging the franking, muſt be conſiderably augmented.

† In the courſe of the late war, from 1776 to 1782, 46,550,000l. was added to the 3 per cents. and 29,750,000l. to the 4 per cents. making together a capital of 73,400,000l. for which the money advanced was only 48 millions.

They

The following was the ſtate of the national debt in the year 1783, extracted from the eleventh report of the commiſſioners of the public accounts:

£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
211,363,254	15	4¾	Funded debt			
			Intereſt thereon - -	7,951,390	1	0,
18,856,541	11	4½	Uufounded, 1ſt of October, 1783.			
			Fifteen millions of this bears intereſt now.			
			Intereſt thereon - -	612,841	0	0
230,219,706	6	9½				
			Charges at the Bank for managing the buſineſs - -	134,291	13	1
			Fees at the auditor's office of impreſt - - -	19,774	2	7
			Some other fees of office -	696	12	4
				8,719,534	9	1
			Since this report, the funded debt hath increaſed to	232,280,349	0	0
			The unfunded debt meaning all expences, deficiencies, arrears, and outſtanding debts, for paying the principal or intereſt of which no proviſion was made by parliament, may be moderately reckoned - -	38,000,000	0	0
			The amount of exchequer bills - - -	9,418,564	0	0
				279,698,913	0	0
			Thus the whole annual charge brought upon the nation by its debts funded and unfunded, appear to be about - - - -	9,500,000	0	0
			Peace eſtabliſhment reckoned at the average annual expence for eleven years preceding the war -	3,950,000	0	0
			Income of the civil liſt - - -	900,000	0	0
			Whole expenditure - - -	14,350,000	0	0

The ſupplies demanded for the year 1784 amonnted to 14,181,240l. but an eminent political writer, lord Stair, reckons the future annual peace expenditure at ſixteen millions and a half, including half a million for a ſurplus to anſwer emergencies. Another reſpectable writer on the ſubject eſtimates it at 13,615,609l. including 954000l *per anuum* for the intereſt and charge of what remained of the unfunded debt after the laſt loan, and he eſtimates the peace revenue at near ſixteen millions. Time will unfold the future progreſs of onr national debt, and the calamities towards which it is carrying us, if the moſt effectual meaſures are not adopted and zealouſly purſed for a thorough reformation.

It is indiſputably certain, that the preſent magnitude of our national incumbrances very far exceed all calculations of commercial benefit, and is productive

ductive of the greateſt inconveniences. For, firſt, the enormous taxes that are raiſed upon the neceſſaries of life, for the payment of the intereſt of this debt, are a hurt both to trade and manufactures; by raiſing the price as well of the artificer's ſubſiſtence, as of the raw material; and of courſe, in a much greater proportion, the price of the commodity itſelf. Secondly, if part of this debt be owing to foreigners, either they draw out of the kingdom annually a conſiderable quantity of ſpecie for the intereſt; or elſe it is made an argument to grant them unreaſonable privileges, in order to induce them to reſide here. Thirdly, if the whole be owing to ſubjects only, it is then charging the active and induſtrious ſubject, who pays his ſhare of the taxes, to maintain the indolent and idle creditor who receives them. Laſtly, and principally, it weakens the internal ſtrength of a ſtate, by anticipating thoſe reſources which ſhould be reſerved to defend it in caſe of neceſſity. The intereſt we now pay for our debts would be nearly ſufficient to maintain any war, that any national motives could require. And if our anceſtors in king William's time had annually paid ſo long as their exigences laſted, even a leſs ſum than we now annually raiſe upon their account, they would, in time of war, have borne no greater burdens than they have bequeathed to and ſettled upon their poſterity in the time of peace, and might have been eaſed the inſtant the exigence was over.

The produce of the ſeveral taxes before mentioned were originally ſeparate and diſtinct funds; being ſecurities for the ſums advanced on each ſeveral tax, and for them only. But at laſt it became neceſſary, in order to avoid confuſion, as they multiplied yearly, to reduce the number of theſe ſeparate funds, by uniting and blending them together, ſuperadding the faith of parliament for the general ſecurity of the whole. So that there are now only three capital funds of any account: the *aggregate fund*, the whole produce of which hath been for ſome years about 2,600,000l. *per annum*; the *general fund*, ſo called from ſuch union and addition, which for ſome years have amounted to rather more than a million *per annum*; and the *South Sea fund*, being the produce of the taxes appropriated to pay the intereſt of ſuch part of the national debt as was advanced by that company and its annuitants, the produce of which lately hath been about half a million *per annum*. Whereby the ſeparate funds, which were thus united, are become mutual ſecurities for each other; and the whole produce of them, thus aggregated, liable to pay ſuch intereſt or annuities as were formerly charged upon each diſtinct fund; the faith of the legiſlature being moreover engaged to ſupply any caſual deficiencies.

The cuſtoms, exciſes, and other taxes, which are to ſupport theſe funds, depending on contingencies, upon exports, imports, and conſumptions, muſt neceſſarily be of a very uncertain amount: but they have always been conſiderably more than ſufficient to anſwer the charge upon them. The ſurpluſſes therefore of the three great national funds, the aggregate, general, and South Sea funds, over and above the intereſt and annuities charged upon them, are directed by ſtatute 3 Geo. I. c. 7. to be carried together, and to attend the diſpoſition of parliament; and are uſually denominated the *ſinking fund*, becauſe originally deſtined to be held ſacred, and to be applied inviolably to the redemption of the national debt. To this have been ſince added many other entire duties, granted in ſubſequent years; and the annual intereſt of the ſums borrowed on their reſpective credits, is charged on, and payable out of the produce of the ſinking fund. However, the neat ſurpluſſes and ſavings, after all deductions paid, amount annually to a very conſiderable ſum. For, as the intereſt on the national debt has been at ſeveral times reduced (by the conſent of the proprietors, who had their option either to lower their intereſt, or

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be paid their principal), the ſavings from the appropriated revenues muſt needs be extremely large. This ſinking fund is the laſt reſort of the nation; its only domeſtic reſource, on which muſt chiefly depend all the hopes we can entertain of ever diſcharging or moderating our incumbrances. And therefore the prudent application of the large ſums, now ariſing from this fund, is a point of the utmoſt importance, and well worthy the ſerious attention of parliament.

Between the years 1727 and 1732, ſeveral encroachments were made upon the ſinking fund; and in the year 1733, half a million was taken from it by Sir Robert Walpole, under pretence of eaſing the landed intereſt. The practice of alienating the ſinking fund begin thus begun, hath continued of courſe; and in 1736, it was anticipated and mortgaged; and every ſubſequent adminiſtration hath broken in upon it, thus converting the excellent expedient for ſaving the kingdom, into a ſupply for extravagance, and a ſupport of corruption and deſpotiſm.

In ſome years, the ſinking fund hath produced from two to three millions *per annum*, and if only 1,212,000l. of it had been inviolably applied to the redemption of the public debts, from the year 1733, inſtead of only eight millions and a half paid off by it, as is the caſe at preſent, one hundred and ſixty millions would have been paid, and the nation have been extricated and ſaved. Different ſchemes have been formed for paying the public debts, but no method can be ſo expeditious and effectual as an unalienable ſinking fund, as this money is improved at *compound intereſt*, and therefore in the moſt perfect manner, but money procured by a loan, bears only ſimple intereſt. "A nation therefore, whenever it applies the income of ſuch a fund to current expences rather than the redemption of its debts, chuſes to loſe the benefit of compound intereſt in order to avoid paying ſimple intereſt, and the loſs in this caſe is equal to the difference between the increaſe of money at compound and ſimple intereſt *."

Before any part of the *aggregate fund* (the ſurpluſſes whereof are one of the chief ingredients that form the ſinking fund) can be applied to diminiſh the principal of the public debt, it ſtands mortgaged by parliament to raiſe an annual ſum for the maintainance of the king's houſehold and the civil liſt. For this purpoſe, in the late reigns, the produce of certain branches of the exciſe and cuſtoms, the poſt-office, the duty on wine-licences, the revenues of the remaining crown lands, the profit ariſing from courts of

* Dr. Price's calculation plainly ſhews what this difference is: "One penny put out at our Saviour's birth to 5 per cent compounded intereſt, would, in the year 1781, have increaſed to a greater ſum than would be contained in 200,000,000 of earths all ſolid gold; but if put out at ſimple intereſt, it at the ſame time would have amounted to no more than ſeven ſhillings and ſix-pence. All governments that alienate funds deſtined for reimburſements chooſe to improve money in the *laſt* rather than the *firſt* of theſe ways." He adds, "A million borrowed anually for twenty years, will pay off, in this time, 55 millions 3 per cent. ſtock, if diſcharged at 60l, in money for every 100l. ſtock; and in 40 years more, without any farther aid from loans, 333 millions (that is, 388 millions in all) would be paid off.

"The addition of nineteen years to this period would pay off 1000 millions.

"A ſurplus of half a million per annum, made up to a million by borrowing half a million every year for twenty years, would diſcharge the ſame ſums in the ſame periods.

"In ſhort, ſo neceſſary is it at preſent to expedite, by every poſſible means, the redemption of our debts, that, let the ſurplus which can be obtained for a ſinking fund be what it will, an addition to it by annual loans, will be proper, in order to give it greater efficiency and a better chance for ſaving the kingdom.——The increaſe of taxes which ſuch a meaſure muſt occaſion, would be ſo inconſiderable and ſo gradual, as to be ſcarcely perceptible; and at the ſame time, it would manifeſt ſuch a determined reſolution in our rulers to reduce our debts, as might have the happieſt influence on public credit."

quantity

juſtice (which articles include all the hereditary revenue of the crown), and alſo a clear annuity of 120,000l. in money, were ſettled on the king for life, for the ſupport of his majeſty houſhold, and the honour and dignity of the crown. And as the amount of theſe ſeveral branches were uncertain, (though in the laſt reign they were computed to have ſometimes raiſed almoſt a million), if they did not riſe annually to 800,000l. the parliament engaged to make up the deficiency. But his preſent majeſty having, ſoon after his acceſſion, ſpontaneouſly ſignified his conſent, that his own hereditary revenues might be ſo diſpoſed of, as might beſt conduce to the utility and ſatisfaction of the public; and having accepted the limited ſum of 800,000l. *per annum*, for the ſupport of his civil liſt (and that alſo charged with the three life annuities to the princeſs of Wales, the duke of Cumberland, and princeſs Amelia, to the amount of 77,000l.), the ſaid hereditary, and other revenues, are now carried into, and make, part of the aggregate fund; and the aggregate fund is charged with the payment of the whole annuity to the crown, beſides annual payments to the dukes of Glouceſter and Cumberland, and the repreſentatives of Arthur Onſlow, eſq. and the earl of Chatham. Hereby the revenues themſelves, being put under the ſame care and management as the other branches of the public patrimony, will produce more, and be better collected, than heretofore. The civil liſt, thus liquidated, together with the millions intereſt of the national debt, and the ſums produced from the ſinking fund, beſides the uncertain ſums ariſing from the annual taxes on land and malt, and others lately impoſed, make the clear produce of the taxes, excluſive of the charges of collecting, which are raiſed yearly on the people of this country, amount to upward of fourteen millions ſterling. The amount of the capitals of the reſpective public funds, may be ſeen in the following page.

The Amount of the Capitals at the Bank, South Sea and India Houſes. Corrected to the 5th of January, 1787.				Intereſt per annum.			When due.	When Transferrable.	Holidays.
Bank ſtock	11,642,400			698,544			5 Ap. & 10 Oct.	Tu. Thu. & Fri.	Jan. 1, 6, 18, 25, 30.
5 per cent. navy annuities *	17,869,993	9	10	893,499	13	5	5 Jan. & 5 July.	M. W. & Fri.	Feb. 2, 24.
4 per cent. conſols	32,750,000			1,310,000			5 Ap. & 10 Oct.	Tu. W. Thu. & F.	March 25.
3 per cent. conſols	107,399,696	5	1	3,221,990	17		5 Jan. & 5 July.	ditto	April 23. 25.
3 per cent. reduced	37,340,073	16	4	1,120,202	4	3	5 Ap. & 10 Oct.	ditto	May 1, 29.
3 per cent. 1726	1,000,000			30,000			5 Jan. & 5 July.	Tu. & Thu.	June 4, 11, 24, 29.
Long annuities †				680,375			ditto	Tu. W. &. S.	July 25.
Short annuities, 1778 and 1779 §				412,500			5 Jan. & 5 July.	M. W. & Fr.	Aug. 1, 12, 24.
									Sept. 2, 21, 22, 29.
South Sea ſtock	3,662,784	2	7	128,197	9	1	5 Jan. & 5 July.	M. W. & Fri.	Oct. 18, 25, 26, 28.
3 per cent. old annuities	11,907,470	2	10	357,224	2		5 Ap. & 10 Oct.	ditto	Nov. 1, 4, 5, 9, 30.
3 per cent. new	8,494,830			254,844	18	1	5 Jan. & 5 July.	Tu. Thu. & Sat.	Dec. 21, 25, 26, 27, 28.
3 per cent. 1751	1,919,600			57,588			ditto	Tu. & Thu.	Moveable.
									Shrove Tu. Aſh W.
India ſtock	4,000,000			320,000			5 Ap, & 5 July.	Tu. Thu. & Sat.	Good Friday.
3 per cent. annuities	3,000,000			90,000			5 Jan. & 10 Oct.	M. W. & Fri.	Eaſ. M. T. W. Ho. T.
									Whit. M. Tu. & W.
N. B. Intereſt on India Bonds, due 21ſt of March, and 30 Sep.	240,188,848	5	2	9,536,026	4	7	N. B. Divids paid at the Bank from 9 to 11, and 1 to 3. Transfers 11 to 1. Divids at the S. S. & Ind. Houſe. 9 to 12. Transfers 12 to 1.		

* Redeemable when 25 millions of the 3 or 4 per cents. are paid.

† Theſe will fall in January 1880.

§ Theſe will fall in 1808.

The expences defrayed by the civil liſt, are thoſe that in any ſhape relate to civil government; as the expences of the houſhold, all ſalaries to officers of ſtate, to the judges, and every one of the king's ſervants; the appointments to foreign ambaſſadors, the maintenance of the queen and royal family, the king's private expences, or privy purſe, and other very numerous outgoings; as ſecret ſervice money, penſions, and other bounties. Theſe ſometimes have ſo far exceeded the revenues appointed for that purpoſe, that application has been made to parliament to diſcharge the debts contracted on the civil liſt; as particularly in 1724, when one million was granted for that purpoſe by the ſtatute 11 Geo. I. c. 17. Large ſums have alſo been repeatedly granted for the payment of the king's debts in the preſent reign; and the conſiderable augmentation of 100,000l. has likewiſe been made to his annual income. When the bill for ſuppreſſing certain offices, as the board of trade, &c. was debated, by which ſavings were to be made to the amount of 72,308l. per annum, it appeared that the arrears then due on the civil liſt at that time, June 1782, amounted to 95,877l. 18s. 4d. notwithſtanding ſo liberal an allowance had been recently made, and the king's debts had been repeatedly liquidated by parliamentary grants; and for the payment of this other debt, proviſion was made by the bill.

The civil liſt is indeed properly the whole of the king's revenue in his own diſtinct capacity; the reſt being rather the revenue of the public, or its creditors, though collected and diſtributed again in the name, and by the officers of the crown; it is now ſtanding in the ſame place as the hereditary income did formerly; and as that has gradually diminiſhed, the parliamentary appointments have increaſed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The *military ſtate* includes the whole of the ſoldiery; or ſuch perſons as are peculiarly appointed among the reſt of the people, for the ſafeguard and defence of the realm.

In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a diſtinct order of the profeſſion of arms. In ſuch, no man ſhould take up arms but with a view to defend his country and its laws: he puts not off the citizen when he enters the camp; but it is becauſe he is a citizen and would wiſh to continue ſo, that he makes himſelf for a while a ſoldier. The laws and conſtitution of theſe kingdoms know no ſuch ſtate as that of a perpetual ſtanding ſoldier, bred up to no other profeſſion than that of war; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had ſo much as a guard about their perſons.

It ſeems univerſally agreed by all hiſtorians, that king Alfred firſt ſettled a national militia in this kingdom, and by his prudent diſcipline made all the ſubjects of his dominions ſoldiers.

In the mean time we are not to imagine that the kingdom was left wholly without defence, in caſe of domeſtic inſurrections, or the proſpect of foreign invaſions. Beſides thoſe, who, by their military tenures, were bound to perform forty days ſervice in the field, the ſtatute of Wincheſter obliged every man, according to his eſtate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of ſuch arms as were then in uſe, in order to keep the peace: and conſtables were appointed in all hundreds, to ſee that ſuch arms were provided. Theſe weapons were changed by the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 2. into others of more modern ſervice: but both this and the former proviſions were repealed in the reign of James I. While theſe continued in force, it was uſually from time to time, for our princes to iſſue commiſſions

of

of array, and ſend into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muſter and array (or ſet in military order) the inhabitants of every diſtrict; and the form of the commiſſion of array was ſettled in parliament in the 5 Henry IV. But at the ſame time it was provided, that no man ſhould be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of his ſhire, but in caſes of urgent neceſſity; nor ſhould provide ſoldiers unleſs by conſent of parliament. About the reign of king Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as ſtanding repreſentatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order; for we find them mentioned as known officers in the ſtatute 4 and 5 Ph. and M. c. 3. though they had not been then long in uſe: for Camden ſpeaks of them in the time of queen Elizabeth as extraordinary magiſtrates, conſtituted only in times of difficulty and danger.

Soon after the reſtoration of king Charles II. when the military tenures were aboliſhed, it was thought proper to aſcertain the power of the militia, to recogniſe the ſole right of the crown, to govern and command them, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military ſubordination: and the order in which the militia now ſtands by law, is principally built upon the ſtatutes which were then enacted. It is true, the two laſt of them are apparently repealed; but many of their proviſions are re-enacted, with the addition of ſome new regulations, by the preſent militia-laws; the general ſcheme of which is, to diſcipline a certain number of the inhabitants of every county, choſen by lot for three years, and officered by the lord lieutenant, the deputy lieutenants, and other principal land-holders, under a commiſſion from the crown. They are not compellable to march out of their counties, unleſs in caſe of invaſion, or actual rebellion, nor in any caſe to be ſent out of the kingdom. They are to be exerciſed at ſtated times, and their diſcipline in general is liberal and eaſy; but, when drawn out into actual ſervice, they are ſubject to the rigours of martial law, as neceſſary to keep them in order. This is the conſtitutional ſecurity which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm againſt foreign or domeſtic violence, and which the ſtatutes declare, is eſſentially neceſſary to the ſafety and proſperity of the kingdom; the militia, however, are not called forth and embodied but by an act of the legiſlature, and at preſent are laid aſide.

But as the faſhion of keeping ſtanding armies has univerſally prevailed over all Europe of late years (though ſome of its potentates, being unable themſelves to maintain them, are obliged to have recourſe to richer powers, and receive ſubſidiary penſions for that purpoſe), it has alſo for many years paſt been annually judged neceſſary by our legiſlature, for the ſafety of the kingdom, the defence of the poſſeſſions of the crown of Great Britain, and the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a ſtanding body of troops, under the command of the crown; who are, however, *ipſo facto*, diſbanded at the expiration of every year, unleſs continued by parliament. The land forces of theſe kingdoms, in time of peace, amount to about 40,000 men, including troops and garriſons in Ireland, Gibraltar, the Eaſt Indies, and America; but in time of war, there have formerly been in Britiſh pay, natives and foreigners, above 150,000; and there have been in the pay of Great Britain, ſince the commencement of the America war, 135,000 men, beſides 42,000 militia. To keep this body of troops in order, an annual act of parliament paſſes, "to puniſh mutiny and deſertion, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters." This regulates the manner in which they are to be diſperſed among the ſeveral inn-keepers and victuallers throughout the kingdom; and eſtabliſhes a law martial for their government.

The MARITIME ſtate is nearly related to the former, though much more agreeable to the principles of our free conſtitution. The royal navy of England hath ever been its greateſt defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural ſtrength; the floating bulwark of the iſland; an army, from which, however ſtrong and powerful, no danger can ever be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it has been aſſiduouſly cultivated, even from the earlieſt ages. To ſo much perfection was our naval reputation arrived in the twelfth century, that the code of maritime laws, which are called the laws of Oleron, and are received by all nations in Europe as the ground and ſubſtruction of all the marine conſtitutions, was confeſſedly compiled by our king Richard I. at the iſle of Oleron, on the coaſt of France, then part of the poſſeſſions of the crown of England. And yet, ſo vaſtly inferior were our anceſtors in this point to the preſent age, that, even in the maritime reign of queen Elizabeth, Sir Edward Coke thinks it matter of boaſt that the royal navy of England then conſiſted of 33 ſhips. The preſent condition of our marine is in great meaſure owing to the ſalutary proviſions of the ſtatute, called the navigation act; whereby the conſtant increaſe of Engliſh ſhipping and ſeamen was not only encouraged, but rendered unavoidably neceſſary. The moſt beneficial ſtatute for the trade and commerce of theſe kingdoms, is that navigation act; the rudiments of which were firſt framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the ſugar iſlands, which were diſaffected to the parliament, and ſtill held out for Charles II. by ſtopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch; and at the ſame time to clip the wings of thoſe our opulent and aſpiring neighbours. This prohibited all ſhips of foreign nations from trading with any Engliſh plantations without licence from the council of ſtate, In 1651, the prohibition was extended alſo to the mother country; and no goods were ſuffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than Engliſh bottoms, or in the ſhips of that European nation, of which the merchandiſe imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Reſtoration, the former proviſions were continued, by ſtatute 12 Car. II. c. 18. with this very material improvement, that the maſter, and three-fourths of the mariners, ſhall alſo be Engliſh ſubjects.

The complement of ſeamen, in time of peace, uſually hath amounted to 12 or 15,000. The vote of parliament for the ſervice of the year 1784, was for 26,000 ſeamen, including 4425 marines In time of war, they have formerly amounted to no leſs than 80,000 men; and after the commencement of the American war, they amounted to above 100,000 men, including marines, at preſent they amount to 120,000.

This navy is commonly divided into three ſquadrons, namely, the red, white, and blue, which are ſo termed from the differences of their colours. Each ſquadron has its admiral; but the admiral of the red ſquadron has the principal command of the whole, and is ſtyled vice-admiral of Great Britain. Subject to each admiral is alſo a vice and rear-admiral. But the ſupreme command of our naval force is, next to the king, in the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty. Notwithſtanding our favourable ſituation for a maritime power, it was not until the vaſt armament ſent to ſubdue us by Spain, in 1588, that the nation, by a vigorous effort, became fully ſenſible of its true intereſt and natural ſtrength, which it has ſince ſo happily cultivated.

We may venture to affirm, that the Britiſh navy, during the war of 1756, was able to cope with all the other fleets in Europe. In the courſe of a few years it entirely vanquiſhed the whole naval power of France, diſabled Spain, and kept the Dutch and other powers in awe. For the protection

of the Britiſh empire, and the annoyance of our enemies, it was then divided into ſeveral powerful ſquadrons, ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, as at once to appear in every quarter of the globe; and while ſome fleets were humbling the pride of Spain in Aſia and America, others were employed in fruſtrating the deſigns of France, and eſcorting home the riches of the eaſtern and weſtern worlds. But the naval power of Great Britain never appeared in ſuch ſplendour as during the preſent war, whether we conſider the number of our ſhips ſtationed in all quarters of the globe, or the aſtoniſhing victories they have gained over the fleets of France, Spain and Holland, which they have almoſt totally annihilated. The fleet of Great Britain at preſent conſiſts of about 775 ſhips of which 196 are of the Line, during the preſent war ſhe has taken from her enemies about 200 ſhips of war of which 53 are of the line, of ſuch unexampled ſucceſs our hiſtory affords no example.

I ſhall cloſe this account of the military and maritime ſtrength of England, or rather of Great Britain, by obſerving, that though ſea officers and ſailors are ſubject to a perpetual act of parliament, which anſwers the annual military act, that is paſſed for the government of the army, yet neither of thoſe bodies are exempted from legal juriſdiction in civil or criminal caſes, but in a few inſtances, of no great moment. The ſoldiers particularly, may be called upon by a civil magiſtrate, to enable him to preſerve the peace againſt all attempts to break it. The military officer who commands the ſoldiers on thoſe occaſions, is to take his directions from the magiſtrate; and both he and they, if their proceedings are regular, are indemnified againſt all conſequences, be they ever ſo fatal. Thoſe civil magiſtrates, who underſtand the principles of the conſtitution, are however, extremely cautious in calling for the military on theſe occaſions, or upon any commotion whatever; and, indeed, with good reaſon; for the frequent employment of the military power in a free government is exceedingly dangerous, and cannot be guarded againſt with too much caution.

COINS.] In Great Britain money is computed by pounds, ſhillings, and pence, twelve pence making a ſhilling, and twenty ſhillings one pound; which pound is only an imaginary coin. The gold pieces conſiſt only of guineas, half guineas, and ſeven ſhilling pieces, the ſilver, of crowns, half crowns, ſhillings, ſixpences, groats, and even down to a ſilver penny: and the copper money, pennies, halfpence and farthings. In a country like England, where the intrinſic value of ſilver is nearly equal, and in ſome coins, crown pieces particularly ſuperior to the nominal, the coinage of ſilver money is a matter of great conſequence; and yet the preſent ſtate of the national currency ſeems to demand a new coinage of ſhillings and ſix-pences; the intrinſic value of the latter being many of them worn down to half their nominal value. This can only be done by an act of parliament, and by the public loſing the difference between the bullion of the new and the old money. Beſides the coins already mentioned, five and two guinea pieces are coined at the Tower of London, but theſe are not generally current; nor is any ſilver coin that is lower than ſix-pence. The coins of the famous Simon, in the time of Cromwell, and in the beginning of Charles II.'s reign, are remarkable for their beauty.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS.] The title of the king of England is, By the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith. The deſignation of the kings of England, was formerly his or her Grace, or Highneſs, till Henry VIII. to put himſelf on a footing with the emperor Charles V. aſſumed that of majeſty; but the old deſignation was not aboliſhed till towards the end of queen Elizabeth's reign.

Since the acceſſion of the preſent royal family of Great Britain, anno 1714, the royal atchievement is marſhalled as follows: quarterly, in the firſt grand quarter, *Mars, three lions paſſant guardant, in pal Sol*, the imperial enſigns of England, impaled, with the royal arms of Scotland, which are, *Sol, a lion rampant within a double treſſure-flowered, and counter-flowered, with fleurs-de-lis, Mars.* The ſecond qnarter in the royal arms of France, viz. *Jupiter, three fleurs-de-lis, Sol.* The third, the enſigns of Ireland; which is, *Jupiter, an harp, Sol, ſtringed, Luna.* And the fourth grand quarter is his preſent majeſty's own coat, viz. *Mars, two lions paſſant guardant, Sol*, for Brunſwick, impaled with Lunenburg, which is *Sol, Semée of hearts, proper, a lion rampant, Jupiter*; having ancient Saxony, viz. *Mars, an horſe currant, Luna, ente* (or grafted) *in baſe; and in a ſhield ſurtout, Mars, the diadem, or crown of Charlemagne*; the whole, within a garter, as ſovereign of that moſt noble order of knighthood.

The motto of *Dieu et mon Droit*, that is, *God and my Right*, is as old as the reign of Richard I. who aſſumed it to ſhew his independency upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he laid claim to the crown of France. Almoſt every king of England had a particular badge or cogniſance: ſometimes a white hart, ſometimes a fetlock with a falcon, by which it is ſaid Edward IV. alluded to the infidelity of one of his miſtreſſes; and ſometimes a portcullis, which was that of the houſe of Lancaſter, many of the princes of which were born in the caſtle of Beaufort. The white roſe was the bearing of the houſe of York; and that of Lancaſter, by way of contradiſtinction, adopted the red. The thiſtle, which is now part of the royal armorial bearings, belonged to Scotland, and was very ſignificant when joined to its motto, *Nemo me impune Laceſſet*, "None ſhall ſafely provoke me."

The titles of the king's eldeſt ſon, are, prince of Wales, duke of Cornwall and Rothſay, earl of Cheſter, electoral prince of Brunſwick and Lunenburg, earl of Carrick, baron of Renfrew, lord of the Iſles, great ſteward of Scotland, and captain-general of the artillery company.

The order of the GARTER, the moſt honourable of any in the world, was inſtituted by Edward III, January 19, 1344. It conſiſts of the ſovereign, who is always king or queen of England, of 25 companions called Knights of the Garter, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, ſuppoſed to be the tutelar ſaint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, ſuſpended from a blue ribband, which was formerly worn about their necks, but ſince the latter end of James I. now croſſes their bodies from their ſhoulder. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, and gives the name to the order, was deſigned as an enſign of unity and combination; on it is embroidered the words, *Honi ſoi qui mal y penſe*, "Evil to him who evil thinks."

Knights of the BATH, ſo called from their bathing at the time of their creation, are ſuppoſed to be inſtituted by Henry IV. about the year 1399, but the order ſeems to be more ancient. For many reigns they were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or other ſolemn occaſions, and they wear a ſcarlet ribband hanging from the left ſhoulder, with an enamelled medal, the badge of the order, a roſe iſſuing from the dexter ſide of a ſceptre, and a thiſtle from the ſiniſter, between three imperial crowns placed within the motto, *Tria juncta in uno*, "Three joined in one." This order being diſcontinued, was revived by king George I. on the 18th of May, 1725, and the month following, eighteen noblemen, and as many commoners of the firſt rank, were inſtalled knights of the order with great ceremony, at Weſtmin-

ſter

ſter, where the place of inſtalment is Henry VII.'s chapel. Their robes are ſplendid and ſhewy, and the number of knights is undetermined. The biop of Rocheſter is perpetual dean of the order, which has likewiſe a regiſter and other officers.

The order of the THISTLE, as belonging to Scotland, is mentioned in the account of that kingdom; as is alſo the order of St. Patrick, newly inſtituted for Ireland, in our account of that kingdom.

The origin of the Engliſh peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. Their titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquiſſes, earls, viſcounts, and lords or barons.

Baronets can ſcarcely be ſaid to belong to an order, having no other badge than a bloody hand in a field, argent, in their arms. They are the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the Garter, were it not that the latter are always privy counſellors; there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were inſtituted by James I. about the year 1615. Their number was then two hundred, and each paid about 1000l. on pretence of reducing and planting the province of Ulſter in Ireland: but at preſent their number amounts to 700.

A knight is a term uſed almoſt in every nation in Europe, and in general ſignifies a ſoldier ſerving on horſeback; a rank of no mean eſtimation in ancient armies, and entitling the parties themſelves to the appellation of *Sir*. Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; ſuch as thoſe of *bannerets*, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like, but they are now diſuſed. Indeed in the year 1773, at a review of the royal navy at Portſmouth, the king conferred the honour of Knights Bannerets on two admirals and three captains. They have no particular badge on their garments, but their arms are painted on a banner placed in the frames of the ſupporters.

It is ſomewhat difficult to account for the origin of the word *eſquire*, which formerly ſignified a perſon bearing the arms of a nobleman or knight, and they were therefore called armigeri. This title denoted any perſon, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at preſent applied promiſcuouſly to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman without trade; and even a tradeſman, if he is a juſtice of peace, demands the appellation. This degree, ſo late as in the reign of Henry IV. was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck a collar of SS. and giving him a pair of ſilver ſpurs. Gower the poet appears, from his effigies on his tomb in Southwark, to have been an eſquire by creation. Serjeants at-law, and other ſerjeants belonging to the king's houſhold, juſtices of the peace, doctors in divinity, law, and phyſic, take place of other eſquires; and it is remarkable, that all the ſons of dukes, marquiſſes, earls, viſcounts, and barons, are in the eye of the law no more than eſquires, though commonly deſigned by noble titles. The appellation of gentleman, though now confounded with the mean ranks of people, is the root of all Engliſh honour; for every nobleman is preſumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed that the firſt inhabitants of Britain were a tribe of the Gauls, or Celtæ, that ſettled on the oppoſite ſhore; a ſuppoſition founded upon the evident conformity in their language, manners, government, religion, and complexion.

When Julius Cæſar, about fifty-two years before the birth of Chriſt, meditated a conqueſt of Britain, the natives, undoubtedly, had great connections with the Gauls, and other people of the continent, in government, religion, and

and commerce, rude as the latter was. Cæſar wrote the hiſtory of his two expeditions, which he pretended were accompanied with vaſt difficulties, and attended by ſuch advantages over the iſlanders, that they agreed to pay tribute. It plainly appears, however, from contemporary and other authors, as well as Cæſar's own narrative, that his victories were incomplete and indeciſive; nor did the Romans receive the leaſt advantage from his expedition, but a better knowledge of the iſland than they had before. The Britons, at the time of Cæſar's deſcent, were governed in the time of war by a political confederacy, of which Caſſibelan, whoſe territories lay in Hertfordſhire, and ſome of the adjacent counties, was the head; and this form of government continued among them for ſome time.

In their manner of life, as deſcribed by Cæſar, and the beſt authors, they differed little from the rude inhabitants of the northern climates that have been already mentioned; but they certainly ſowed corn, though perhaps, they chiefly ſubſiſted upon animal food and milk. Their clothing was ſkins, and their fortifications beams of wood. They were dexterous in the management of their chariots beyond credibility; and they fought with lances, darts, and ſwords. Women ſometimes led their armies to the field, and were recogniſed as ſovereigns of their particular diſtricts. They favoured a primogeniture or ſeniority, in their ſucceſſion to royalty, but ſet it aſide on the ſmalleſt inconveniency attending it. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluiſh or greeniſh caſt; and they are ſaid to have had figures of animals, and heavenly bodies on their ſkins. In their marriages they were not very delicate, for they formed themſelves into what we may call matrimonial clubs. Twelve or fourteen men married as many wives, and each wife was in common to them all, but her children belonged to the original husband.

The Britons lived, during the long reign of Auguſtus Cæſar, rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communications between Rome and Great Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius Cæſar, about forty-two years after the birth of Chriſt, undertook an expedition in perſon, in which he ſeems to have been ſucceſsful againſt Britain. His conqueſts, however, were imperfect; Caractacus, and Boadicia, though a woman, made noble ſtands againſt the Romans. The former was taken priſoner after a deſperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius, gained him the admiration of the victors, and is celebrated in the hiſtories of the times. Boadicia being oppreſſed in a manner that diſgraces the Roman name, and defeated, diſdained to ſurvive the liberties of her country; and Agricola, general to Domitian, after ſubduing South Britain, carried his arms northwards; as has been already ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland, where his ſucceſſors had no reaſon to boaſt of their progreſs, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the time the Romans remained in this iſland, they erected thoſe walls I have ſo often mentioned, to protect the Britons from the invaſions of the Caledonians, Scots, and Picts; and we are told, that the Roman language, learning, and cuſtoms, became familiar in Britain. There ſeems to be no great foundation for this aſſertion; and it is more probable that the Romans conſidered Britain chiefly as a nurſery for their armies abroad, on account of their ſuperior ſtrength of body, and courage of the inhabitants, when diſciplined. That this was the caſe, appears plainly enough from the defenceleſs ſtate of the Britons, when the government of Rome recalled her forces from that iſland. I have already taken notice, that during the abode of the Romans in Britain, they introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and it is certain, that under them the South

South Britons were reduced to a ſtate of great vaſſalage, and that the genius of liberty retreated northwards, where the natives had made a brave reſiſtance againſt theſe tyrants of the world. For though the Britons were unqueſtionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, yet we know no ſtruggle they made in latter times, for their independency at home notwithſtanding the many favourable opportunities that preſented themſelves. The Roman emperors and generals while in this iſland, aſſiſted by the Britons, were entirely employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians and Picts (the latter are thought to have been the ſouthern Britons retired northwards), and they appeared to have been in no pain about the ſouthern provinces.

Upon the mighty inundations of thoſe barbarous nations, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itſelf *, the Roman legions were withdrawn out of Britain, with the flower of the Britiſh youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the empire; and that they might leave the iſland with a good grace, they aſſiſted the Britons in rebuilding with ſtone the wall of Severus, between Newcaſtle and Carliſle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers: and having done this good office, took their laſt farewel of Britain about the year 448, after having been maſters of the moſt fertile parts of it, if we reckon from the invaſion of Julius Cæſar, near 500 years.

The Scots and Picts finding the whole iſland finally deſerted by the Roman legions, now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked Severus's wall with redoubled forces, ravaged all before them with a fury peculiar to northern nations in thoſe ages, and which a remembrance of former injuries could not fail to inſpire. The poor Britons, like a helpleſs family, deprived of their parent and protector, already ſubdued by their own fears, had again recourſe to Rome, and ſent over their miſerable epiſtle for relief (ſtill upon record), which was addreſſed in theſe words: *To Aetius, thrice conſul: The groans of the Britons;* and after other lamentable complaints, ſaid, *That the barbarians drove them to the ſea, and the ſea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left of periſhing by the ſword or by the waves.* But having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any ſuccours from that ſide, they began to conſider what other nation they might call over to their relief; Gildas, who was himſelf a Briton, deſcribes the degeneracy of his countrymen at this time in mournful ſtrains, and gives ſome confuſed hints of their officers, and the names of ſome of their kings, particularly one Vortigern, chief of the *Danmonii*, by whoſe advice the Britons ſtruck a bargain with two Saxon chiefs, Hengiſt and Horſa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. The Saxons were in thoſe days maſters of what is now called the the Engliſh channel, and their native countries comprehending Scandinavia and the northern parts of Germany, being overſtocked with inhabitants, they readily accepted the invitation of the Britons; whom they relieved, by checking the progreſs of the Scots and Picts, and had the iſland of Thanet allowed them for their reſidence. But their own country was ſo populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain ſo agreeable and alluring, that in a very little time, Hengiſt and Horſa began to meditate a ſettlement or themſelves; and freſh ſupplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons ſoon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent ſtruggle of near 150 years, they ſubdued, or drove into Wales, where their language and deſcendants ſtill remain.

Literature at this time in England was ſo rude, that we know but little

* See the Introduction.

of

of its hiſtory. The Saxons were ignorant of letters, and public tranſactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards and poets, a ſpecies of men whom they held in great veneration.

It does not fall within my deſign to relate the ſeparate hiſtory of every particular nation that formed the heptarchy. It is ſufficient to ſay, that the pope in Auſtin's time ſupplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popiſh clergy took care to keep their kings and laity under the moſt deplorable ignorance, but always magnifying the power and ſanctity of his holineſs. Hence it was that the Anglo Saxons during their heptarchy, where governed by prieſts and monks; and as they ſaw convenient, perſuaded their kings either to ſhut themſelves up in cloiſters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finiſhed their days; no leſs than thirty Anglo-Saxon kings during the heptarchy, reſigned their crowns in that manner, and among them was Ina king of the Weſt-Saxons, though in other reſpects he was a wiſe and brave prince. The bounty of thoſe Anglo-Saxon kings to the ſee of Rome, was therefore unlimited; and Ethelwald, king of Mercia, impoſed an annual tax of a penny upon every houſe, which was afterwards known by the name of Peter's pence, becauſe paid on the holiday of *St. Peter ad vincula*, Auguſt 1ſt *.

Under all thoſe diſadvantages of bigotry and barbarity, the Anglo-Saxons were happy in compariſon of the nations on the continent; becauſe they were free from the Saracens, or ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who had erected an empire in the Eaſt upon the ruins of the Roman, and began to extend their ravages over Spain and Italy. London was then a place of very conſiderable trade; and, if we are to believe the Saxon chronicles quoted by Tyrrel, Withred king of Kent, paid at one time to the king of Weſſex, a ſum in ſilver equal to 90,000l ſterling, in the year 694. England, therefore, we may ſuppoſe to have been about this time a refuge for the people of the continent. The venerable but ſuperſtitious Bede, about the year 740, compoſed his church hiſtory of Britain, from the coming in of the Saxons down to the year 731. The Saxon Chronicle is one of the oldeſt and moſt authentic monuments of hiſtory that any nation can produce. Architecture, ſuch as it was, with ſtone and glaſs working, was introduced into England; and we read, in 709, of a Northumbrian prelate who was ſerved in ſilver plate. It muſt however be owned, that the Saxon coins, which are generally of copper, are many of them illegible, and all of them mean. Ale and alehouſes are mentioned in the laws of Ina, about the year 728; and in this ſtate was the Saxon heptarchy in England, when about the year 800, moſt of the Anglo-Saxons, tired out with the tyranny of their petty kings, united in calling to the government of the heptarchy, Egbert, who was the eldeſt remaining branch of the race of Cerdic, one of the Saxon chiefs who firſt arrived in Britain. On the ſubmiſſion of the Northumbrians in the year 827 he became king of all England.

Charles the Great, otherwiſe Charlemagne, was then king of France, and emperor of Germany. Egbert had been obliged by ſtate jealouſies, to fly to the court of Charles for protection from the perſecutions of Eadburga daughter of Offa, wife to Brithric, king of the Weſt-Saxons. Egbert acquired at the court of Charles, the arts both of war and government, and

* This tax was impoſed at firſt for the ſupports of a college at Rome, for the eductation of Engliſh youth, found by Ina king of Weſſex, under the name of *Rome-Scot*, but in proceſs of time the the popes claimed it as a tribute due to St. Peter and his ſucceſſors.

there-

therefore ſoon united the Saxon heptarchy in his own perſon, but without ſubduing Wales. He changed the name of his kingdom into that of Englelond, or England; but there is reaſon to believe that ſome part of England continued ſtill to be governed by independent princes of the blood of Cerdic, though they paid perhaps a ſmall tribute to Egbert, who died in the year 838, at Wincheſter, his chief reſidence.

Egbert was ſucceeded by his ſon Ethelwolf, who divided his power with his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. By this time, England had become a ſcene of blood and ravages, through the renewal of the Daniſh invaſions; and Ethelwulf after ſome time bravely oppoſing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome, to which he carried with him his youngeſt ſon, afterwards the famous Alfred, the father of the Engliſh conſtitution. The gifts which Ethelwolf made to the clergy on this occaſion (copies of which are ſtill remaining) are ſo prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they ſhew his brain to have been touched by his devotion, or guided by the arts of Swithin biſhop of Wincheſter. Upon his death, after his return from Rome, he divided his dominions between two of his ſons (Athelſtan being then dead), Ethelbald and Ethelbert, but we know of no patrimony that was left to young Alfred. Ethelbert who was the ſurviving ſon, left his kingdom in 866, to his brother Ethelred; in whoſe time, notwithſtanding the courage and conduct of Alfred, the Danes became maſters of the ſea-coaſt, and the fineſt countries in England. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greateſt princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in hiſtory. He fought ſeven battles with the Danes with various ſucceſs, and when defeated, he found reſources that rendered him as terrible as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to an uncommon ſtate of diſtreſs, being forced to live in the diſguiſe of a cowherd: but ſtill he kept up a ſecret correſpondence with his brave friends, whom he collected together, and by their aſſiſtance he gave the Danes many ſignal overthrows, till at laſt he recovered the kingdom of England, and obliged the Danes who had been ſettled in it, to ſwear obedience to his government: even part of Wales courted his protection; ſo that he is thought to have been the moſt powerful monarch that had ever reigned in England.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raiſing a maritime power in England, by which he ſecured her coaſts from future invaſions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been burnt down by the Danes, and founded the univerſity of Oxford about the year 895: he divided England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; or rather he revived thoſe diviſions, and the uſe of juries, which had fallen into deſuetude by the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was himſelf not only a ſcholar, but an author; and he tells us himſelf, that upon his acceſſion to the throne he had ſcarcely a lay ſubject who could read Engliſh, or an eccleſiaſtic who underſtood Latin. He introduced ſtone and brick buildings to general uſe in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that his ſubjects for many years after his death, were fond of timber buildings. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may ſeem incredible to modern times, but he had merchants who traded in Eaſt India jewels; and William of Malmſbury ſays, that ſome of their gems were repoſited in the church of Sherborne in his time. He received from one Octher, about the year 890, a full diſcovery of the coaſt of Norway and Lapland, as far as Ruſſia: and he tells the king in his memorial, printed by Hakluyt, "that he ſailed along the Norway coaſt, ſo far north as commonly the whale hunters uſe to travel." He invited numbers of learned men into his dominions, and found faithful and

uſeful allies in the two Scotch kings his contemporaries, Gregory and Donald, againſt the Danes. He is ſaid to have fought no leſs than fifty-ſix pitched battles with thoſe barbarians. He was inexorable againſt his corrupt judges, whom he uſed to hang up in the public highways, as a terror to evil doers. He died in the year 901, and his character is ſo completely amiable and heroic, that he is juſtly diſtinguiſhed with the epithet of the Great. I have been the more diffuſe on the hiſtory of Alfred's reign, as it is the moſt glorious of any in the Engliſh annals, though it did not extend to foreign conqueſts.

Alfred was ſucceeded by his ſon Edward the Elder, under whom though a brave prince, the Danes renewed their barbarities and invaſions. He died in the year 925, and was ſuceeded by his eldeſt ſon Athelſtan. This prince was ſuch an encourager of commerce as to make a law, that every merchant who made three voyages on his account to the Mediterranean, ſhould be put upon a footing with a *thane*, or *nobleman* of the firſt rank. He cauſed the Scriptures to be tranſlated into the Saxon tongue. He encouraged coinage, and we find by his laws, that archbiſhops, biſhops, and even abbots, had then the privilege of minting money. His dominions appear however to have been confined towards the north by the Danes, although his vaſſals ſtill kept a footing in thoſe counties. He was engaged in perpetual wars with his neighbours, the Scots in particular, and was generally ſucceſsful, and died in 941. The reigns of his ſucceſſors, Edmund, Edred, and Edwy, were weak and inglorious, they being either engaged in wars with the Danes, or diſgraced by the influence of prieſts. Edgar, who mounted the throne about the year 959, revived the naval glory of England, and is ſaid to have been rowed down the river Dee by eight kings his vaſſals, he ſitting at the helm; but, like his predeceſſors, he was the ſlave of prieſts, particularly St. Dunſtan. His reign, however, was pacific and glorious, though he was obliged to cede to the Scots all the territory to the north of the Tyne. He was ſucceeded in 975, by his eldeſt ſon Edward, who was barbarouſly murdered by his ſtep-mother, whoſe ſon Ethelred mounted the throne in 978. The Engliſh nation at this time, by the help of prieſts, was over-run with barbarians, and the Danes by degrees became poſſeſſed of the fineſt parts of the country, while their countrymen made ſometimes dreadful deſcents in the weſtern parts. To get rid of them, he agreed to pay them 30,000l.; which was levied by way of tax, and called *Danegeld*, and was the firſt land tax in England. In the year 1002 they had made ſuch ſettlements in England, that Ethelred was obliged to give way to a general maſſacre of them by the Engliſh, but it is improbable that it was ever put into execution. Some attempts of that kind were undoubtedly made in particular counties, but they ſerved only to enrage the Daniſh king Swein, who, in 1013, drove Ethelred, his queen, and two ſons out of England into Normandy, a province of France, at that time governed by its own princes, ſtyled the dukes of Normandy. Swein being killed, was ſucceeded by his ſon Canute the Great, but Ethelred returning to England, forced Canute to retire to Denmark, from whence he invaded England with a vaſt army, and obliged Edmund Ironſide, (ſo called for his great bodily ſtrength) Ethelred's ſon, to divide with him the kingdom. Upon Edmund's being aſſaſſinated, Canute ſucceeded to the undivided kingdom; and dying in 1035, his ſon Harold Hareford, did nothing memorable, and his ſucceſſor Hardicanute, was ſo degenerate a prince, that the Daniſh royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred was now called to the throne; and Edward, who is commonly called the Confeſſor, mounted it, though Edgar Atheling, by

by being deſcended from an elder branch, had the lineal right, and was alive. Upon the death of the Confeſſor, in the year 1066, Harold, ſon to Goodwin earl of Kent, mounted the throne of England.

William duke of Normandy, though a baſtard, was then in the unrivalled poſſeſſion of that great duchy, and reſolved to aſſert his right to the crown of England. For that purpoſe he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vaſſals, to join him and made liberal promiſes to his followers, of lands and honours in England, to induce them to aſſiſt him effectually. By theſe means he collected 40,000 of the braveſt and moſt regular troops in Europe, and while Harold was embarraſſed with the freſh invaſions from the Danes, William landed in England without oppoſition. Harold returning from the North, encountered William in the place where the town of Battle now ſtands, which took its name from it, near Haſtings in Suſſex, and a moſt bloody battle was fought between the two armies; but Harold being killed, the crown of England devolved upon William, in the year 1066.

We have very particular accounts of the value of proviſions and manufactures in thoſe days; a palfrey coaſt 1s. an acre of land (according to biſhop Fleetwood in his Chronicon Pretioſum) 1s. a hide of land containing 120 acres, 100s. but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which thoſe ſhillings bore to the preſent ſtandard of money, though many ingenious treatiſes have been written on that head. A ſheep was eſtimated at 1s. an ox was computed at 6s. a cow at 4s. a man 3l. The board wages of a child the firſt year, was 8s. The tenants of Shireburn were obliged at their choice to pay either 6d. or four hens. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much uſed. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceaſed. Entails were ſometimes practiſed in thoſe times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, we can ſay little, but they were in general a rude uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unſkilful in the mechanical arts, untamed to ſubmiſſion under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot, and diſorder. Even ſo low as the reign of Canute, they ſold their children and kindred into foreign parts. Their beſt quality was their military courage, which yet was not ſupported by diſcipline or conduct. Even the Norman hiſtorians, notwithſtanding the low ſtate of the arts in their own country, ſpeak of them as barbarians, when they mention the invaſion made upon them by the duke of Normandy. Conqueſt put the people in a ſituation of receiving ſlowly from abroad all the rudiments of ſcience and cultivation, and of correcting their rough and licentious manners. Their uncultivated ſtate might be owing to the clergy, who always diſcouraged manufactures.

We are however to diſtinguiſh between the ſecular clergy, and the regulars or monks. Many of the former, among the Anglo-Saxons, were men of exemplary lives, and excellent magiſtrates. The latter depended upon the ſee of Rome, and directed the conſcience of the king and the great men, and were generally ignorant, and often a bloody ſet. A great deal of the Saxon barbariſm was likewiſe owing to the Daniſh invaſions, which left little room for civil or literary improvements. Amidſt all thoſe defects, public and perſonal liberty were well underſtood and guarded by the Saxon inſtitutions; and we owe to them at this day, the moſt valuable privileges of the Engliſh ſubjects.

The loſs which both ſides ſuffered at the battle of Haſtings is uncertain. Anglo-Saxon authors ſay, that Harold was ſo impatient to fight, he attacked William with half of his army, ſo that the advantage of num-

bers was on the ſide of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold ſeems to have decided the day; and William, with very little farther difficulty, took poſſeſſion of the throne, and made a conſiderable alteration in the conſtitution of England, by converting lands into knight's fees *, which are ſaid to amount to 62,000, and were held of the Norman and other great perſons who had aſſiſted him in his conqueſt, and who were bound to attend him with their knights and their followers in his wars. He gave for inſtance to one of his barons, the whole county of Cheſter, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almoſt independent of the crown; and here, according to ſome hiſtorians, we have the riſe of the feudal law in England. William found it no eaſy matter to keep poſſeſſion of his crown. Edgar Atheling, and his ſiſter, the Next Anglo-Saxon heirs, were affectionately received in Scotland, and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conſpiracies in England. William got the better of all difficulties, eſpecially after he had made a peace with Malcolm king of Scotland; who married Atheling's ſiſter; but not without exerciſing horrible cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the ſtone ſquare tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and diſarmed the old inhabitants; in ſhort, he attempted every thing poſſible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon conſtitution: though, at his coronation, he took the ſame oath that uſed to be taken by the ancient Saxon kings.

He cauſed a general ſurvey of all the lands in England to be made, or rather to be completed (for it was begun in Edward the Confeſſor's time), and an account to be taken of the villains, or ſervile tenants, ſlaves, and live ſtock upon each eſtate; all which were recorded in a book called Doomſday-book, which is now kept in the Exchequer. But the repoſe of this fortunate and victorious king was diſturbed in his old age, by the rebellion of his eldeſt ſon Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but now aſſumed the government as ſovereign of that province, in which he was favoured by the king of France. And here we have the riſe of the wars between England and France; which have continued longer, drawn more noble blood, and been attended with more memorable atchievements, than any other national quarrel we read of in ancient or modern hiſtory. William ſeeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his uſual vigour, and with incredible celerity, tranſporting a brave Engliſh army, invaded France, where he was every where victorious, but died before he had finiſhed the war, in the year 1087, the ſixty-firſt of his age, and twenty-firſt of his reign in England, and was buried in his own abbey at Caen in Normandy.

The above are the moſt material tranſactions of William's reign; and it may be farther obſerved, that by the Norman conqueſt, England not only loſt the true line of her ancient Saxon kings, but alſo her principal nobility, who either fell in battle in defence of their country and liberties, or fled to foreign countries, particularly Scotland, where, being kindly received by king Malcolm, they eſtabliſhed themſelves; and what is very remarkable, introduced the Saxon or Engliſh, which has been the prevailing language in the Lowlands of Scotland to this day.

On the other hand, England by virtue of the conqueſt, became much greater, both in dominion and power, by the acceſſion of ſo much territory upon

* Four hides of land made one knight's fee; a barony was twelve times greater than that of a knight's fee: and when Doomſday-book was framed, the number of great barons amounted to 700.

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the continent. For though the Normans by the conqueſt, gained much of the Engliſh land and riches, yet the Engliſh gained the large and fertile dukedom of Normandy, which became a province to this crown. England likewiſe gained much by the great increaſe of naval power, and multitude of ſhips, wherein Normandy then abounded. This, with the perpetual intercourſe between England and the continent, gave us an increaſe of trade and commerce, and of treaſure to the crown and kingdom, as appeared ſoon afterwards. England, by the conqueſt, gained likewiſe a natural right to the dominion of the Channel, which had been before acquired only by the greater naval power of Edgar, and other Saxon kings. But the dominion of the narrow ſeas ſeems naturally to belong, like that of rivers, to thoſe who poſſeſs the banks or coaſts on both ſides; and ſo to have ſtrengthened the former title, by ſo long a coaſt as that of Normandy on one ſide, and of England on the other ſide of the Channel. This dominion of the Channel, though we have long ago loſt all our poſſeſſions in France, we have continued to defend and maintain by the bravery of our ſeamen, and the ſuperior ſtrength of our navy to any other power.

The ſucceſſion to the crown of England was diſputed between the Conqueror's ſons Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his being red-haired), and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave and intrepid prince, but no friend to the clergy, who have therefore been unfavourable to his memory. He was likewiſe hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother, and conſequently he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers, and rebellious ſubjects. About this time the cruſades of the Holy Land began, and Robert who was among the firſt to engage, accommodated matters with William for a ſum of money, which he levied from the clergy. William behaved with great generoſity towards Edgar Atheling and the court of Scotland, notwithſtanding all the provocations he had received from that quarter; but was accidentally killed as he was hunting in New Foreſt in Hampſhire, in the year 1100, and the forty-fourth year of his age.

This prince built Weſtminſter-hall as it now ſtands, and added ſeveral works to the tower, which he ſurrounded with a wall and a ditch. In the year 1100 happened that inundation of the ſea, which overflowed great part of Earl Goodwin's eſtate in Kent, and formed thoſe ſhallows in the Downs, now called the Goodwin Sands.

He was ſucceeded by his brother Henry I. ſurnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning, though his brother Robert was then returning from the Holy Land. Henry may be ſaid to have purchaſed the throne, firſt by his brother's treaſures, which he ſeized at Wincheſter; ſecondly, by a charter, in which he reſtored his ſubjects to the reigns and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda daughter of Malcolm III. king of Scotland, and niece to Edgar Atheling, of the ancient Saxon line. His reign in a great meaſure reſtored the clergy to their influence in the ſtate, and they formed, as it were, a ſeparate body dependent upon the pope, which afterwards created great convulſions in England. Henry, partly by force, and partly by ſtratagem, made himſelf maſter of his brother Robert's perſon, and duchy of Normandy; and, with the moſt ungenerous meanneſs, detained him a priſoner for twenty-eight years, till the time of his death; and in the mean while Henry quieted his conſcience by founding an abbey. He was afterwards engaged in a bloody but ſucceſsful war with France; and before his death he ſettled the ſucceſſion upon his daughter the empreſs Matilda, widow to Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and her ſon Henry, by her ſecond huſband Geoffry Plantagenet,

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earl of Anjou. Henry died of a ſurfeit, in the ſeventy-eight year of his age, in 1135.

Notwithſtanding the late ſettlement of ſucceſſion, the crown of England was claimed, and ſeized by Stephen earl of Blois, the ſon of Adela, fourth daughter to William the Conqueror. Matilda and her ſon were then abroad; and Stephen was aſſiſted in his uſurpation by his brother the biſhop of Winchester, and the other great prelates, that he might hold the crown, dependent, as it were, upon them. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle, David, king of Scotland; and a worthy ſubject in her natural brother, Robert Earl of Glouceſter, who headed her party before her ſon grew up. A long and bloody war enſued, the clergy having abſolved Stephen and all his friends from their guilt of breaking the act of ſucceſſion; but at length, the barons, who dreaded the power of the clergy, inclined towards Matilda; and Stephen, who depended chiefly on foreign mercenaries, having been abandoned by the clergy, was defeated and taken priſoner in 1141; and being carried before Matilda, ſhe ſcornfully upbraided him, and ordered him to be put in chains.

Matilda was proud and weak; the clergy were bold and ambitious; and when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, were an overmatch for the crown. They demanded to be governed by Saxon laws, according to the charter that had been granted by Henry I. upon his acceſſion; and finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England in 1142. Stephen having been exchanged for the earl of Glouceſter, who had been taken priſoner likewiſe, upon his obtaining his liberty, found that his clergy and nobility had in fact excluded him from their government, by building 1100 caſtles, where each owner lived as an independent prince. We do not, however, find that this alleviated the feudal ſubjection of the inferior ranks. Stephen was ill enough adviſed to attempt to force them into a compliance with his will, by declaring his ſon Euſtace heir apparent to the kingdom; and this exaſperated the clergy ſo much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who had been acknowledged duke of Normandy, and was ſon to the empreſs; and he accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners.

This meaſure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehenſive of a ſecond conqueſt; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay ariſtocracy, propoſed an accomodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time loſt his ſon Euſtace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact inveſted with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his ſucceſſor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, yet it was received by the Engliſh, who had bled at every pore during the late civil wars, with great joy; and Stephen dying very opportunely, Henry mounted the throne, without a rival, in 1154.

Henry II. ſurnamed Plantagenet, was by far the greateſt prince of his time. He ſoon diſcovered amazing abilities for government, and had performed in the ſixteenth year of his age, actions that would have dignified the moſt experienced warriors. At his acceſſion to the throne, he found the condition of the Engliſh boroughs greatly bettered by the privileges granted them in the ſtruggles between their late kings and the nobility. Henry perceived the good policy of this, and brought the boroughs to ſuch a height, that if a bondman or ſervant remained in a borough a year and a day, he was by ſuch reſidence made free. He erected Wallingford, Wincheſter, and Oxford, into free boroughs, for the ſervices the inhabitants had done to his mother and himſelf; by diſcharging them from every burthen, excepting the fixed fee-

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farm rent of ſuch towns; and this throughout all England, excepting London. This gave a vaſt acceſſion of power to the crown, becauſe the crown alone could ſupport the boroughs againſt their feudal tyrants, and enabled Henry to reduce his overgrown nobility.

Without being very ſcrupulous in adhering to his former engagements, he reſumed the exceſſive grants of crown lands made by Stephen, which were repreſented as illegal. He demoliſhed many of the caſtles that had been built by the barons; but when he came to touch the clergy, he found their uſurpations not to be ſhaken. He perceived that the root of all their enormous diſorders lay in Rome, where the popes had exempted churchmen, not only from lay courts, but civil taxes. The bloody cruelties and diſorders occaſioned by thoſe exemptions, all over the kingdom, would be incredible, were they not atteſted by the moſt unexceptionable evidences. Unfortunately for Henry the head of the Engliſh church, and chancellor of the kingdom, was the celebrated Thomas Becket. This man, powerful from his office, and ſtill more ſo by his popularity, ariſing from a pretended ſanctity, was violent, intrepid, and a determined enemy to temporal power of every kind, but withal cool and politic. The king aſſembled his nobility at Clarendon, the name of which place is ſtill famous for the conſtitutions there enacted, which, in fact, aboliſhed the authority of the Romiſh ſee over the Engliſh clergy. Becket finding it in vain to reſiſt the ſtream, ſigned thoſe conſtitutions till they could be ratified by the pope; who, as he foreſaw, rejected them. Henry, though a prince of the moſt determined ſpirit of any of his time, was then embroiled with all his neighbours; and the ſee of Rome was at the ſame time in its meridian grandeur. Becket having been arraigned and convicted of robbing the public, while he was chancellor, fled to France, where the pope and the French king eſpouſed his quarrel. The effect was, that all the Engliſh clergy, who were on the king's ſide were excommunicated, and the ſubjects abſolved from their allegiance. This diſconcerted Henry ſo much, that he ſubmitted to treat, and even to be inſulted by his rebel prelate, who returned triumphantly through the ſtreets of London in 1170. His return ſwelled his pride, and increaſed his inſolence, till both became inſupportable to Henry, who was then in Normandy. Finding that he was in fact only the firſt ſubject of his own dominions, he was heard to ſay, in the anguiſh of his heart, "Is there none who would revenge his monarch's cauſe upon this audacious prieſt?" Theſe words reached the ears of four knights, Reginald Fitzurſe, William de Tracy, Hugh de Moreville, and Richard Brito; and, without acquainting Henry of their intentions, they went over to England, where they beat out Becket's brains before the altar of his own church at Canterbury in the year 1171.

Henry was in no condition to ſecond the blind obedience of his knights; and the public reſentment roſe ſo high, on the ſuppoſition that he was privy to the murder, that he ſubmitted to be ſcourged by monks at the tomb of the pretended martyr.

Henry, in conſequence of his well known maxim, endeavoured to cancel all the grants which had been made by Stephen to the royal family of Scotland, and actually reſumed their moſt valuable poſſeſſions in the north of England. This occaſioned a war between the two kingdoms, in which William king of Scotland was taken priſoner; and, to deliver himſelf from captivity, was obliged to pay liege homage to king Henry for his kingdom of Scotland, and for all his other dominions. It was alſo agreed, that liege homage ſhould be done, and fealty ſworn to Henry, without reſerve or exception, by all the earls and barons of the territories of the king of Scotland, from whom

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Henry ſhould deſire it, in the ſame manner as by his other vaſſals. The heirs of the king of Scotland, and the heirs of his earls, barons, and tenants in chief, were likewiſe obliged to render liege homage to the heirs of the king of England.

Henry likewiſe diſtinguiſhed his reign by the conqueſt of Ireland: and by marrying Eleanor the divorced queen of France, but the heireſs of Guienna and Poictou, he became almoſt as powerful in France as the French king himſelf, and the greateſt prince in Chriſtendom. In his old age, however, he was far from being fortunate. He had a turn for pleaſure, and embarraſſed himſelf in intrigues with women, particularly the fair Roſamond, which were reſented by his queen Eleanor, to her ſeducing her ſons, Henry, (whom his father had unadviſedly cauſed to be crowned in his own life time), Richard and John, into repeated rebellions, which affected him ſo much as to throw him into a fever, and he died at Chinon, in France, in the year 1189, and 57th of his age. The ſum he left in ready money at his death, has perhaps been exaggerated, but the moſt moderate accounts make it amount to 200,000l. of our money.

During the reign of Henry, corporation charters were eſtabliſhed all over England; by which, as I have already hinted, the power of the barons was greatly reduced. Thoſe corporations encouraged trade; but manufactures, eſpecially thoſe of ſilk, ſeem ſtill to have been confined to Spain and Italy; for the ſilk coronation robes, made uſe of by young Henry and his queen, coſt 87l. 10s. 4d. in the ſheriff of London's account, printed by Mr. Maddox: a vaſt ſum in thoſe days. Henry introduced the uſe of glaſs in windows into England, and ſtone arches in building.

In this reign, and in thoſe barbarous ages, it was a cuſtom in London for great numbers, to the amount of a hundred or more of the ſons and relations of eminent citizens, to form themſelves into a licentious confederacy, to break into rich houſes and plunder them, to rob and murder paſſengers, and to commit with impunity, all ſorts of diſorders. Henry about the year 1176, divided England into ſix parts, called *circuits*, appointing judges to go at certain times of the year and hold *aſſizes*, or adminiſter juſtice to the people, as is practiſed at this day.

Henry ſo far aboliſhed the barbarous and abſurd practice of forfeiting ſhips, which had been wrecked on the coaſt, that if one man or animal were alive in the ſhip, the veſſel and goods were reſtored to the owners. This prince was alſo the firſt who levied a tax on the moveable and perſonal eſtate of his ſubjects, nobles as well as people. To ſhew the genius of theſe ages, it may not be improper to mention the quarrel between Roger archbiſhop of York, and Richard archbiſhop of Canterbury. We may judge of the violence of military men and laymen, when eccleſiaſtics could proceed to ſuch extremities. The pope's legate having ſummoned an aſſembly of the clergy at London, and as both the archbiſhops pretended to ſit on his right hand, this queſtion of precedency begot a controverſy between them. The monks and retainers of archbiſhop Richard fell upon Roger, in the preſence of the cardinal and of the ſynod, threw him on the ground, trampled him under foot, and ſo bruiſed him with blows, that he was taken up half dead, and his life was with difficulty ſaved from their violence.

Richard I. ſurnamed Cœur de Lion, from his great courage, was the third, but eldeſt ſurviving ſon of Henry II. The clergy had found means to gain him over, and for their own ends they perſuaded him to make a moſt magnificent ruinous cruſade to the Holy Lands, where he took Aſcalon, and performed actions of valour, that gave countenance even to the fables

fables of antiquity. After ſeveral glorious, but fruitleſs campaigns, he made a truce of three years with Saladin emperor of the Saracens; and in his return to England he was treacherouſly ſurpriſed by the Duke of Auſtria; who, in 1193, ſent him a priſoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ranſom was fixed by the ſordid emperor at 150,000 merks; about 300,000l. of our preſent money.

Whilſt the Scottiſh kings enjoyed their lands in England, they found it their intereſt, once generally in every king's reign, to perform the ſame homage; but when they were deprived of their ſaid lands, they paid no more homage *.

Woollen broad cloths were made in England at this time. An ox ſold for three ſhillings, which anſwers to nine ſhillings of our money, and a ſheep at four pence, or one ſhilling. Weights and meaſures were now ordered to be the ſame all over the kingdom. Richard was ſlain in beſieging the caſtle of Chalons in the year 1199, the 42d of his age, and 10th of his reign.

The reign of his brother John, who ſucceeded him, is infamous in the Engliſh hiſtory. He is ſaid to have put to death Arthur the eldeſt ſon of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother Conſtance, complained to Philip, the king of France; who, upon John's non-appearance at his court as a vaſſal, deprived him of Normandy. John notwithſtanding, in his wars with the French, Scotch, and Iriſh, gave many proofs of perſonal valour; but became at laſt ſo apprehenſive of a French invaſion, that he rendered himſelf a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons reſented his meanneſs, by taking arms; but he repeated his ſhameful ſubmiſſions to the pope, and after experiencing various fortunes of war, John was at laſt brought ſo low, that the barons obliged him, in 1416, to ſign the great deed ſo well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of Engliſh liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of thoſe immunities which the barons and their followers had poſſeſſed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and Henry II. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property to be better ſecured, this charter, by various ſubſequent acts and explanations, came to be applicable to every Engliſh ſubject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgeſſes. John had ſcarcely ſigned it, but he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection, when the barons withdrew their allegiance from John, and transferred it to Lewis, the eldeſt ſon of Philip Auguſtus, kiug of France. This gave umbrage to the pope; and the barons being apprehenſive of their country becoming a province to France, they returned to John's allegiance; but he was unable to protect them, till the pope refuſed to confirm the title of Lewis. John died in 1216, in the 18th year of his reign, and 49th of his age, juſt as he had a glimpſe of reſuming his authority.

The city of London owes ſome of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he gave them a charter to chuſe

* It appears however, that William I king of Scotland, and his ſubjects, conſented to acknowledge the king of England and his heirs, to all perpetuity, to be their ſovereigns and liege lords, and they did homage for the kingdom of Scotland accordingly; but this advantage was given up by Richard I. Vide lord Lyttleton's Hiſtory of Henry II. Vol. v. p. 220. 223, 235. 8vo. edit.

a mayor out of their own body, annually, and to elect their ſheriffs and common-council annually, as at preſent.

England was in a deplorable ſituation when her crown devolved upon Henry III. the late king's ſon, who was but nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was choſen his guardian; and the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, earl of Pembroke, who had thus retrieved the independency of his country, died 1219, and the regency devolved upon the biſhop of Wincheſter. The king was of a ſoft, pliable diſpoſition, and had been perſuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed he ſeemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. An aſſociation of the barons was formed againſt him and his government, and a civil war breaking out, Henry ſeemed to be abandoned by all but his Gaſcons, and foreign mercenaries. His profuſion brought him into inexpreſſible difficulties; and the famous Stephen Montfort, who had married his ſiſter, and was made earl of Leiceſter, being choſen general of the aſſociation, the king and his two ſons were defeated, and taken priſoners at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort and the earl of Glouceſter, a nobleman of great authority, prince Edward, Henry's eldeſt ſon, obtained his liberty, and aſſembling as many as he could of his father's ſubjects, who were jealous of Montfort, and weary of the tyranny of the barons, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Eveſham, Auguſt 4th, 1265, and killed Montfort. The repreſentatives of the commons of England, both knights and burgeſſes, formed now part of the Engliſh legiſlature, in a ſeparate houſe, and this gave the firſt blow to feudal tenures in England: but hiſtorians are not agreed in what manner the commons before this time formed any part of the Engliſh parliaments, or great councils. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a cruſade, Henry, during his abſence, died in 1272, the ſixty-fourth year of his age, and fifty-ſixth of his reign, which was uncomfortable and inglorious; and yet, to the ſtruggles of this reign, the people in great meaſure owe the liberties of the preſent day. Intereſt had in that age mounted to an enormous height. There are inſtances of 50l. per cent. being paid for money, which tempted the Jews, to remain in England, notwithſtanding the grievous oppreſſions they laboured under, from the bigotry of the age, and Henry's extortions. In 1255 Henry made a freſh demand of 8000 merks from the Jews, and threatened to hang them if they refuſed compliance. They now loſt all patience, and deſired leave to retire with their effects out of the kingdom, but the king replied, "How can I remedy the oppreſſion you complain of? I am myſelf a beggar; I am deſpoiled; I am ſtripped of all my revenues; I owe above 200,000 merks; and if I had ſaid 300,000, I ſhould not exceed the truth; I am obliged to pay my ſon prince Edward 15,000 merks a year; I have not a farthing, and I muſt have money from any hand, from any quarter, or by any means." King John, his father, once demanded 10,000 marks from a Jew at Briſtol; and on his refuſal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn every day till he ſhould conſent. The Jew loſt ſeven teeth, and then paid the ſum required of him. Trial by *ordeal* was now entirely diſuſed, and that by *duel* diſcouraged. Bracton's famous law treatiſe was publiſhed in this reign.

Edward returning to England, on the news of his father's death, invited all who held of his crown *in capite*, to his coronation dinner, which conſiſted (that the reader may have ſome idea of the luxury of the times) of 278

bacon

bacon hogs, 450 hogs, 440 oxen, 430 ſheep, 22,600 hens and capons and thirteen fat goats. (See Rymer's Fœdera.) Alexander III. king of Scotland was at the ſolemnity, and on the occaſion 500 horſes were let looſe, for all that could catch them to keep them.

Edward was a brave and politic prince, and being perfectly well acquainted with the laws, intereſts, and conſtitution of his kingdom, his regulations, and reformations of his laws, have juſtly given him the title of the Engliſh Juſtinian. He paſſed the famous Mortmain act, whereby all perſons "were reſtrained from giving by will or *otherwiſe*, their eſtates to (thoſe *ſo called*) religious purpoſes, and the ſocieties that never die, without a licence from the crown." He granted certain privileges to the Cinque Ports, which, though now very inconſiderable, were then obliged to attend the king when he went beyond ſea, with fifty-ſeven ſhips, each having twenty armed ſoldiers on board, and to maintain them at their own coaſts for the ſpace of fifteen days. He reduced the Welch to pay him tribute, and annexed its principality to his crown, and was the firſt who gave the title of prince of Wales to his eldeſt ſon.

His vaſt connections with the continent were productive of many benefits to his ſubjects, particularly by the introduction of reading-glaſſes and ſpectacles; though they are ſaid to have been invented in the late reign, by the famous friar Bacon. Windmills were erected in England about the ſame time, and the regulation of gold and ſilver workmanſhip was aſcertained by an eſſay, and mark of the goldſmith's company. After all, Edward's continental wars were unfortunate both to himſelf and the Engliſh, by draining them of their wealth; and it is thought that he too much neglected the woollen manufactures of his kingdom. He was often embroiled with the pope, eſpecially upon the affairs of Scotland; and he died in 1307, in the ſixty-ninth year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign, while he was upon a freſh expedition to exterminate that people. He ordered his heart to be ſent to the Holy Land, with 32,000l. for the maintenance of what is called the *Holy Sepulchre*.

His ſon and ſucceſſor Edward II. ſhewed early diſpoſitions for encouraging favourites; but Gaveſton, his chief minion, a Gaſcon, being baniſhed by his father Edward, he mounted the throne with vaſt advantages, both political and perſonal, all which he ſoon forfeited by his own imprudence. He recalled Gaveſton, and loaded him with honours, and married Iſabella, daughter of the French king, who reſtored to him part of the territories which Edward I. had loſt in France. The barons, however, obliged him once more to baniſh his favourite, and to confirm the Great Charter, while king Robert Bruce recovered all Scotland, excepting the caſtle of Stirling; near to which, at Bannockburn, Edward in perſon received the greateſt defeat England ever ſuffered, in 1314. Gaveſton being beheaded by the barons, they fixed upon young Hugh Spencer as a ſpy upon the king, but he ſoon became his favourite. He, through his pride, avarice, and ambition, was baniſhed, together with his father, whom he had procured to be made earl of Wincheſter. The queen, a furious ambitious woman, perſuaded her huſband to recall the Spencers, while the common people, from their hatred to the barons, joined the king's ſtandard, and after defeating them, reſtored him to the exerciſe of all his prerogatives. A cruel uſe was made of thoſe ſucceſſes, and many noble patriots, with their eſtates, fell victims to the queen's revenge; but at laſt ſhe became enamoured with Roger Mortimer, who was her priſoner, and had been one of the moſt active of the anti-royaliſt lords. A breach between her and the Spencers ſoon followed, and going over to France with her lover, ſhe found means to form ſuch a party in England,

that, returning with ſome French troops, ſhe put the eldeſt Spencer to an ignominious death, made her huſband priſoner, and forced him to abdicate his crown in favour of his ſon Edward III. then fifteen years of age. Nothing now but the death of Edward II. was wanting to complete her guilt: and he was moſt barbarouſly murdered in Berkley-caſtle, by ruffians, ſuppoſed to be employed by her and her paramour Mortimer, in the year 1327.

Upon an average, the difference of living then and now, ſeems to be nearly as 5 or 6 is to 1, always remembering that the money contained thrice as much ſilver as our money or coin of the ſame denomination does. Thus, for example, if a gooſe then coſt 2d.½, that is 7½ of our money, or according to the proportion of 6 to 1, it would now coſt us 3s. 9d. The knights Templars were ſuppreſſed in this reign, owing to their enormous vices.

Edward III. mounted the throne in 1327. He was then under the tuition of his mother, who cohabited with Mortimer, and they endeavoured to keep poſſeſſion of their power by executing many popular meaſures, and putting an end to all national differences with Scotland, for which Mortimer was created earl of March. Edward, young as he was, was ſoon ſenſible of their deſigns. He ſurpriſed them in perſon at the head of a few choſen friends in the caſtle of Nottingham. Mortimer was put to a public death, hanged as a traitor at the common gallows at Tyburn, and the queen herſelf was ſhut up in confinement twenty-eight years, to her death. It was not long before Edward found means to quarrel with David king of Scotland, though he had married his ſiſter, and he was driven to France by Edward Baliol, who acted as Edward's tributary, king of Scotland, and general, and did the ſame homage to Edward for Scotland, as his father had done to Edward I. Soon after, upon the death of Charles the Fair, king of France (without iſſue), who had ſucceeded by virtue of the Salic law, which the French pretended cut off all female ſucceſſion to that crown, Philip of Valois claimed it as being the next heir male by ſucceſſion; but he was oppoſed by Edward, as being the ſon of Iſabella, who was ſiſter to the three laſt-mentioned kings of France, and firſt in the female ſucceſſion. The former was preferred, but the caſe being doubtful, Edward purſued his claim, and invaded France with a powerful army.

On this occaſion the vaſt difference between the feudal conſtitutions of France, which were then in full force, and the government of England, more favourable to public liberty, appeared. The French officers knew no ſubordination. They and their men were equally undiſciplined and diſobedient, though far more numerous than their enemies in the field. The Engliſh freemen on the other having now vaſt property to fight for, which they could call their own, independent of a feudal law, knew its value, and had learnt to defend it by providing themſelves with proper armour, and ſubmitting to military exerciſes, and proper ſubordination in the field. The war, on the part of Edward was therefore a continued ſcene of ſucceſs and victory. In 1340 he took the title of king of France, uſing it in all public acts, and quartered the arms of king of France with his own, adding this motto, *Dieu & mon droit*, "God and my right." At Creſſy, Auguſt 26th, 1346, above 100,000 French were defeated, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales, who was but ſixteen years of age (his father being no more than thirty-four) though the Engliſh did not exceed 30,000. The loſs of the French far exceeded the number of the Engliſh army, whoſe loſs conſiſted of no more than three knights and one eſquire, and about fifty private men. The battle of

of Poictiers was fought in 1356, between the prince of Wales and the French king John, but with greatly ſuperior advantages of numbers on the part of the French, who were totally defeated, and their king and his favourite ſon Philip taken priſoners. It is thought that the number of French killed in this battle, was double that of all the Engliſh army; but the modeſty and politeneſs with which the prince treated his royal priſoners, formed the brighteſt wreath in his garland.

Edward's glories were not confined to France. Having left his queen Philippa, daughter to the earl of Hainault, regent of England, ſhe had the good fortune to take priſoner David king of Scotland, who had ventured to invade England, about ſix weeks after the battle of Creſſy was fought, and remained a priſoner eleven years. Thus Edward had the glory to ſee two crowned heads his captives at London. Both kings were afterwards ranſomed, David for 100,000 marks, and John for three millions of gold crowns; but John returned to England, and died at the palace of the Savoy. After the treaty of Bretigni, into which Edward III. is ſaid to have been frightened by a dreadful ſtorm, his fortunes declined. He had reſigned his French dominions entirely to the prince of Wales, and he ſunk in the eſteem of his ſubjects at home, on account of his attachment to his miſtreſs, one Alice Pierce. The prince of Wales, commonly called the Black Prince *, from his wearing that armour, while he was making a glorious campaign in Spain, where he reinſtated Peter the Cruel on that throne, was ſeized with a conſumptive diſorder, which carried him off in the year 1372. His father did not long ſurvive him; for he died, diſpirited and obſcure, at Shene in Surry, in the year 1377, the 65th of his age, and 51ſt of his reign.

No prince ever underſtood the balance and intereſts of Europe better than Edward did, and he was one of the beſt and moſt illuſtrious kings that ſat on the Engliſh throne. Having ſet his heart on the conqueſt of France, he gratified the more readily his people in their demands, for protection and ſecurity to their liberties and properties, but he thereby exhauſted his regal dominions; neither was his ſucceſſor, when he mounted the throne, ſo powerful a prince as he was in the beginning of his reign. He has the glory of inviting over and protecting fullers, dyers, weavers, and other artificers from Flanders, and of eſtabliſhing the woollen manufacture among the Engliſh, who, till his time generally exported the unwrought commodity. The rate of living in his reign ſeems to have been much the ſame as in the preceding reign; and few of the Engliſh ſhips even of war, exceeded forty or fifty tons. But notwithſtanding the vaſt increaſe of property in England, villanage ſtill continued in the royal, epiſcopal, and baronial manors. Hiſtorians are not agreed whether Edward made uſe of artillery in his firſt invaſion of France, but it certainly was well known before his death. The magnificent caſtle of Windſor was built by Edward III. and his method of conducting that work may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the condition of the people of that age. Inſtead of alluring workmen by contracts and wages, he aſſeſſed every county in England to ſend him ſo many maſons, tilers, and carpenters, as if he had been levying an army. Soldiers were enliſted only for a ſhort time; they lived idle all the reſt of the year, and commonly all the reſt of their lives; one ſucceſsful campaign by pay and plunder, and the ranſom of priſoners, was

* He was not the firſt in England that had the title of *Duke*, being created by his father Duke of Cornwall; and ever ſince, the eldeſt ſon of the king of England is by birth duke of Cornwall.

ſup-

ſuppoſed to be a ſmall fortune to a man; which was a great allurement to enter into the ſervice. The wages of a maſter carpenter was limited through the whole year to three pence a day, a common carpenter to two pence, money of that age.

Dr. John Wickliffe a ſecular prieſt, educated at Oxford, began in the latter end of this reign to ſpread the doctrines of reformation by his diſcourſes, ſermons, and writings; and he made many diſciples of all ranks and ſtations. He was a man of parts, learning, and piety; and has the honour of being the firſt perſon in Europe who publicly called in queſtion thoſe doctrines, which had generally paſſed for certain and undiſputed, during ſo many ages. The doctrines of Wickliffe being derived from his ſearch into the ſcripture, and into eccleſiaſtical antiquity, were nearly the ſame with thoſe propagated by the reformers in the ſixteenth century. But though the age ſeemed ſtrongly diſpoſed to receive them, affairs were not yet fully ripe for this great revolution, which was reſerved for a more free and enquiring period, that gave the finiſhing blow to Romiſh ſuperſtition in this and many other kingdoms of Europe. He had many friends in the univerſity of Oxford and at court, and was powerfully protected againſt the evil deſigns of the pope and biſhops, by John of Guant duke of Lancaſter one of the kings ſons, and other great men. His diſciples were diſtinguiſhed by the name of Wickliffites or Lollards.

Richard II. ſon of the Black Prince, was no more than eleven years of age when he mounted the throne. The Engliſh arms were then unſucceſsful both in France and in Scotland; but the doctrines of Wickliffe took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaſter, the king's uncle and one of his guardians, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the villains, and loweſt ranks of people. The truth is, agriculture was then in ſo flouriſhing a ſtate, that corn, and other victuals, were ſuffered to be tranſported, and the Engliſh had fallen upon a way of manufacturing, for exportation, their leather, horns, and other native commodities; and with regard to the woollen manufactures, they ſeem, from records, to have been exceeded by none in Europe. John of Guant's foreign connections with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England: and ſo many men were employed in unſucceſsful wars, that the commons of England, like powder, receiving a ſpark of fire, all at once flamed out into a ſucceſſion, under the conduct of Ball, a prieſt, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, the loweſt of the people. The conduct of theſe iuſurgents was very violent, and in many reſpects extremely unjuſtifiable: but it cannot juſtly be denied, that the common people of England then laboured under many oppreſſions, particularly a *poll-tax*, and had abundant reaſon to be diſcontented with the government.

Richard was not then above ſixteen, but he acted with great ſpirit and wiſdom. He faced the ſtorm of the inſurgents, at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth the mayor, and Philpot an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler, the leader of the malecontents, to death, in the midſt of his adherents. Richard then aſſociated to himſelf a new ſet of favourites. His people and great lords again took up arms, and being headed by the duke of Glouceſter, the king's uncle, they forced Richard once more into terms; but being inſincere in all his compliances, he was upon the point of becoming more deſpotic than any king in England ever had been, when he loſt his crown and life by a ſudden cataſtrophe.

A quarrel happened between the duke of Hereford, ſon to the duke of Lancaſter, and the duke of Norfolk; and Richard baniſhed them both, with particular marks of injuſtice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaſter,

caſter, by his father's death; and Richard carrying over a great army to quell a rebellion in Ireland, a ſtrong party formed in England, the natural reſult of Richard's tyranny, who offered the duke of Lancaſter the crown. He landed from France at Ravenſpur in Yorkſhire, and was ſoon at the head of 60,000 men, all of them Engliſh. Richard hurried back to England, where his troops refuſing to fight, and his ſubjects, whom he had affected to deſpiſe, generally deſerting him, he was made priſoner with no more than twenty attendants; and being carried to London, he was depoſed in full parliament, upon a formal charge of tyranny and miſconduct; and ſoon after he is ſuppoſed to have been ſtarved to death in priſon, in the year 1399 the 34th of his age, and the 23d of his reign. He had no iſſue by either of his two marriages.

Though the nobility of England, were poſſeſſed of great power at the time of this revolution, yet we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonſtrate boldly in parliament againſt the uſury, which was but too much practiſed in England, and other abuſes of both clergy and laity: and the deſtruction of the feudal powers ſoon followed.

Henry the Fourth *, ſon of John of Gaunt duke of Lancaſter, fourth ſon of Edward III. being ſettled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward III.'s family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependent upon them. At firſt ſome conſpiracies were formed againſt him among his great men, as the dukes of Surry and Exeter, the earls of Glouceſter and Saliſbury, and the archbiſhop of York; but he cruſhed them by his activity and ſteadineſs, and laid a plan for reducing their overgrown power. This was underſtood by the Percy family the greateſt in the north of England, who complained of Henry having deprived them of ſome Scotch priſoners, whom they had taken in battle; and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his ſon the famous Henry Percy, ſurnamed Hotſpur, but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry ſuppreſſed the inſurrection of the Welch, under Owen Glendower: and by his prudent conceſſions to his parliament, to the commons particularly, he at laſt conquered all oppoſition, while, to ſalve the defect of his title, the parliament entailed the crown upon him, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, thereby ſhutting out all female ſucceſſion. The young duke of Rothſay, heir to the crown of Scotland (afterwards James I. of that kingdom), falling a priſoner into Henry's hands about the time, was of infinite ſervice to his government; and before his death, which happened in 1413, in the 46th year of his age, and 13th of his reign, he had the ſatisfaction to ſee his ſon and ſucceſſor, the prince of Wales, diſengage himſelf from many youthful follies, which then had diſgraced his conduct.

The Engliſh marine was now ſo greatly increaſed, that we find an Engliſh veſſel

* The throne being now vacant, the duke of Lancaſter ſtepped forth, and having croſſed himſelf on his forehead and on his breaſt, and called upon the name of Chriſt, he pronounced theſe words, which I ſhall give in the original language, becauſe of their ſingularity.

In the name of the Fadher, Son, and Holy Ghoſt, I Henry of Lancaſter, challenge this rewme of Ynglande, and the crowne, with all the membris, and the appurtenances; als I that am deſcendit by right line of the blode (meaning a claim in right of his mother) *coming from the gude king Henry therde and throge that right that God of his grace hath ſent me, with helpe of hyn, and of my frende, to recover it; the which rewme was in poynt to be undone by defaut of gouvernance, and undoying of the gude lawe.*

veſſel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ſhips of equal burden, carrying on an immenſe trade all over Europe, but with the Hanſe towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry IV. as I have already hinted, was the firſt prince who gave the different orders in parliament, eſpecially that of the commons, their due weight. It is however a little ſurpriſing, that learning was at this time in a much lower ſtate in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Biſhops, when teſtifying ſynodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy in the following terms, viz. "As I cannot read myſelf, N. N. hath ſubſcribed for me; or, As my lord biſhop cannot write himſelf, at his requeſt I have ſubſcribed" By the influence of the court and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in the ſeſſions of parliament 1401 for the burning of heretics, occaſioned by the great increaſe of the Wickliffities or Lollards; and immediately after, one Sawtre, pariſh-prieſt of St. Oſithe in London, was burnt alive by the king's writ, directed to the mayor and ſheriffs of London.

The balance of trade with foreign parts was againſt England at the acceſſion of Henry V. in 1413, ſo greatly had luxury increaſed. The Lollards, or the followers of Wickliffe, were exceſſively numerous, and ſir John Oldcaſtle and lord Cobham having joined them, it was pretended that he had agreed to put himſelf at their head, with a deſign to overturn the government; but this appears to have been a groundleſs accuſation, from a bloody zeal of the clergy, though he was put to death in conſequence of it. His only real crime ſeems to have been the ſpirit with which he oppoſed the ſuperſtition of the age, and he was the firſt of the nobility who ſuffered on account of religion. Henry was about this time engaged in a conteſt with France, which he had many incitements for invading. He demanded a reſtitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been raviſhed from England in the preceding reigns; alſo the payment of certain arrears due for king John's ranſom ſince the reign of Edward the III. and availing himſelf of the diſtracted ſtate of that kingdom by the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he invaded it, where he firſt took Harfleur, and them defeated the French in the battle of Agincourt, which equalled thoſe of Creſſy and Poictiers in glory to the Engliſh, but exceeded them in its conſequences, on account of the vaſt number of French princes of the blood, and other great noblemen, who were there killed. Henry, who was as great a politician as a warrior, made ſuch alliances, and divided the French among themſelves ſo effectually, that he forced the queen of France, whoſe huſband, Charles VI. was a lunatic, to agree to his marrying her daughter, the princeſs Catharine, to diſinherit the dauphin, and to declare Henry regent of France during her huſband's life, and him and his iſſue ſucceſſors to the French monarchy, which muſt at this time have been exterminated, had not the Scots (though their king ſtill continued Henry's captive) furniſhed the dauphin with vaſt ſupplies, and preſerved the French crown for his head. Henry however made a triumphal entry into Paris, where the dauphin was proſcribed; and after receiving the fealty of the French nobility, he returned to England to levy a force that might cruſh the dauphin and his Scotch auxiliaries. He probably would have been ſucceſsful, had he not died of a pleuritic diſorder, 1442, the 34th year of his age, and the 10th of his reign.

Henry V's vaſt ſucceſſes in France revived the trade of England, and at the ſame time increaſed and eſtabliſhed the privileges and liberties of the Engliſh commonalty. As he died when he was only thirty four years of age, it is hard to ſay, if he had lived, whether he might not have given the law to all the continent of Europe, which was then greatly diſtracted by the diviſions among

among its princes; but whether this would have been of ſervice or prejudice to the growing liberties of the Engliſh ſubjects, we cannot determine.

By an authentic and exact account of the ordinary revenues of the crown during this reign, it appears that they amounted only to 55,714l. a year, which is nearly the ſame with the revenues in Henry III's time, and the kings of England had neither become much richer nor poorer in the courſe of 200 years. The ordinary expences of the government amounted to 52,507.l ſo that the king had of ſurplus only 3,207l. for the ſupport of his houſehold for his wardrobe, for the expence of embaſſies, and other articles. This ſum was not nearly ſufficient even in time of peace: and to carry on his wars, this great conqueror was reduced to many miſerable ſhifts; he borrowed from all quarters; he pawned his jewels, and ſometimes the crown itſelf: he ran in arrears to his army; and he was often obliged to ſtop in the midſt of his career of victory, and to grant a truce to the enemy. I mention theſe particulars, that the reader may judge of the ſimplicity and temperance of our predeceſſors three centuries ago, when the expences of the greateſt king in Europe were ſcarcely equal to the penſion of a ſuperannuated courtier of the preſent age.

It required a prince equally able with Henry IV. and V. to confirm the title of the Lancaſter houſe to the throne of England. Henry VI. ſurnamed of Windſor, was no more than nine months old, when, in conſequence of the treaty of Troyes, concluded by his father with the French court, he was proclaimed king of France as well as England. He was under the tuition of his two uncles, the dukes of Bedford and Glouceſter, both of them princes of great accompliſhments, virtues, and courage, but unable to preſerve their brother's conqueſts. Upon the death of Charles VI. the affections of the French for his family revived in the perſon of his ſon and ſucceſſor Charles VII. The duke of Bedford, who was regent of France, performed many glorious actions, and at laſt laid ſiege to Orleans, which, if taken would have compleated the conqueſt of France. The ſiege was raiſed by the valour and good conduct of the Maid of Orleans, a phenomenon hardly to be paralleled in hiſtory, ſhe being of the loweſt extraction, and bred a cow-keeper, and ſometimes a helper in ſtables in public inns. She muſt notwithſtanding have poſſeſſed an amazing fund of ſagacity as well as valour. After an unparalleled train of heroic actions, and placing the crown upon her ſovereign's head, ſhe was taken priſoner by the Engliſh in making a ſally during the ſiege of Compeigne, who burnt her alive for a witch at Roan, May 30, 1451.

The death of the duke of Bedford, and the agreement of the duke of Burgundy, the great ally of the Engliſh, with Charles VII. contributed to the entire ruin of the Engliſh intereſt in France, and the loſs of all their fine provinces in that kingdom, notwithſtanding the amazing courage of Talbot the firſt earl of Shrewſbury, and their other officers. The capital misfortune of England, at this time, was its diſunion at home. The duke of Glouceſter loſt his authority in the government, and the king married Margaret of Anjou, daughter to the needy king of Sicily; a woman of a high ſpirit, but an implacable diſpoſition; while the cardinal of Wincheſter, who was the richeſt ſubject in England if not in Europe, preſided at the head of the treaſury, and by his avarice ruined the intereſt of England, both at home and abroad. Next to the cardinal, the duke of York, who was lord lieutenant of Ireland, was the moſt powerful ſubject in England. He was deſcended by the mother's ſide from Lionel, an elder ſon of Edward III, and prior in claim to the reigning king, who was deſcended from John of Gaunt, Ed-

ward's youngeſt ſon; and he affected to keep up the diſtinction of a white roſe, that of the houſe of Lancaſter being red. It is certain that he paid no regard to the parliamentary entail of the crown upon the reigning family, and he loſt no opportunity of forming a party to aſſert his right but acted at firſt with a moſt profound diſſimulation. The duke of Suffolk was a favourite of the queen, who was a profeſſed enemy to the duke of York, but being impeached in parliament, he was baniſhed for five years, and had his head ſtruck off on board a ſhip, by a common ſailor. This was followed by an inſurrection of 20,000 Kentiſh-men, headed by one Jack Cade, a man of low condition, who ſent to the court a liſt of grievances; but he was defeated by the valour of the citizens of London, and the queen ſeemed to be perfectly ſecure againſt the duke of York. The inglorious management of the Engliſh affairs in France befriended him, and upon his arrival in England from Ireland, he found a ſtrong party of the nobillty his friends: but being conſidered as the fomenter of Cade's rebellion, he profeſſed the moſt profound reverence to Henry.

The perſons in high power aud reputation in England, next to the duke of York, were the earl of Saliſbury, and his ſon the earl of Warwick. The latter had the greateſt land eſtate of any ſubject in England, and his vaſt abilities, joined to ſome virtues, rendered him equally popular. Both father and ſon were ſecretly on the ſide of York; and during a fit of illneſs of the king, that duke was made protector of the realm. Both ſides now prepared for arms, and the king recovering, the queen with wonderful activity aſſembled an army: but the royaliſts were defeated in the firſt battle of St. Alban's, and the king himſelf was taken priſoner. The duke of York was once more declared protector ef the kingdom, but it was not long before the queen reſumed all her influence in the government, and the king, though his weakneſs became every day more and more viſible, recovered all his authority.

The duke of York upon this threw off the maſk, and in 1450, he openly claimed the crown, and the queen was again defeated by the earl of Warwick, who was now called the king-maker. A parliament upon this being aſſembled, it was enacted, that Henry ſhould poſſeſs the throne for life, but that the duke of York ſhould ſucceed him, to the excluſion of all Henry's iſſue. All, excepting the magnanimous queen, agreed to this compromiſe. She retreated northwards, and the king being ſtill a priſoner, ſhe pleaded his cauſe ſo well, that, aſſembling a freſh army, ſhe fought the battle of Wakefield, where the duke of York was defeated and ſlain in 1460.

It is pretty extraordinary, that though the duke of York and his party openly aſſerted his claim to the crown, they ſtill profeſſed allegiance to Henry; but the duke of York's ſon, afterwards Edward IV. prepared to revenge his father's death, and obtained ſeveral victories over the royaliſts. The queen, however, advanced towards London, and defeating the earl of Warwick, in the ſecond battle of St. Alban's, ſhe delivered her huſband; but the diſorders committed by her northern troops diſguſted the Londoners ſo much, that ſhe durſt not enter London, where the duke of York was received on the 28th of February, 1461, while the queen and her huſband were obliged to retreat northwards. She ſoon raiſed another army, and fought the battle of Towton, the moſt bloody perhaps that ever happened in any civil war. After prodigies of valour had been performed on both ſides, the victory remained with young king Edward, and near 40,000 men lay dead on the field of battle. Margaret and her huſband were once more obliged to fly to Scotland, where they met with generous protection.

It may be proper to obſerve, that this civil war was carried on with greater animoſity than any perhaps ever known. Margaret was as blood-thirſty

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as her opponents, and when priſoners on either ſide were made, their deaths, eſpecially if they were of any rank, were deferred only for a few hours.

Margaret by the conceſſions ſhe made to the Scots, ſoon raiſed a freſh army there, and in the north of England, but met with defeat upon defeat, till at laſt her huſband, the unfortunate Henry, was carried priſoner to London.

The duke of York, now Edward IV. being crowned on the 29th of June, fell in love with, and privately married Elizabeth, the widow of Sir John Gray, though he had ſome time before ſent the earl of Warwick to demand the king of France's ſiſter in marriage, in which embaſſy he was ſucceſsful, and nothing remained but the bringing over the princeſs into England. When the ſecret of Edward's marriage broke out, the haughty earl deeming himſelf affronted, returned to England inflamed with rage and indignation; and from being Edward's beſt friend became his moſt formidable enemy, and gaining over the duke of Clarence, Edward was made priſoner, but eſcaping from his confinement, the earl of Warwick, and the French king, Lewis XI. declared for the reſtoration of Henry, who was replaced on the throne, and Edward narrowly eſcaped to Holland. Returning from thence, he advanced to London under pretence of claiming his dukedom of York; but being received into the capital, he reſumed the exerciſe of royal authority, made king Henry once more his priſoner, and defeated and killed Warwick, in the battle of Barnet. A few days after, he defeated a freſh army of Lancaſtrians, and made queen Margaret priſoner, together with her ſon prince Edward, whom Edward's brother, the duke of Glouceſter, murdered in cold blood, as he is ſaid (but with no great ſhew of probability) to have done his father Henry VI. then a priſoner in the Tower of London, a few days after, in the year 1471.

Edward, partly to amuſe the public, and partly to ſupply the vaſt expences of his court, pretended ſometimes to quarrel, and ſometimes to treat with France, but his irregularities brought him to his death (1483) in the twenty-third year of his reign, and forty-ſecond of his age.

Notwithſtanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increaſed during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was thought of by the Engliſh, as the only means to preſerve to themſelves the benefit of being the ſole carriers of their own merchandiſe; but foreign influence prevented Henry's paſſing the bill for that purpoſe. The invention of printing, which is generally ſuppoſed to have been imported into England by William Caxton, and which received ſome countenance from Edward, is the chief glory of his reign; but learning in general was then in a poor ſtate in England. The lord Tiptoft was its great patron, and ſeems to have been the firſt Engliſh nobleman who cultivated what are now called the belles lettres. The books printed by Caxton are moſtly re-tranſlations, or compilations from the French or Monkiſh Latin; but it muſt be acknowledged, at the ſame time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progreſs among the Engliſh, than it did in any other European nation. The famous Littleton, judge of the Common Pleas, and Forteſcue, chancellor of England, flouriſhed at this period.

Edward IV. left two ſons by his queen, who had exerciſed her power with no great prudence, by having nobilitated many of her obſcure relations. Her eldeſt ſon, Edward V. was about thirteen; and his uncle the duke of

Glouceſter, taking advantage of the queen's unpopularity among the great men, found means to baſtardize her iſſue, by act of parliament, under the ſcandalous pretext of a pre-contract between their fathers and another lady. The duke, at the ſame time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at laſt accepted of the crown, which was offered him by the Londoners; having firſt put to death all the nobility and great men, whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the king and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. The moſt probable opinion is, that they were clandeſtinely ſent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger ſurvived, and was the ſame who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it will, the Engliſh were prepoſſeſſed ſo ſtrongly againſt Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that the earl of Richmond who ſtill remained in France, carried on a ſecret correſpondence with the remains of Edward IV.'s friends, and by offering to marry his eldeſt daughter, he was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreign troops; but they were ſoon joined by 7000 Engliſh and Welch. A battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, enſued at Boſworth-field, in which Richard, after diſplaying moſt aſtoniſhing acts of perſonal valour, was killed, having been firſt abandoned by a main diviſion of his army, under lord Stanley and his brother, in the year 1485.

Though the ſame act of baſtardy affected the daughters, as well as the ſons of the late king, yet no diſputes were raiſed upon the legitimacy of the princeſs Elizabeth, eldeſt daughter to Edward IV. and who, as had been before concerted, married Henry of Lancaſter, earl of Richmond, thereby uniting both houſes, which happily put an end to the long and bloody wars between the contending houſes of York and Lancaſter. Henry, however, reſted his right upon conqueſt, and ſeemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the firſt who inſtituted that guard called *Yeomen*, which ſtill ſubſiſts, and in imitation of his predeceſſor, he gave an irrecoverable blow to the dangerous privileges aſſumed by the barons, in aboliſhing liveries and retainers, by which every malefactor could ſhelter himſelf from the law, on aſſuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his perſon. The deſpotic court of ſtar-chamber owed its original to Henry; but at the ſame time, it muſt be acknowledged, that he paſſed many acts, eſpecially for trade and navigation, that were highly for the benefit of his ſubjects; and, as a finiſhing ſtroke to the feudal tenures, an act paſſed by which the barons and gentlemen of landed intereſt were at liberty to ſell and mortgage their lands, without fines or licenes for the alienation.

This, if we regard its conſequences, is perhaps the moſt important act that ever paſſed in an Engliſh parliament, though its tendency ſeems only to have been known to the politic king. Luxury, by the increaſe of trade, and the diſcovery of America, had broken with irreſiſtible force into England, and monied property being chiefly in the hands of the commons, the eſtates of the barons became theirs, but without any of their dangerous privileges; and thus the baronial powers were ſoon extinguiſhed in England.

Henry, after encountering and ſurmounting many difficulties both in France and Ireland, was attacked in the poſſeſſion of his throne by a young man, one Perkin Warbeck, who pretended to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon to Edward IV. and was acknowledged as ſuch by the ducheſs of Burgundy, Edward's ſiſter. We ſhall not follow the adventures of this young man, which were various and uncommon; but it is certain that many of the

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Engliſh, with the courts of France and Scotland, believed him to be what he pretended. Henry endeavoured to prove the death of Edward V. and his brother, but never did it to the public ſatisfaction; and though James IV. of Scotland diſmiſſed Perkin out of his dominions, being engaged in a treaty of marriage with Henry's oldeſt daughter, yet by the kind manner in which he entertained and diſmiſſed him, it is plain that he believed him to be the real duke of York, eſpecially as he refuſed to deliver up his perſon, which he might have done with honour, had he thought him an impoſtor. Perkin, after various unfortunate adventures, fell into Henry's hands, and was ſhut up in the Tower of London, from whence he endeavoured to eſcape along with the innocent earl of Warwick, for which Perkin was hanged, and the earl beheaded. In 1499, Henry's eldeſt ſon, Arthur prince of Wales, was married to the princeſs Catharine of Arragon, daughter to the king and queen of Spain, and he dying ſoon after, ſuch was Henry's reluctance to refund her great dowry, 200,000 crowns of gold, that he conſented to her being married again to his ſecond ſon, then prince of Wales, on pretence that the firſt match had not been conſummated. Soon after, Henry's eldeſt daughter, the princeſs Margaret, was ſent with a moſt magnificent train to Scotland, where ſhe was married to James IV. Henry, at the time of his death, which happened in 1509, the 52d year of his age, and 24th of his reign, was poſſeſſed of 1,800,000l. ſterling, which is equivalent to five millions at preſent; ſo that he may be ſuppoſed to have been maſter of more ready money than all the kings in Europe beſides poſſeſſed, the mines of Peru and Mexico being then only beginning to be worked. He was immoderately fond of repleniſhing his coffers, and often tricked his parliament to grant him ſubſidies for foreign alliances which he intended not to purſue.

I have already mentioned the vaſt alteration which happened in the conſtitution of England during Henry VII.'s reign. His exceſſive love of money, and his avarice, was the probable reaſon why he did not become maſter of the Weſt Indies, he having the firſt offer of the diſcovery from Columbus, whoſe propoſals being rejected by Henry, that great man applied to the court of Spain, and he ſet out upon the diſcovery of a new world in the year 1492, which he effected after a paſſage of thirty-three days, and took poſſeſſion of the country in the name of the king and queen of Spain. Henry, however, made ſome amends by encouraging Cabot, a Venetian, who diſcovered the main land of North America in 1498; and we may obſerve to the praiſe of this king, that ſometimes, in order to promote commerce, he lent to merchants ſums of money without intereſt, when he knew that their ſtock was not ſufficient for thoſe enterprizes which they had in view. From the proportional prices of living, produced by Madox, Fleetwood, and other writers, agriculture and breeding of cattle muſt have been prodigiouſly advanced before Henry's death: an inſtance of this is given in the caſe of lady Anne, ſiſter to Henry's queen, who had an allowance of 20s. per week for her exhibition, ſuſtentation, and convenient diet of meat and drink; alſo for two gentlewomen, one woman child, one gentleman, one yeoman, and three grooms (in all eight perſons), 51l. 11s. 8d. per annum, for their wages, diet, and clothing; and for the maintenance of ſeven horſes, 16l. 9s. 4d. *i. e.* for each horſe, 2l. 7s. 0d. ¼ yearly, money being ſtil 1 ¼ times as weighty as our modern ſilver coin. Wheat was that year no more than 3s. 4d. a quarter, which anſwers to 5s. of our money, conſequently it was about ſeven times as cheap as at preſent; ſo that had all other neceſſaries been equally

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cheap, ſhe could have lived as well as on 1200l. 10s. 6d. of our modern money, or ten times as cheap as at preſent.

The fine arts were as far advanced in England at the acceſſion of Henry VIII. 1509, as in any European country, if we except Italy; and perhaps no prince ever entered with greater advantages than he did on the exerciſe of royalty. Young, vigorous, and rich, without any rival, he held the balance of power in Europe; but it is certain that he neglected thoſe advantages in commerce, with which his father became too lately acquainted. Imagining he could not ſtand in need of a ſupply, he did not improve Cabot's diſcoveries, and he ſuffered the Eaſt and Weſt Indies to be engroſſed by Portugal and Spain. His vanity engaged him too much in the affairs of the continent, and his flatterers encouraged him to make preparations for the conqueſt of all France. Theſe projects and his eſtabliſhing what is properly called a *navy royal*, for the permanent defence of the nation (a moſt excellent meaſure), led him into incredible expences. He became a candidate for the German empire, during its vacancy; but ſoon reſigned his pretenſions to Francis I. of France, and Charles of Auſtria, king of Spain, who was elected in 1519. Henry's conduct, in the long and bloody wars between thoſe princes, was directed by Wolſey's views upon the popedom, which he hoped to gain by the intereſt of Charles; but finding himſelf twice deceived, he perſuaded his maſter to declare himſelf for Francis, who had been taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia. Henry, however, continued to be the dupe of all parties, and to pay great part of their expences, till at laſt he was forced to lay vaſt burdens upon his ſubjects.

Henry continued all this time the great enemy of the reformation, and the champion of the popes and the Romiſh church. He wrote a book againſt Luther, "of the *Seven Sacraments*." about the year 1521, for which the pope gave him the title of *Defender of the Faith*, which his ſucceſſors retain to this day; but about the year 1527, he began to have ſome ſcruples with regard to the validity of his marriage with his brother's widow. I ſhall not ſay, how far on this occaſion he might be influenced by ſcruples of conſcience, or averſion to the queen, or the charms of the famous Anne Boleyn, maid of honour to the queen, whom he married, before he had obtained from Rome the proper bulls of divorce from the pope. The difficulties he met with in this proceſs, ruined Wolſey, who died heart-broken, after being ſtript of his immenſe poſſeſſions.

A perplexing, though nice conjuncture of affairs, it is well known, induced Henry at laſt to throw off all relation to, or dependence upon the church of Rome, and to bring about a reformation; in which, however, many of the Romiſh errors and ſuperſtitions were retained. Henry never could have effected this mighty meaſure, had it not been for his deſpotic diſpoſition, which broke out on every occaſion. Upon a ſlight ſuſpicion of his queen's inconſtancy, and after a ſham trial, he cut off her head in the Tower, and put to death ſome of her neareſt relations; and in many reſpects he acted in the moſt arbitrary manner, his wiſhes, however unreaſonable, being too readily complied with, in conſequence of the ſhameful ſervility of his parliaments. The diſſolution of the religious houſes, and the immenſe wealth that came to Henry, by ſeizing all the eccleſiaſtical property in his kingdom, enabled him to give full ſcope to his ſanguinary diſpoſition; ſo that the beſt and moſt innocent blood of England was ſhed on ſcaffolds, and ſeldom any long time paſſed without being marked with ſome illuſtrious victim of his tyranny.—Among others, was the aged counteſs of Saliſbury, deſcended immediately from Edward IV. and mother to cardinal Pole; the marquis of

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Exeter, the lord Montague, and others of the blood royal, for holding a correſpondence with that cardinal.

His third wife was Jane Seymour, daughter to a gentleman of fortune and family; but ſhe died in bringing Edward VI. into the world. His fourth wife was Anne, ſiſter to the duke of Cleves. He diſliked her ſo much that he ſcarcely bedded with her, and obtaining a divorce, he ſuffered her to reſide in England on a penſion of 30,000l. a year. His fifth wife was Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk, whoſe head he cut off for ante-nuptial incontinency. His laſt wife was queen Catharine Par, in whoſe poſſeſſion he died, after ſhe had narrowly eſcaped being brought to the ſtake, for her religions opinions, which favoured the reformation. Henry's cruelty increaſed with his years, and was now exerciſed promiſcuouſly on Proteſtants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surry to death without a crime being proved againſt him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, muſt have ſuffered the next day, had he not been ſaved by Henry's own death, 1547, in the 56th year of his age, and the 38th of his reign.

The ſtate of England, during the reign of Henry VIII. is, by the help of printing, too well known to be enlarged upon here. His attention to the naval ſecurity of England is highly commendable; and it is certain that he employed the unjuſt and arbitrary power he frequently aſſumed, in many reſpects for the glory and intereſt of his ſubjects. Without enquiring into his religious motives, it muſt be candidly confeſſed, that had the reformation gone through all the forms preſcribed by the laws, and the courts of juſtice, it probably never could have taken place, or at leaſt not for many years; and whatever Henry's perſonal crimes or failings might have been, the partition he made of the church's property among his courtiers and favourites, and thereby reſcuing it from dead hands, undoubtedly promoted the preſent greatneſs of England. With regard to learning and the arts, Henry was a generous encourager of both. He gave a penſion to Eraſmus, which is another name for learning itſelf. He brought to England, encouraged, and protected Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign, noblemen's houſes began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a conſtant and generous friend to Cranmer: and though he was, upon the whole rather whimſical than ſettled in his own principles of religion, he advanced and encouraged many who became afterwards the inſtruments of a more pure reformation.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in Engliſh. Wales was united and incorporated with England. Ireland was created into a kingdom, and Henry took the title of king inſtead of lord of Ireland.

Edward VI. was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death; and after ſome diſputes were over, the regency was ſettled in the perſon of his uncle the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector, and duke of Somerſet, a declared friend and patron of the reformation, and a bitter enemy to the ſee of Rome.

The reader is to obſerve in general, that the reformation was not effected without many public diſturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the vaſt relief they had from abbeys and religious houſes, and being ejected from their ſmall corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often ſuppreſſed by the government; and ſeveral of theſe inſurrections were cruſhed in this reign.

The reformation, however, went on rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer, and others, ſome of them foreign divines. In ſome caſes, particularly with regard

regard to the princeſs Mary, they loſt ſight of that moderation, which the reformers had before ſo ſtrongly recommended; and ſome cruel ſanguinary executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuſes him from blame, and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell, and St. Thomas's hoſpitals, and alſo ſeveral ſchools which ſtill exiſt and flouriſh, ſhew the goodneſs of his heart. He died of a deep conſumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age, and the 7th of his reign.

Edward, on his death-bed, from his zeal for religion, had made a very unconſtitutional will, for he ſet aſide his ſiſter Mary from the ſucceſſion, which was claimed by lady Jane Grey, daughter to the dutcheſs of Suffolk, younger ſiſter to Henry VIII. This lady, though ſhe had ſcarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the Engliſh nation recogniſed the claim of the princeſs Mary, who cut off lady Jane's head, and that of her huſband lord Guildford Dudley, ſon to the duke of Northumberland, who alſo ſuffered in the ſame manner.

Mary being thus ſettled on the throne, ſuppreſſed an inſurrection under Wyat, and proceeded like a female fury to re-eſtabliſh popery, which ſhe did all over England. She recalled cardinal Pole from baniſhment, made him inſtrumental in her cruelties, and lighted up the flames of perſecution, in which archbiſhop Cranmer, the biſhops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illuſtrious confeſſors of the Engliſh reformed church, were conſumed; not to mention a vaſt number of other ſacrifices of both ſexes, and all ranks, that ſuffered through every quarter of the kingdom. Bonner biſhop of London, and Gardiner biſhop of Wincheſter, were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and had ſhe lived, ſhe would have endeavoured to exterminate all her proteſtant ſubjects.

Mary now married Philip II. of Spain, who, like herſelf, was an unfeeling bigot to popery; and the chief praiſe of her reign is, that by the marriage articles, proviſion was made for the independency of the Engliſh crown. By the aſſiſtance of troops, which ſhe furniſhed to her huſband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was ſo ill improved, that the French under the duke of Guiſe, ſoon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the Engliſh in France, and which had been held ever ſince the reign of Edward III. This loſs, which was chiefly owing to cardinal Pole's ſecret connections with the French court is ſaid to have broken Mary's heart, who died in 1558, in the 42d year of her life, and 6th of her reign. "In the heat of her perſecuting flames (ſays a contemporary writer of credit), were burnt to aſhes, one archbiſhop, 4 biſhops, 21 divines, 8 gentlemen, 84 artificers, 100 huſbandmen, ſervants and labourers, 26 wives, 20 widows, 9 virgins, 2 boys, and 2 infants; one of them whipped to death by Bonner, and the other, ſpringing out of the mother's womb from the ſtake as ſhe burned, thrown again into the fire." Several alſo died in priſon, and many were otherwiſe cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the moſt diſcouraging circumſtances both at home and abroad. Popery was the eſtabliſhed religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumſtances attending her mother's marriage and death, was diſputed by Mary queen of Scots, grandchild to Henry VII's eldeſt daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally ſhe had on the continent was Philip king of Spain, who was the life and ſoul of the popiſh cauſe, both abroad and in England. Elizabeth was no more than 25 years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her ſufferings under her bigoted ſiſter,

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joined to the ſuperiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy, and ſhe ſoon conquered all difficulties.

In matters of religion ſhe ſucceeded with ſurpriſing facility; for in her firſt parliament, in 1550 the laws eſtabliſhing popery were repealed, her ſupremacy was reſtored, and an act of uniformity paſſed ſoon after. And it is obſerved, that of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only about 120 refuſed to comply with the reformation. With regard to her title, ſhe took advantage of the divided ſtate of Scotland, and formed a party there, by which Mary, now become the widow of Francis II. of France, was obliged to renounce, or rather to ſuſpend her claim. Elizabeth, not contented with this, ſent troops and money, which ſupported the Scotch malecontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the ſuppoſed murderer of the former, and her other miſconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where ſhe had often been promiſed a a ſafe and honourable aſylum. It is well known how unfaithful Elizabeth was to this profeſſion of friendſhip, and that ſhe detained the unhappy priſoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a ſham trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and without ſufficient proof of her guilt, cut off her head; an action which greatly tarniſhed the glories of her reign.

The ſame Philip, who had been the huſband of her late ſiſter, upon Elizabeth's acceſſion to the throne, offered to marry her, but ſhe dextrouſly avoided his addreſſes; and by a train of ſkilful negociations between her court and that of France, ſhe kept the balance of Europe ſo undetermined, that ſhe had leiſure to unite her people at home, and to eſtabliſh an excellent internal policy to her dominions. She ſupported the proteſtants of France, againſt their perſecuting princes and the papiſts; and gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the ſtrongeſt aſſurances that one or other of them ſhould be her huſband; by which ſhe kept that court, who dreaded Spain, at the ſame time in ſo good humour with her government, that it ſhewed no reſentment when ſhe cut off queen Mary's head.

When Philip was no longer to be impoſed upon by Elizabeth's arts, which had amuſed and baffled him in every quarter, it is well known that he made uſe of the immenſe ſums he drew from Peru and Mexico, in equipping the moſt formidable armament that perhaps ever had been put to ſea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the beſt captain of that age; and that he procured a papal bull for abſolving Elizabeth's ſubjects from their allegiance. The largeneſs of the Spaniſh ſhips proved diſadvantageous to them on the ſeas where they engaged; the lord admiral Howard, and the brave ſea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chaſed the Spaniſh fleet for ſeveral days: and the ſeas and tempeſts finiſhed the deſtruction which the Engliſh arms had begun, and few of the Spaniſh ſhips recovered their ports. Next to the admiral, lord Howard of Effingham, Sir Francis Drake, captain Hawkins, and captain Frobiſher, diſtinguiſhed themſelves againſt this formidable invaſion, in which the Spaniards are ſaid to have loſt 81 ſhips of war, large and ſmall, and 13,500 men.

Elizabeth had for ſome time ſupported the revolt of the Hollanders from Philip, and had ſent them her favourite, the earl of Leiceſter, who acted as her viceroy, and general in the Low Countries. Though Leiceſter behaved ill, yet her meaſures were ſo wiſe, that the Dutch eſtabliſhed their independency upon Spain; and then ſhe ſent forth her fleets under Drake, Raleigh, the earl of Cumberland, and other gallant naval officers into the Eaſt and

Weſt Indies, from whence they brought prodigious treaſures taken from the Spaniards, into England.

Elizabeth in her old age grew diſtruſtful, peeviſh, and jealous. Though ſhe undoubtedly loved the earl of Eſſex, ſhe teaſed him by her capriciouſneſs into the madneſs of taking arms, and then cut off his head. She complained that ſhe had been betrayed into this ſanguinary meaſure, and this occaſioned a ſinking of her ſpirits, which brought her to her grave in 1603, the ſeventieth year of her age, and 45th of her reign, having previouſly named her kinſman James VI. king of Scotland, and ſon to Mary, for her ſucceſſor.

The above form the great lines of Elizabeth's reign; and from them may be traced, either immediately or remotely, every act of her government. She ſupported the proteſtants in Germany againſt the houſe of Auſtria, of which Philip, king of Spain, was the head. She cruſhed the papiſts in her own dominions for the ſame reaſon, and made a farther reformation in the church, of England, in which ſtate it has remained ever ſince. In 1600 the Engliſh Eaſt-India company received its firſt formation, that trade being then in the hands of the Portugueſe (in conſequence of their having firſt diſcovered the paſſage to India by the Cape of Good Hope, by Vaſco de Gama, in the reign of Henry VII.), who at that time were ſubjects to Spain; and factories were eſtabliſhed in China, Japan, India, Amboyna, Java, and Sumatra.

As to Elizabeth's internal government, the ſucceſſes of her reign have diſguiſed it; for ſhe was far from being a friend to perſonal liberty, and ſhe was guilty of many ſtretches of power againſt the moſt ſacred rights of Engliſhmen. The ſevere ſtatutes againſt the puritans, debarring them of liberty of conſcience, and by which many ſuffered death, muſt be condemned.

We can ſcarcely require a ſtronger proof that the Engliſh began to be tired of Elizabeth, than the joy teſtified by all ranks at the acceſſion of her ſucceſſor, notwithſtanding the long, inveterate animoſities between the two kingdoms, James was far from being deſtitute of natural abilities for government; but he had received wrong impreſſions of the regal office, and too high an opinion of his own dignity, learning, and political talents. It was his misfortune that he mounted the Engliſh throne under a full conviction that he was entitled to all the unconſtitutional powers that had been occaſionally exerciſed by Elizabeth and the houſe of Tudor; and which various cauſes had prevented the people from oppoſing with proper vigour. The nation had been wearied and exhauſted by the long and deſtructive wars between the houſes of Lancaſter and York, in the courſe of which, the ancient nobility were in great part cut off; and the people were inclined to endure much, rather than again involve themſelves in the miſeries of civil war. Neither did James, make any allowance for the glories of Elizabeth; which as I have obſerved, diſguiſed her moſt arbitrary acts; and none for the free, liberal ſentiments, which the improvement of knowledge and learning had diffuſed through England. It is needleſs, perhaps, to point out the vaſt increaſe of property through trade and navigation which enabled the Engliſh at the ſame time to defend their liberties. James's firſt attempt of great conſequence was to effect an union between England and Scotland; but though he failed in this through the averſion of the Engliſh to that meaſure, on account of his loading his Scotch courtiers with wealth and honours, he ſhewed no violent reſentment at the diſappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increaſed by the diſcovery and defeat of the gunpowder treaſon.

This was a ſcheme of the Roman catholics to cut off at one blow the king,

lords, and commons, at the meeting of parliament; when it was alſo expected that the queen and prince of Wales would be preſent. The manner of enliſting any new conſpirator was by oath, and adminiſtering the ſacrament; and this dreadful ſecret, after being religiouſly kept near eighteen months, was happily diſcovered in the following manner: about ten days before the long wiſhed-for meeting of parliament, a Roman catholic peer received a letter, which had been delivered to his ſervant by an unknown hand, earneſtly adviſing him to ſhift off his attendance on parliament at that time; but which contained no kind of explanation. The nobleman, though he conſidered the letter as a fooliſh attempt to frighten and ridicule him, thought proper to lay it before the king, who ſtudying the contents with more attention, began to ſuſpect ſome dangerous contrivance by gun powder; and it was judged adviſeable to inſpect all the vaults below the houſes of parliament; but the ſearch was purpoſely delayed till the night immediately preceding the meeting, when a juſtice of peace was ſent with proper attendants, and before the door of the vault, under the upper houſe, finding one Fawkes, who had juſt finiſhed all his preparations, he immediately ſeized him, and at the ſame time diſcovered in the vault 36 barrels of powder, which had been carefully concealed under faggots and piles of wood. The match, with every thing proper for ſetting fire to the train, were found in Fawkes's pocket, whoſe countenance beſpoke his ſavage diſpoſition, and who, after regretting that he had loſt the opportunity of deſtroying ſo many heretics, made a full diſcovery; and the conſpirators, who never exceeded eighty in number, being ſeized by the country people, confeſſed their guilt, and were executed in different parts of England. Notwithſtanding this horrid crime, the bigoted catholics were ſo devoted to Garnet, a Jeſuit, one of the conſpirators, that they fancied miracles to be wrought by his blood, and in Spain he was conſidered as a martyr. The above letter to lord Mounteagle had long been ſuppoſed to be an artifice of Cecil's, his firſt miniſter, and that the king and himſelf received full intimation of the plot from Henry IV. of France, by the marquis de Sully. So they let the conſpirators work on, till all was prepared for the ſtroke, and they might know all their ſtrength.

James and his miniſters were continually inventing new ways to raiſe money, as by monopolies, benevolence, loans, and other illegal methods. Among other expedients, he ſold the titles of baron, viſcount, and earl, at a certain price, made a number of knights of Nova Scotia, each to pay ſuch a ſum, and inſtituted a new order of knights baronets which was to be hereditary, for which each perſon paid 1095l.

His pacific reign was a ſeries of theological conteſts with eccleſiaſtical caſuiſts, in which he proved himſelf more a theologian than a prince, and in 1617 he attempted to eſtabliſh epiſcopacy in Scotland, but the zeal of the people baffled his deſign.

James gave his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, in marriage to the Elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and he ſoon after aſſumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abuſed for his tame behaviour, after that prince had loſt his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be obſerved, that he always oppoſed his ſon-in-law's aſſuming the crown of Bohemia; that had he kindled a war to reinſtate him in that and his electorate, he probably would have ſtood ſingle in the ſame, excepting the feeble and uncertain aſſiſtance he might have received from the elector's dependents and friends in Germany. Nothing, however, is more certain, than that James furniſhed the elector with large ſums of money to retrieve them, and that he actually raiſed a regiment

of 2200 men under Sir Horace Vere, who carried them over to Germany, where the Germans, under the marquis of Anſpach, refuſed to ſecond them againſt Spinola the Spaniſh general, and that the elector hurt his own cauſe by not giving the brave count Mansfield the command of his troops inſtead of Anſpach.

James has been greatly and juſtly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His firſt was Robert Carr, a private Scotch gentleman, who was raiſed to be firſt miniſter and earl of Somerſet. His next favourite was George Villiers, a private Engliſh gentleman, who, upon Somerſet's diſgrace, was admitted to an unuſual ſhare of favour and familiarity with his ſovereign. James had at that time formed a ſyſtem of policy for attaching himſelf intimately to the court of Spain, that it might aſſiſt him in recovering the Palatinate; and to this ſyſtem he had ſacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hoſtilities againſt the Spaniſh ſettlements in the Weſt Indies. James having loſt his eldeſt ſon, Henry prince of Wales, who had an invincible antipathy to a popiſh match, threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his ſon Charles, who had ſucceeded to that principality. Buckingham, who was equally a favourite with the ſon as with the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour, and againſt the king's will, they travelled in diſguiſe to Spain, where a moſt ſolemn farce of courtſhip was played; but the prince returned without his bride, and had it not been for the royal partiality in his favour, the earl of Briſtol, who was then ambaſſador in Spain, would probably have brought Buckingham to the block.

James was all this while perpetually jarring with his parliament, whom he could not perſuade to furniſh money equal to his demands: and at laſt he agreed to his ſon's marrying the princeſs Henerietta Maria, ſiſter to Lewis XIII. and daughter to Henry the Great of France. James died before the completion of this match; and it is thought that had he lived, he would have diſcarded Buckingham. His death happened in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, after a reign over England of twenty-two years. As to the progreſs of the arts and learning under his reign, it has been already deſcribed. James encouraged and employed that excellent painter Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who reſtored the pure taſte of architecture in England; and in his reign, poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, arrived at its vertical point. Mr. Middleton alſo at this time projected the conveying water into the city from Hertfordſhire by means of pipes, which is now called the *New River*.

The death of the duke of Buckingham, the king's favourite, who was aſſaſſinated by one Felton, a ſubaltern officer, in 1628, did not deter Charles from his arbitrary proceedings, which the Engliſh patriots in that enlightened age juſtly conſidered as ſo many acts of tyranny. He, without authority of parliament, laid arbitrary impoſitions upon trade, which were refuſed to be paid by many of the merchants and members of the houſe of commons. Some of them were impriſoned, and the judges were checked for admitting them to bail. The houſe of commons reſented thoſe proceedings by drawing up a proteſt, and denying admittance to the gentleman uſher of the black rod, who came to adjourn them, till it was finiſhed. This ſerved only to widen the breach, and the king diſſolved the parliament; after which he exhibited informations againſt nine of the moſt eminent members, among whom was the great Mr. Selden, who was as much diſtinguiſhed by his love of liberty, as by his uncommon erudition. They objected to the juriſdiction of the court, but their plea was over-ruled, and they were ſent to priſon during the king's pleaſure.

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Every thing now operated towards the deſtruction of Charles. The commons would vote no ſupplies without ſome redreſs of the national grievances; upon which Charles, preſuming on what had been practiſed in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly, or not at all underſtood, levied money upon monopolies of ſalt, ſoap, and ſuch neceſſaries, and other obſolete claims, particularly for knighthood, and raiſed various taxes without authority of parliament. His government becoming every day more and more unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Baſtwick, a phyſician men of no great eminence or abilities, but warm and reſolute, publiſhed ſeveral pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained ſome ſevere ſtrictures againſt the ruling clergy. They were proſecuted for theſe pieces in the ſtar-chamber in a very arbitrary and cruel manner; and puniſhed with ſo much rigour, as excited an almoſt univerſal indignation againſt the authors of their ſufferings. Thus was the government rendered ſtill more odious; and unfortunately for Charles, he put his conſcience into the hands of Laud, archbiſhop of Canterbury, who was as great a bigot as himſelf, both in church and ſtate. Laud adviſed him to perſecute the puritans, and in the year 1637 to introduce epiſcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed ſecret connections with the diſcontented Engliſh, and invaded England, in Auguſt, 1640, where Charles was ſo ill ſerved by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots, who made themſelves maſters of Newcaſtle and Durham; and being now openly befriended by the houſe of commons, they obliged the king to comply with their demands.

Charles had made Wentworth, earl of Strafford, a man of great abilities, preſident of the council of the North, and lord lieutenant of Ireland: and he was generally believed to be the firſt miniſter of ſtate. Strafford had been a leading member of the oppoſition to the court, but he afterwards, in conjunction with Laud, exerted himſelf ſo vigorouſly in carrying the king's deſpotic ſchemes into execution, that he became an object of public deteſtation. As lord preſident of the North, as lord lieutenant of Ireland, and as a miniſter and privy-counſellor in England, he behaved in a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many actions of great injuſtice and oppreſſion. He was, in conſequence, at length on the 22d of May, 1641, brought to the block, though much againſt the inclinations of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to ſign the warrant for his execution. Archbiſhop Laud was alſo beheaded; but his execution did not take place till a conſiderable time after that of Strafford, the 10th of January, 1645.

In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had paſſed the *petition of right* into a law, which was intended by the parliament as the future ſecurity of the liberty of the ſubject, which eſtabliſhed particularly, "That no man hereafter be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax or ſuch like charge, without common conſent by act of parliament;" but he afterwards violated it in numerous inſtances, ſo that an univerſal diſcontent at his adminiſtration, prevailed throughout the nation. A rebellion alſo broke out in Ireland, on October 23, 1641; where the Proteſtants, without diſtinction of age, ſex, or condition, to the amount of many thouſands, were maſſacred by the Papiſts; and great pains were taken to perſuade the public that Charles ſecretly favoured them out of hatred to the Engliſh ſubjects. The biſhops were expelled the houſe of peers, on account of their conſtantly oppoſing the deſigns and bills of the other houſe; and the leaders of the Engliſh houſe of commons ſtill kept up a correſpondence with the diſcontented

ed Scots. Charles was ill enough adviſed to go in perſon to the houſe of commons, January 4, 1642, and there demanded that lord Kimbolton, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, Mr. Hollis, Sir Arthur Haſelrig, and Mr. Stroud, ſhould be apprehended; but they had previouſly made their eſcape. This act of Charles was reſented as high treaſon againſt his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of ſatisfaction he could make them.

Notwithſtanding the many acts of tyranny and oppreſſion, of which the king and his miniſters had been guilty, yet when the civil war broke out, there were great numbers who repaired to the regal ſtandard. Many of the nobility and gentry were much attached to the crown, and conſidered their own honours as connected with it; and a great part of the landed intereſt was joined to the royal party. The parliament, however, took upon themſelves the executive power, and were favoured by moſt of the trading towns and corporations; but its great reſource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindſay, a brave, but not an enterpriſing commander; but he had great dependence on his nephews, the princes Rupert and Maurice, ſons to the elector Palatine, by his ſiſter the princeſs Elizabeth. In the beginning of the war, the royal army had the aſcendency, but in progreſs of it, affairs took a very different turn. The earl of Eſſex was made general under the parliament, and the firſt battle was fought at Edge-hill in Warwickſhire, the 13d of October 1642; but both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles, for the parliament was ſo much diſtreſſed, that they invited the Scots to come to their aſſiſtance, and they accordingly entered England anew, with about 20,000 horſe and foot. Charles attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houſes met; but his enemies were ſtill ſitting at Weſtminſter, and continued to carry on the war againſt him with great animoſity. The independent party, which had ſcarcely before been thought of, began now to increaſe and to figure at Weſtminſter. They were averſe to the Preſbyterians, who till then had conducted the war againſt the king, nearly as much as to the royaliſts; and ſuch was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed for diſmiſſing the earls of Eſſex and Mancheſter, and the heads of the Preſbyterians, from the parliament's ſervice, ſuppoſing that they were not for bringing the war to a ſpeedy end, or not for reducing the king too low, and for introducing Fairfax, who was an excellent officer, but more manageable, though a Preſbyterian, and ſome independent officers. In the mean while, the war went on with reſentment and loſs on both ſides. Two battles were fought at Newbury, one on Sptember 20th 1643, and the other October, 27, 1644, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewiſe many other ſucceſſes: and having defeated Sir William Waller, he purſued the earl of Eſſex, who remained ſtill in command, into Cornwall, from whence he was obliged to eſcape by ſea; but his infantry ſurrendered themſelves priſoners to the royaliſts, though his cavalry delivered themſelves by their valour.

The firſt fatal blow the king's army received, was at Marſton-moor, July 2d, 1644, where, through the imprudence of prince Rupert, the earl of Mancheſter defeated the royal army, of which 4000 were killed, and 1500 taken priſoners. This victory was owing chiefly to the courage and conduct of Cromwell; and though it might have been retrieved by the ſucceſſes of Charles in the Weſt, yet his whole conduct was a ſtring of miſtakes, till at laſt his affairs became irretrievable. It is true, many treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were ſet on foot during the war, and the heads of the preſbyterian party would have agreed to terms, that very little bounded the king's

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prerogative. They were outwitted, and over-ruled by the independents, who were aſſiſted by the ſtiffneſs, inſincerity, and unamiable behaviour of Charles himſelf. In ſhort, the independents at laſt ſucceeded, in perſuading the members at Weſtminſter, that Charles was not to be truſted, whatever his conceſſions might be. From that moment the affairs of the royaliſts ruſhed into ruin; Charles by piece meal loſt all his towns and forts, and was defeated by Fairfax and Cromwell, at the deciſive battle of Naſeby, June 14. 1645, owing partly, as uſual, to the miſconduct of prince Rupert. This battle was followed with freſh misfortunes to Charles, who retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be ſafe.

The Scots were then beſieging Newark; and no good underſtanding ſubſiſted between them and the Engliſh parliamentarians, but the beſt and moſt loyal friends Charles had, thought it prudent to make their peace. In this melancholy ſituation of his affairs, he eſcaped in diſguiſe from Oxford and came to the Scotch army before Newark, on May 6, 1646, upon promiſe of protection. The Scots, however, were ſo intimidated, by the reſolutions of the parliament at Weſtminſter, that in conſideration of 400,000l of their arrears being paid, they put the perſon of Charles into the hands of the parliament's commiſſioners, probably not ſuſpecting the conſequences.

The presbyterians were now more inclined than ever to make peace with the king, but they were no longer maſters, being forced to receive laws from the army, and the independents. The army now avowed their intentions. They firſt by force took Charles out of the hands of the commiſſioners, June 4. 1647, and then dreading that a treaty might ſtill take place with the king, they impriſoned 41 of the preſbyterian members, voted the houſe of peers to be uſeleſs, and that of the commons was reduced to 150, moſt of them officers of the army. In the mean while, Charles, who unhappily promiſed himſelf relief from thoſe diſſenſions, was carried from priſon to priſon, and ſometimes cajoled by the independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were ſet on foot, but all miſcarried; and he had been imprudent enough, after his effecting an eſcape, to put himſelf into colonel Hammond's hands, the parliament's governor of the iſle of Wight. A freſh negociation was begun, and almoſt finiſhed, when the independents, dreading the general diſpoſition of the people for peace, and ſtrongly perſuaded of the inſincerity of the king, once more ſeized upon his perſon, brought him priſoner to London, carried him before a court of juſtice of their own erecting, and, after an extraordinary trial, his head was cut off, before his own palace at Whitehall, on the 30th of January, 1648-9, being the 49th of his age, and 24th of his reign.

Charles is allowed to have had many virtues, and ſome have ſuppoſed that affliction had taught him ſo much wiſdom and moderation, that had he been reſtored to his throne he would have become an excellent prince; but there is abundant reaſon to conclude, from his private letters, that he retained his arbitrary principles to the laſt, and that he would again have regulated his conduct by them, if he had been reinſtated in power. It is however certain, that notwitſtanding the tyrannical nature of his government, his death was exceedingly lamented by great numbers; and many in the courſe of the civil war, who had been his great opponents in parliament, became converts to his cauſe in which they loſt their lives and fortunes. The ſurviving children of Charles, were Charles and James, who were ſucceſſively kings of England, Henry duke of Glouceſter, who died ſoon after his brother's reſtoration, the princeſs Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and mother to William prince of Orange,

Orange, who was afterwards king of England, and the princeſs Henrietta Maria, who was married to the duke of Orleans, and whoſe daughter was married to Victor Amadeus, duke of Savoy, and king of Sardinia.

They who brought Charles to the block, were men of different perſuaſions and principles, but many of them poſſeſſed moſt amazing abilities for government. They omitted no meaſure that could give a perpetual excluſion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied, that after they erected themſelves into a commonwealth, they did prodigious things for retrieving the glory of England by ſea. They were joined by many of the preſbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards againſt the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the royal domains, they produced, as it were by magic, all at once, a fleet ſuperior to any that had ever been ſeen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland, and though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battles of Dunbar and Worceſter. The ſame commonwealth paſſed an act of navigation; and declaring war againſt the Dutch, who were thought till then invincible by ſea, they effectually humbled thoſe republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time Cromwell, who hated ſubordination to a republic, had the addreſs to get himſelf declared commander in chief of the Engliſh army. Admiral Blake, and the other Engliſh admirals, carried the terror of the Engliſh name by ſea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now but little employment, began to be afraid that his ſervices would be forgotten, for which reaſon he went, April 20, 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 muſqueteers, and diſſolved the parliament, opprobriouſly driving all the members, about a hundred out of their houſe. He next annihilated the counſel of ſtate, with whom the executive power was lodged, and transferred the adminiſtration of government to about 140 perſons, whom he ſummoned to Whitehall, on the 4th of July, 1653.

The war with Holland, in which the Engliſh were again victorious, ſtill continued. Seven bloody engagements by ſea were fought in little more than the compaſs of one year; and in the laſt, which was deciſive in favour of England, the Dutch loſt their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell all this while wanted to be declared king, but he perceived that he muſt encounter unſurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood and his other friends, if he ſhould perſiſt in his reſolution. He was, however declared *lord protector* of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exerciſed all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more deſpotically in ſome reſpects than he did, yet no tyrant ever had fewer real friends, and even thoſe few threatned to oppoſe him, if he ſhould take upon him the title of king. Hiſtorians, in drawing a character of Comwell, have been impoſed upon by his amazing ſucceſs, and dazzled by the luſtre of his fortune; but when we conſult his ſecretary Thurloe's, and other ſtate papers, the impoſition in a great meaſure vaniſhes. After a moſt uncomfortable uſurpation of four years, eight months, and thirteen days, he died on the 3d of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

It is not to be denied that England acquired much more reſpect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than ſhe had been treated with ſince the death of Elizabeth. This was owing to the great men who formed the republic, which Cromwell aboliſhed, and who, as it were, inſtantaneouſly called forth the naval ſtrength of the kingdom. In the

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year 1656, the charge of the public amounted to one million three hundred thouſand pounds; of which a million went to the ſupport of the navy and army, and the remainder to that of the civil government. In the ſame year, Cromwell aboliſhed all tenures *in capite*, by knight's ſervice, and the ſocage in chief, and likewiſe the courts of wards and liveries. Several other grievances that had been complained of, during the late reigns, were likewiſe removed. Next year the total charge, or public expence of England, amounted to two millions three hundred twenty-ſix thouſand nine hundred and eighty nine pounds. The collections by aſſeſſments, exciſe, and cuſtoms, paid into the Exchequer, amounted to two millions three hundred and ſixty-two thouſand pounds, four ſhillings.

Upon the whole it appears, that England, from the year 1648, to the year 1658, was improved equally in riches and in power. The legal intereſt of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent. a ſure ſymptom of increaſing commerce. The famous and beneficial navigation act, that palladium of the Engliſh trade, was now planned and eſtabliſhed, and afterwards confirmed under Charles II. Monopolies of all kinds were aboliſhed, and liberty of conſcience to all ſects was granted, to the vaſt advantage of population and manufactures, which had ſuffered greatly by Laud's intolerant ſchemes, having driven numbers of handicrafts to America, and foreign countries. To the above national meliorations we may add the modeſty and frugality introduced among the common people, and the citizens in particular, by which they were enabled to increaſe their capitals. It appears, however, that Cromwell, had he lived, and been firmly ſettled in the government, would have broken through the ſober maxims of the republicans; for ſome time before his death, he affected great magnificence in his perſon, court, and attendants. He maintained the honour of the nation much, and in many inſtances interpoſed effectually in favour of the the proteſtants abroad. Arts and ſciences were not much patronized, and yet he had the good fortune to meet in the perſon of Cooper, an excellent minature painter, and his coins done by Simon exceed in beauty and workmanſhip any of that age. He certainly did many things worthy of praiſe, and as his genius and capacity led him to the choice of fit perſons for the ſeveral parts of adminiſtration; ſo he paid ſome regard to men of learning, and particularly to thoſe entruſted with the care of youth at the univerſities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, who ſucceeded his father Oliver as protector, ſufficiently proves the great difference there was betwixt them, as to ſpirit and parts in the affairs of government. Richard was placed in his dignity by thoſe who wanted to make him the tool of their own government: and he was ſoon after driven, without the leaſt ſtruggle or oppoſition, into obſcurity. It is in vain for hiſtorians of any party to aſcribe the reſtoration of Charles II. (who with his mother and brothers, during the uſurpation, had lived abroad on a very precarious ſubſiſtence) to the merits of any particular perſons. The preſbyterians were very zealous in promoting it, but it was effected by the general concurrence of the people, who ſeemed to have thought that neither peace nor protection were to be obtained, but by the reſtoring the antient conſtitution of monarchy. General Monk, a man of military abilities, but of no principles excepting ſuch as ſerved his ambition or intereſt, had the ſagacity to obſerve this; and after temporizing in various ſhapes, being at the head of the army, he made the principal figure in reſtoring Charles II. For this he was created duke of Albemarle, confirmed in the command of the army, and loaded with honours and riches.

Charles II. being reſtored in 1660, in the firſt year of his reign ſeemed

to have a real deſire to promote his people's happineſs. Upon his confirming the abolition of all the feudal tenures, he received from the parliament a gift of the exciſe for life; and in this act, coffee and tea are firſt mentioned. By his long reſidence and that of his friends abroad, he imported into England the culture of many elegant vegetables; ſuch as that of aſparagus, artichokes, cauliflowers, and ſeveral kinds of beans, peas, and ſallads. Under him, Jamaica, which had been conquered by the Engliſh under the auſpices of Cromwell, was greatly improved, and made a ſugar colony. The Royal Society was inſtituted, and many popular acts reſpecting trade and colonization were paſſed. In ſhort, Charles knew and cultivated the true intereſts of his kingdom, till he was warped by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence; failings that had the ſame conſequences as deſpotiſm itſelf. He appeared to intereſt himſelf in the ſufferings of his citizens, when London was burnt down in 1666; and it being rebuilt with greater luſtre and conveniences, is a proof of the increaſe of her trade; but there were no bounds to Charles's love of pleaſure, which led him into the moſt extravagant expences. He has been ſeverely cenſured for ſelling Dunkirk to the French king to ſupply his neceſſities, after he had ſquandered the immenſe ſums granted him by parliament. The price was about 250,000l. ſterling. But even in this, his conduct was more defenſible than in his ſecret connections with France, which were of the moſt ſcandalous nature, utterly repugnant to the welfare of the kingdom, and ſuch as muſt ever reflect infamy on his memory.

Among the evidences of his degeneracy as a king, may be mentioned his giving way to the popular clamour againſt the lord Clarendon, as the chief adviſer of the ſale of Dunkirk; a man of extenſive knowledge, and great abilities, and more honeſt in his intentions than moſt of his other miniſters, but whom he ſacrificed to the ſycophants of his pleaſurable hours. The firſt Dutch war, which began in 1665, was carried on with great reſolution and ſpirit under the duke of York; but through Charles's miſapplication of the public money which had been granted for the war, the Dutch, while a treaty of peace was depending at Breda, found means to inſult the royal navy of England, by ſailing up the Medway as far as Chatham, and deſtroyed ſeveral capital ſhips of war. Soon after this, a peace was concluded at Breda between Great Britain and the States-general, for the preſervation of the Spaniſh Netherlands; and Sweden having acceded to the treaty, 1668, it was called the *triple alliance*.

In 1671, Charles was ſo ill adviſed as to ſeize upon the money of the bankers, which had been lent him at 8l. per cent. and to ſhut up the Exchequer. This was an indefenſible ſtep; and Charles pretended to juſtify it by the neceſſity of his affairs, being then on the eve of a freſh war with Holland. This was declared in 1672, and had almoſt proved fatal to that republic, for in this war, the Engliſh fleet and army acted in conjunction with thoſe of France. The duke of York commanded the Engliſh fleet, and diſplayed great gallantry in that ſtation. The duke of Monmouth, the eldeſt and favourite natural ſon of Charles, commanded 6000 Engliſh forces, who joined the French in the Low Countries; and all Holland muſt have fallen into the hands of the French, had it not been for the vanity of their monarch Lewis XIV. who was in a hurry to enjoy his triumph in his capital, and ſome very unforeſeen circumſtances. All confidence was now loſt between Charles and his parliament, notwithſtanding the glory which the Engliſh fleet obtained by ſea againſt the Dutch. The popular clamour at laſt

laſt obliged Charles to give peace to that republic, in conſideration of 200,000l. which was paid him.

In ſome things Charles acted very deſpotically. He complained of the freedom taken with his prerogative in coffee-houſes, and ordered them to be ſhut up, but in a few days afterwards they were opened again. Great rigour and ſeverity were exerciſed againſt the Preſbyterians, and all other nonconformiſts to epiſcopacy, which was again eſtabliſhed with a high hand in Scotland as well as in England. His parliament addreſſed him, but in vain, to make war with France in the year 1677, for he was entirely devoted to that crown, and regularly received its money as a penſioner, and hoped through its influence and power to be abſolute. It is not however to be denied, that the trade of England was now incredibly increaſed, and Charles entered into many vigorous meaſures for its protection and ſupport.

Charles's connections in France gave him no merit in the eyes of his parliament, which grew every day more and more exaſperated againſt the French and the Papiſts; at the head of whom was the king's eldeſt brother, and preſumptive heir of the crown, the duke of York. Charles dreaded the proſpect of a civil war, and offered many conceſſions to avoid it. But many of the members of parliament were bent upon ſuch a revolution as afterwards took place, and were ſecretly determined that the duke of York never ſhould reign. In 1678, the famous Titus Oates, and ſome others, opened a plot, charging the papiſts with a deſign to murder the king, and to introduce popery by means of Jeſuits in England, and from St. Omer's. Though nothing could be more ridiculous, and more ſelf-contradictory, than ſome part of their narrative, yet it was ſupported with the utmoſt zeal on the part of the parliament. The aged lord Stafford, Coleman ſecretary to the duke of York, with many Jeſuits, and other papiſts, were publicly executed on evidences, ſuppoſed now to have been perjured, by thoſe who will have the whole plot to have been a fiction. The queen herſelf eſcaped with difficulty; the duke of York was obliged to retire into foreign parts, and Charles, though convinced, as it is ſaid, that the whole was an impoſture, yielded to the torrent. At laſt it ſpent its force. The earl of Shafteſbury, who was at the head of the oppoſition, puſhed on the total excluſion of the duke of York from the throne. He was ſeconded by the ill-adviſed duke of Monmouth, and the bill, after paſſing the commons, miſcarried in the houſe of peers. All England was again in a flame; but the king, by a well-timed adjournment of the parliament to Oxford, ſeemed to recover the affections of his people to a very great degree.

The Duke of York and his party made a ſcandalous uſe of their victory. They trumped up on their ſide a plot of the proteſtants for ſeizing and killing the king, and altering the government. This plot was as falſe as that which had been laid againſt the papiſts. The excellent lord Ruſſel, who had been remarkable in his oppoſition to the popiſh ſucceſſion, Algernon Sidney, and ſeveral other diſtinguiſhed proteſtants, were tried, condemned, and ſuffered death, and the king ſet his foot on the neck of oppoſition. Even the city of London was intimidated into the meaſures of the court, as were almoſt all the corporations in the kingdom. The duke of Monmouth and the earl of Shafteſbury were obliged to fly, and the duke of York returned in triumph to Whitehall. It was thought, however, that Charles repented of ſome of his arbitrary ſteps, and intended to have recalled the duke of Monmouth, and have executed ſome meaſures for the future quiet of his reign; when he died February 6th, 1684-5, in the 55th year of age, and 25th of his reign.

He had married Catharine, infanta of Portugal, by whom he received a large fortune in ready money, beſides the town and fortreſs of Tangier in Africa; but he left behind him no lawful iſſue. The deſcendants of his natural ſons and daughters, are now amongſt the moſt diſtinguiſhed of the Britiſh nobility.

The reign of Charles has been celebrated for wit and gallantry, but both were coarſe and indelicate. The court was the nurſery of vice, and the ſtage exhibited ſcenes of impurity. Some readers were found, who could admire Milton as well as Dryden, and never perhaps were the pulpits of England ſo well ſupplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural, witneſs the ſtyle of their ſermons; and the days of Charles may be called the Auguſtan age of mathematics and natural philoſophy. Charles loved and underſtood the arts more than he encouraged, or rewarded them, eſpecially thoſe of Engliſh growth; but this neglect proceeeded not from narrow-mindedneſs, but indolence and want of reflection. If the memory of Charles II. has been traduced for being the firſt Engliſh prince, who formed a body of ſtanding force, as guards to his perſon; it ought to be remembered, at the ſame time, that he carried the art of ſhip-building to the higheſt perfection; and that the royal navy of England, at this day, owes its fineſt improvements to his and his brother's knowledge of naval affairs and architecture. As to his religion, James, ſoon after his death, publiſhed to the world, that his brother, notwithſtanding his repeated profeſſions of regard to the proteſtant faith, was a papiſt and died ſuch, of which there are now inconteſtable proofs.

All the oppoſition which, during the late reign, had ſhaken the throne, ſeems to have vaniſhed at the acceſſion of James II. The popular affection towards him was increaſed by the early declaration he made in favour of the church of England, which, during the late reign, had formally pronounced all reſiſtance to the reigning king to be unlawful. This doctrine proved fatal to James, and almoſt ruined proteſtantiſm. The army and people ſupported him in cruſhing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who pretended to be the lawful ſon of Charles II. and as ſuch had aſſumed the title of king. That duke's head being cut off, July 15, 1685, and ſome hundreds of his followers hanged, drawn and quartered, in the Weſt of England, exhibiting a ſcene of barbarity ſcarcely ever known in this country; by the inſtrumentality of Jefferies and colonel Kitke, James deſperately reſolved to try how far the practice of the church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-reſiſtance. The experiment failed him. He made the moſt provoking ſteps to render popery the eſtabliſhed religion of his dominions. He pretended to a power of diſpenſing with the known laws; he inſtituted an illegal eccleſiaſtical court, he openly received and admitted into his privy council the pope's emiſſaries, and gave them more reſpect than was due to the miniſters of a ſovereign prince. He ſent an embaſſy to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The encroachments he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people, are almoſt beyond deſcription, and were diſapproved of by the pope himſelf, and all ſober Roman catholics. His ſending to priſon, and proſecuting for a libel, ſeven biſhops, for preſenting a petition againſt reading his declaration for liberty of conſcience, and their acquittal upon a legal trial, alarmed his beſt proteſtant friends.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wiſhed well to James, applied for relief to William prince of Orange, in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Lewis

XIV. who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince of Orange was the nephew and ſon in-law of James, having married the princeſs Mary, that king's eldeſt daughter; and he at laſt embarked with a fleet of 500 ſail for England, avowing it to be his deſign to reſtore the church and ſtate to their true rights. Upon his arrival in England, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had conſidered as his beſt friends; and even his daughter the princeſs Anne, and her huſband, George prince of Denmark, left him and joined the prince of Orange, who ſoon diſcovered that he expected the crown. James might ſtill have reigned; but he was ſurrounded with French emiſſaries, and ignorant Jeſuits, who wiſhed him not to reign rather than not reſtore popery. They ſecretly perſuaded him to ſend his queen, and ſon, real or pretended, then but ſix months old, to France, and to follow them in perſon, which he did; and thus, in 1688, ended his reign in England, which event in Engliſh hiſtory is termed *the Revolution*.

It is well known that king William's chief object was to humble the power of France, and his reign was ſpent in an almoſt uninterrupted courſe of hoſtilities with that power, which were ſupported by England at an expence ſhe had never known before. The nation had grown cautious, through the experience of the two laſt reigns, and he gave his conſent to the *bill of rights*, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and ſecured; though the friends of liberty in general complained, that the bill of rights was very inadequate to what ought to have been inſiſted on, in a period ſo favourable to the enlargement and ſecurity of liberty, as a crown beſtowed by the free voice of the people. The two laſt kings had made a very bad uſe of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be inſufficient to raiſe and maintain a ſtanding army. The revenue was therefore now divided, part was allotted for the current national ſervice of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is ſtill called the civil liſt money, was given to the king, for the ſupport of his houſe and dignity.

It was the juſt ſenſe the people of England had of their civil and religious rights alone, that could provoke them to agree to the late revolution; for they never in other reſpects had been at ſo high a pitch of wealth and proſperity as in the year 1688. The tonnage of their merchant ſhips, as appears from Dr. Davenant, was that year near double to what it had been in 1666; and the tonnage of the royal navy, which in 1660, was only 62594 tons, was in 1688 increaſed to 101,032 tons. The increaſe of the cuſtoms. and the annual rental of England, was in the ſame proportion. The war with France which, on the king's part, was far from being ſucceſsful required an enormous expence, and the Iriſh continued, in general, faithful to king James. But many Engliſh, who wiſhed well to the Stuart family, dreaded their being reſtored by conqueſt; and the parliament enabled the king to reduce Ireland, and to gain the battle of the Boyne againſt James, who there loſt all the military honours he had acquired before. The marine of France proved ſuperior to that of England, in the beginning of the war; but in the year 1692, that of France received an irrecoverable blow in the defeat at La Hogue.

Invaſions were threatened, and conſpiracies diſcovered every day againſt the government, and the ſupply of the continental war forced the parliament to open new reſources for money. A land-tax was impoſed, and every ſubject's land was taxed, according to their valuations given in by the ſeveral counties. Thoſe who were the moſt loyal gave the higheſt valuations, and were

were the heavieſt taxed and this prepoſterous burthen ſtill continues; but the greateſt and boldeſt operation in finances that ever took place, was eſtabliſhed in that reign, which was the carrying on the war by borrowing money upon the parliamentary ſecurities, and which form what are now called the *public funds*. The chief projector of this ſcheme is ſaid to have been Charles Montague, afterwards lord Halifax. His chief argument for ſuch a project was, that it would oblige the monied part of the nation to befriend the Revolution intereſt, becauſe, after lending their money, they could have no hopes of being repaid but by ſupporting that intereſt, and the weight of taxes would oblige the commercial people to be more induſtrious. How well thoſe views have been anſwered is needleſs here to obſerve, being already mentioned in the preſent ſtate of public credit.

William, notwithſtanding the vaſt ſervice he had done to the nation, and the public benefits which took place under his auſpices, particularly in the eſtabliſhment of the bank of England, and the recoining the ſilver money, met with ſo many mortifications from his parliament, that he actually reſolved upon an abdication, and had drawn up a ſpeech for that purpoſe, which he was prevailed upon to ſuppreſs. He long bore the affronts he met with in hopes of being ſupported in his war with France, but at laſt, in 1697, he was forced to conclude the peace of Ryſwick with the French king, who acknowledged his title to the crown of England. By this time William had loſt his queen *, but the government was continued in his perſon. After peace was reſtored, the commons obliged him to diſband his army, all but an inconſiderable number, and to diſmiſs his favourite Dutch guards. Towards the end of his reign, his fears of ſeeing the whole Spaniſh monarchy in poſſeſſion of France at the death of the catholic king Charles II. which was every day expected, led him into a very impolitic meaſure, which was the partition treaty with France, by which that monarchy was to be divided between the houſes of Bourbon and Auſtria. This treaty was highly reſented by the parliament, and ſome of his miniſtry were impeached for adviſing it. It is thought that William ſaw his error when it was too late. His miniſters were acquitted from their impeachment, and the death of king James diſcovered the inſincerity of the French court, which immediately proclaimed his ſon king of Great Britain.

This perfidy rendered William again popular in England. The two houſes paſſed the bill of abjuration, and an addreſs for a war with France. The laſt and moſt glorious act of William's reign was his paſſing the bill for ſettling the ſucceſſion to the crown in the houſe of Hanover, on the 12th of June 1701. His death was haſtened by a fall he had from his horſe, ſoon after he had renewed the grand alliance againſt France, on the 8th of March, 1702, the 52d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign in England. This prince was not made by nature for popularity. His manners were cold and forbidding, he ſeemed alſo ſometimes almoſt to loſe ſight of thoſe principles of liberty, for the ſupport of which he had been raiſed to the throne; and though he owed his royalty to the Whigs, yet he often favoured the Tories. The former had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe who had acted the moſt inimical to their party, and the free principles of the conſtitution, as the marquis of Halifax, the earl of Danby, and lord Nottingham, taken into favour and reſume their places in the cabinet; and the whole influence of government extended, to ſilence all enquiries into the guilt of thoſe who had been the chief inſtruments in the cruel perſecutions of the paſt reign, and to the

* She died of the ſmall pox Dec. 28, 1794, in the thirty third year of her age.

the obtaining ſuch an act of indemnity as effectually ſcreened every delinquent from the juſt retaliation of injured patriotiſm. The reſcue and preſervation of religion and public liberty were the chief glory of William's reign; for England under him ſuffered ſeverely both by ſea and land, and the public debt at the time of his death, ammounted to the unheard-of ſum of 14,000,000.

Anne, princeſs of Denmark, by virtue of the act of ſettlement, and being the next proteſtant heir to her father James II, ſucceeded king William in the throne. As ſhe had been ill treated by the late king, it was thought ſhe would have deviated from his meaſures; but the behaviour of the French in acknowledging the title of her brother, who has ſince been well known by the name of the Pretender, left her no choice, and ſhe reſolved to fulfil all William's engagements with his allies, and to employ the earl of Marlborough, who had been impriſoned in the late reign on a ſuſpicion of Jacobitiſm, and whoſe wife was her favourite, as her general. She could not have made a better choice of a general and ſtateſman, for that earl excelled in both capacities. No ſooner was he placed at the head of the Engliſh army abroad than his genius and activity gave a new turn to the war, and he became as much the favourite of the Dutch as his wife was of the queen.

Charles II. of Spain, in conſequence of the intrigues of France, at the ſame time reſenting the partition treaty, to which his conſent had not been aſked, left his whole dominions by will to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon of Lewis XIV. and Philip was immediately proclaimed king of Spain, which laid the foundation of the family alliance, betwen France and that nation. Philip's ſucceſſion was diſputed by the ſecond ſon of the emperor of Germany, who took upon himſelf the title of Charles III. and his cauſe was favoured by the empire, England, Holland, and other powers, who joined in a confederacy againſt the houſe of Bourbon now become more dangerous than ever by the acquiſition of the whole Spaniſh dominions.

The capital meaſure of continuing the war againſt France being fixed, the queen found no great difficulty in forming her miniſtry, who were for the moſt part Tories: and the earl of Godolphin, who (though afterwards a leading Whig) was thought all his life to have a predeliction for the late king James and his queen, was placed at the head of the treaſury. His ſon had married the earl of Marlborough's eldeſt daughter, and the earl could truſt no other with that important department.

In the courſe of the war, ſeveral glorious victories were obtained by the earl, who was ſoon made duke of Marlborough. Thoſe of Blenheim and Ramillies gave the firſt effectual checks to the French power. By that of Blenheim in 1704, the empire of Germany was ſaved from immediate deſtruction. Though prince Eugene was that day joined in command with the duke, yet the glory of the day was confeſſedly owing to the latter. The French general Tallard was taken priſoner, and ſent to England; and 20,000 French and Bavarians were killed, wounded, or drowned in the Danube, beſides about 13,000 who were taken, and a proportionable number of cannon, artillery, and trophies of war. About the ſame time, the Engliſh admiral, Sir George Rooke, reduced Gibraltar, which ſtill remains in our poſſeſſion. The battle of Ramilies in 1706, was fought and gained under the duke of Marlborough alone. The loſs of the enemy there has been variouſly reported: it is generally ſuppoſed to have been 8000 killed or wounded, and 6000 taken priſoners; but the conſequences ſhewed its importance.

After the battle of Ramillies, the ſtates of Flanders aſſembled at Ghent, and

and recognized Charles for their ſovereign, while the confederates took poſſeſſion of Louvain, Bruſſels, Mechlin, Ghent, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and ſeveral other conſiderable places in Flanders and Brabant acknowledged the title of king Charles. The next great battle gained over the French was Oudenarde, 1708, where they loſt 3000 on the field, and about 7000 taken priſoners; and the year after, September 11, 1709, the allies forced the French lines at Malplaquet near Mons, after a bloody action in which the French loſt 15,000 men. Thus far I have recounted the flattering ſucceſſes of the Engliſh, but they were attended with many potions of bitter alloy.

The queen had ſent a very fine army to aſſiſt Charles III. in Spain, under the command of lord Galway: but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portugueſe, the Engliſh were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. Though ſome advantages were obtained at ſea, yet that war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the diſgrace of England. Prince George of Denmark, huſband to the queen, was then lord high admiral. At the ſame time England felt ſeverely the ſcarcity of hands in carrying on her trade and manufactures.

As Lewis XIV. profeſſed a readineſs for peace, and ſued earneſtly for it, the Whigs at laſt gave way to a treaty, and the conferences were held at Gertruydenburgh, 1710. They were managed on the part of England by the duke of Marlborough and the lord Townſhend, and by the marquis de Torcy for the French. All his offers were rejected by the duke and his aſſociates, as only deſigned to amuſe and divide the allies, and the war was continued.

The unreaſonable haughtineſs of the Engliſh plenipotentiaries at Gertruydenburgh (as ſome term it) and the then expected change of the miniſtry in England, ſaved France, and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to convince the queen, who was faithfully attached to the church of England, that the war in the end, if continued, muſt prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry of the deluded people was, that "the church was in danger," which, though groundleſs, had great effects. One Sacheverel, an ignorant, worthleſs preacher, had eſpouſed this clamour in one of his ſermons, with the ridiculous, impracticable doctrines of paſſive obedience and non-reſiſtance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their ſtrength in this man's caſe. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to paſs upon him only a very ſmall cenſure. After this trial, the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the ducheſs of Marlborough, and the Whig adminiſtration. Her friends loſt their places, which were ſupplied by Tories, and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a ceſſation of arms; but they were diſregarded by the queen's allies in the Britiſh pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke of Marlborough from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greateſt imprudence, and excited the aſtoniſhment of all Europe. So numerous had been his ſucceſſes, and ſo great his reputation, that his very name was almoſt equivalent to an army. But the honour and intereſt of the nation were ſacrificed to private court intrigues, managed by Mrs. Maſham, a relation of the ducheſs of Marlborough, who had ſupplanted her benefactreſs, and by Mr. Harley.

Conferences were opened for peace at Utrecht, in January 1712, to which the queen and the French king ſent plenipotentiaries, and the allies being defeated

feated at Denain, they grew ſenſible they were no match for the French, now that they were abandoned by the Engliſh. In ſhort, the terms were agreed upon between France and England. The reader needs not be informed of the particular ceſſions made by the French, eſpecially that of Dunkirk; but after all, the peace would have been ſtill more indefenſible and ſhameful than it was, had it not been for the death of the emperor Joſeph, by which his brother Charles III. for whom the war was chiefly undertaken, became emperor of Germany, as well as king of Spain: and the dilatorineſs, if not bad faith of the Engliſh allies, in not fulfilling their engagements, and throwing upon the Britiſh parliament almoſt the whole weight of the war, not to mention the exhauſted ſtate of the kingdom. Such was the ſtate of affairs at this critical period; and I am apt to think from their complexion that the queen had, by ſome ſecret influence, which never has yet been diſcovered, and was even concealed from ſome of her miniſters, inclined to call her brother to the ſucceſſion. The reſt of the queen's life was rendered uneaſy by the jarring of parties, and the contentions among her miniſters. The Whigs demanded a writ for the electoral prince of Hanover, as duke of Cambridge, to come to England; and ſhe was obliged haſtily to diſmiſs her lord-treaſurer, when ſhe fell into a lethargic diſorder, which carried her off the firſt of Auguſt 1714, in the fiftieth year of her age, and the thirteenth of her reign. And with her ended the line of the Stuarts, which, from the acceſſion of James I. anno 1603, had ſwayed the ſceptre of England 111 years, and that of Scotland 343 years, from the acceſſion of Robert II anno 1371. James, the late pretender, ſon of James the II. and brother to queen Anne, upon his father's deceaſe, anno 1701, was proclaimed king of England, by Lewis XIV. at St Germain's, and for ſome time treated as ſuch by the courts of Rome, France, Spain and Turin. He reſided at Rome, where he kept up the appearance of a court, and continued firm in the Romiſh faith till his death, which happened in 1765. He left two ſons, viz. Charles Edward, born in 1720, who was defeated at Culloden in 1746, and upon his father's death repaired to Rome, where he continued for ſome time, and afterwards reſided at Florence, under the title of count Albany, but died lately. Henry, his ſecond ſon, who enjoys a dignified place in the church of Rome, and is known by the name of cardinal York. March 28th, 1772, Charles married Louiſa Maximilienne, born September 21ſt, 1752, daughter to a prince of the family of Stolberg Grudern, in the Circle of Upper Saxony, and grand-daughter, by the mother, of Thomas Bruce, late earl of Aylesbury. Notwithſtanding the exhauſted ſtate of England before the peace of Utrecht was concluded, yet the public credit was little or nothing affected by her death, though the national debt then amounted to about fifty millions; ſo firm was the dependence of the people upon the ſecurity of parliament.

Anne had no ſtrength of mind, by herſelf, to carry any important reſolve into execution; and ſhe left public meaſures in ſo indeciſive a ſtate, that, upon her death, the ſucceſſion took place in terms of the act of ſettlement, and George I. elector of Hanover, ſon of the princeſs Sophia, grand-daughter of James I. was proclaimed king of Great Britain; his mother, who would have been next in ſucceſſion, having died but a few days before. He came over to England with ſtrong prepoſſeſſions againſt the Tory miniſtry, moſt of whom he diſplaced. This did not make any great alteration to his prejudice in England; but many of the Scots, by the influence of the earl of Mar, and other chiefs, were driven into rebellion in 1715, which was happily ſuppreſſed the beginning of the next year.

After all, the nation was in ſuch a diſpoſition that the miniſtry durſt not venture to call a new parliament, and the members of that which was ſitting, voted a continuance of their duration from three to ſeven years, which is thought to have been the greateſt ſtretch of parliamentary power ever known, and a very indefenſible ſtep. Several other extraordinary meaſures took place about the ſame time. Mr. Shippen, an excellent ſpeaker, and member of parliament, was ſent to the Tower for ſaying that the king's ſpeech was calculated for the meridian of Hanover rather than of London; and one Matthews, a young journeyman printer, was hanged for compoſing a ſilly pamphlet, that in latter times would not have been thought worthy of animadverſion. The truth is, the Whig miniſtry were exceſſively jealous of every thing that ſeemed to affect their maſter's title; and George I. though a ſagacious, moderate prince, undoubtedly rendered England too ſubſervient to his continental connections, which were very various and complicated. He quarrelled with the czar of Muſcovy about their German concerns, and had not Charles XII. king of Sweden been killed ſo critically as he was, Great Britain probably would have been invaded, by that northern conqueror, great preparations being made for that purpoſe, he being incenſed at George, as elector of Hanover, for purchaſing Bremen and Verden of the Danes, which had been a part of his dominions.

In 1718 he quarrelled with Spain on account of the quadruple alliance, that had been formed between Great Britain, France, Germany, and the States General; and his admiral, Sir George Byng, by his orders, deſtroyed the Spaniſh fleet at Syracuſe. A trifling war with Spain then commenced, but it was ſoon ended by the Spaniards delivering up Sardinia and Sicily, the former to the duke of Savoy, and the latter to the emperor.

A national puniſhment, different from plague, peſtilence, and famine, overtook England in the year 1720, by the ſudden riſe of the South Sea ſtock, one of the trading companies; but of this we have already given an account, under the article SOUTH SEA COMPANY.

The Jacobites thought to avail themſelves of the national diſcontent at the South Sea ſcheme, and England's connections with the continent, which every day increaſed. One Layer, a lawyer, was tried and executed for high treaſon. Several perſons of great quality and diſtinction were apprehended on ſuſpicion; but the ſtorm fell chiefly on Francis Atterbury, lord biſhop of Rocheſter, who was deprived of his ſee and ſeat in parliament, and baniſhed for life. There was ſome irregularity in the proceedings againſt him, and therefore the juſtice of the biſhop's ſentence has been queſtioned, though there is little or no reaſon to doubt there was ſufficient proof of his guilt.

So fluctuating was the ſtate of Europe at this time, that in September 1725, a freſh treaty was concluded at Hanover, between the kings of Great Britain, France, and Pruſſia, to counterbalance an alliance that had been formed between the courts of Vienna and Madrid. A ſquadron was ſent to the Baltic, to hinder the Ruſſians from attacking Sweden, another to the Mediterranean, and a third, under admiral Hoſier, to the Weſt Indies, to watch the Spaniſh plate-fleets. This laſt was a fatal as well as an inglorious expedition. The admiral and moſt of his men periſhed by epidemical diſeaſes, and the hulks of his ſhips rotted ſo as to render them unfit for ſervice. The management of the Spaniards was little better. They loſt near 10,000 men in the ſiege of Gibraltar, which they were obliged to raiſe.

A quarrel with the emperor was the moſt dangerous to Hanover of any that could happen; but though an oppoſition in the houſe of commons was formed

formed by Sir William Wyndham and Mr. Pulteney, the parliament continued to be more and more laviſh in granting money, and ſubſidies for the protection of Hanover to the kings of Denmark and Sweden, and the landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel. Such was the ſtate of affairs in Europe, when George I. ſuddenly died on the 11th of June 1727, at Oſnaburgh, in the ſixty-eight year of his age, and the thirteenth of his reign. The reign of George I. is remarkable for the incredible number of bubbles and cheating projects to which it gave riſe, by which it was reckoned that almoſt a million and a half was won and loſt; and for the great alteration of the ſyſtem of Europe, by the concern which the Engliſh took in the affairs of the continent. The inſtitution of the ſinking fund for diminiſhing the national debt, is likewiſe owing to this period. The value of the northern parts of the kingdom began now to be better underſtood than formerly, and the ſtate of manufactures began to ſhift. This was chiefly owing to the unequal diſtribution of the land-tax, which rendered it difficult for the poor to ſubſiſt in certain counties, which had been forward in giving in the true value of their eſtates when that tax took place.

Sir Robert Walpole was conſidered as firſt miniſter of England when George I. died, and ſome differences having happened between him and the prince of Wales, it was generally thought, upon the acceſſion of the latter to the crown, that Sir Robert would be diſplaced. That might have been the caſe, could another perſon have been found equally capable, as he was to manage the houſe of commons, and to gratify that predilection for Hanover which George II. inherited from his father. No miniſter ever underſtood better the temper of the people of England, and none, perhaps, ever tried it more. He filled all places of power, truſt, and profit, and almoſt the houſe of commons itſelf, with his own creatures: but peace was his darling object, becauſe he thought that war muſt be fatal to his power. During his long adminiſtration he never loſt a queſtion that he was in earneſt to carry. The exciſe ſcheme was the firſt meaſure that gave a ſhock to his power, and even that he could have carried, had he not been afraid of the ſpirit of the people without doors, which might have either produced an inſurrection, or endangered his intereſt in the next general election.

His pacific ſyſtem brought him, however, into inconveniences both at home and abroad. It encouraged the Spaniards to continue their depredations upon the Britiſh ſhipping in the American ſeas, and the French to treat the Engliſh court with inſolence and neglect. At home, many of the great peers thought themſelves ſlighted, and they intereſted themſelves more than ever they had done in elections. This, together with the diſguſt of the people at the propoſed exciſe ſcheme, and paſſing the *Gin Act*, in the year 1730, increaſed the minority in the houſe of commons to 130, ſome of whom were as able men and as good ſpeakers as ever had ſat in a parliament, and taking advantage of the increaſing complaints againſt the Spaniards, they attacked the miniſter with great ſtrength of argument and with great eloquence. In juſtice to Walpole, it ſhould be obſerved, that he filled the courts of juſtice with able and upright judges, nor was he ever known to attempt any perverſion of the known law of the kingdom. He was ſo far from checking the freedom of debate, that he bore with equanimity the moſt ſcurrilous debate that was thrown out to his face. He gave way to one or two proſecutions for libels, in compliance to his friends, who thought themſelves affected by them; but it is certain, that the preſs of England never was more open or free than during his adminiſtration. And as to his pacific ſyſtem, it undoubtedly more than repaid to the nation

that was required to ſupport it, by the increaſe of her trade and the improvements of her manufactures.

Queen Caroline, conſort to George II. had been always a firm friend to the miniſter; but ſhe died November 20th, 1737, when a variance ſubſiſted between the king and his ſon, the prince of Wales. The latter complained, that through Walpole's influence he was deprived not only of the power but the proviſion to which his birth entitled him; and he put himſelf at the head of the oppoſition with ſo much firmneſs, that it was generally foreſeen Walpole's power was drawing to a criſis. Admiral Vernon, who hated the miniſter, was ſent, in 1739, with a ſquadron of ſix ſhips to the Weſt Indies, where he took and demoliſhed Porto Bello; but being a hot impracticable man, he miſcarried in his other attempts, eſpecially that upon Carthagena, in which ſome thouſands of Britiſh lives were wantonly thrown away. The oppoſition exulted in Vernon's ſucceſs, and afterwards imputed his miſcarriages to the miniſter's ſtarving the war, by withholding the means for carrying it on. The general election approaching, ſo prevalent was the intereſt of the prince of Wales in England, and that of the duke of Argyle in Scotland, that a majority was returned to parliament who were no friends to the miniſter, and after a few trying diviſions, he retired from the houſe, on the 9th of February, 1742, was created earl of Oxford, and on the 11th reſigned all his employments.

George II. bore the loſs of his miniſter with the greateſt equanimity, and even conferred titles of honour, and poſts of diſtinction, upon the heads of the oppoſition. By this time, the death of the emperor Charles VI. the danger of the pragmatic ſanction (which meant the ſucceſſion of his daughter to all the Auſtrian dominions), through the ambition of France, who had filled all Germany with her armies, and many other concurrent cauſes, induced George to take the leading part in a continental war. He was encouraged to this by lord Carteret, afterwards earl of Granville, an able, but headſtrong miniſter, whom George had made his ſecretary of ſtate, and indeed by the voice of the nation in general. George accordingly put himſelf at the head of his army, fought and gained the battle of Dettingen, June 16, 1743, and his not ſuffering his general, the earl of Stair, to improve the blow, was thought to proceed from tenderneſs for his electoral dominions.

Great Britain was then engaged in a very expenſive war both againſt the French and Spaniards, and her enemies thought to avail themſelves of the general diſcontent that had prevailed in England on account of Hanover, and which, even in parliamentary debates, were thought by ſome to exceed the bounds of decency. This naturally ſuggeſted to them the idea of applying to the Pretender, who reſided at Rome; and he agreed that his ſon Charles, who was a ſprightly young man, ſhould repair to France, from whence he ſet ſail, and narrowly eſcaped with a few followers, in a frigate, to the weſtern coaſts of Scotland, between the iſlands of Mull and Sky, where he diſcovered himſelf, aſſembled his followers, and publiſhed a manifeſto exciting the nation to rebellion. It is neceſſary, before we relate the true cauſe of this enterprize, to make a ſhort retroſpect to foreign parts.

The war of 1741 proved unfortunate in the Weſt Indies, through the fatal diviſions between admiral Vernon and general Wentworth, who commanded the land troops: and it was thought that above 20,000 Britiſh ſoldiers and ſeamen periſhed in the impracticable attempt of Carthagena, and the inclemency of the air and climate during other idle expeditions. The year 1742 had been ſpent in negociations with the courts of Peterſburgh and Berlin,

Berlin, which, though expenſive, proved of little or no ſervice to Great Britain; ſo that the victory of Dettingen left the French troops in much the ſame ſituation as before. A difference between the admirals Mathews and Leſtock had ſuffered the Spaniſh and French fleets to eſcape out of Toulon with but little loſs; and ſoon after, the French, who had before only acted as allies to the Spaniards, declared war againſt Great Britain, who, in her turn, declared war againſt the French. The Dutch, the natural allies of England, during this war, carried on a moſt lucrative trade; nor could they be brought to act againſt the French till the people entered into aſſociations and inſurrections againſt the government. Their marine was in a miſerable condition, and when they at laſt ſent a body of troops to join the Britiſh and Auſtrian armies, which had been wretchedly commanded for one or two campaigns, they did it with ſo bad a grace, that it was plain they did not intend to act in earneſt. When the duke of Cumberland took upon himſelf the command of the army, the French, to the great reproach of the allies, were almoſt maſters of the barrier of the Netherlands, and were beſieging Tournay. The duke attempted to raiſe the ſiege, but by the coldneſs of the Auſtrians, the cowardice of the Dutch, whoſe government all along held a ſecret correſpondence with France, and miſconduct ſomewhere elſe, he loſt the battle of Fontenoy, and 7000 of his beſt men; though it is generally allowed that his diſpoſitions were excellent, and both he and his troops behaved with unexampled intrepidity. To counterbalance ſuch a train of misfortunes, admiral Anſon returned this year to England, with an immenſe treaſure (about a million ſterling), which he had taken from the Spaniards in his voyage round the world; and commodore Warren, with colonel Pepperel, took from the French the important town and fortreſs of Louiſburgh, in the iſland of Cape Breton.

Such was the ſtate of affairs abroad in Auguſt 1745, when the Pretender's eldeſt ſon, at the head of ſome Highland followers, ſurpriſed and diſarmed a party of the king's troops in the weſtern Highlands, and advanced with great rapidity to Perth. The government never ſo thoroughly experienced, as it did that time, the benefit of the public debt for the ſupport of the Revolution. the French and the Jacobite party (for ſuch there was at that time in England), had laid a deep ſcheme of diſtreſſing the Bank; but common danger aboliſhed all diſtinctions, and united them in defence of one intereſt, which was private property. The merchants undertook, in their addreſs to the king, to ſupport it by receiving bank notes in payment. This ſeaſonable meaſure ſaved public credit; but the defeat of the rebels by the duke of Cumberland at Culloden, in the year 1746, did not reſtore tranquillity to Europe. Though the prince of Orange, ſon-in-law to his majeſty George II. was, by the credit of his majeſty, and the ſpirit of the people of the United Provinces, raiſed to be their ſtadtholder, the Dutch never could be brought to act heartily in the war. The allies were defeated at Val, near Maeſtricht, and the duke of Cumberland was in danger of being made priſoner. Bergen-op-zoom was taken in a manner that has never yet been accounted for. The allies ſuffered other diſgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was neceſſary to ſave the duke and his army from total deſtruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the Engliſh at ſea, under the command of the admirals Anſon, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the Engliſh arms were not ſo ſucceſsful as could have been wiſhed, under rear admiral Boſcawen in the Eaſt Indies. In this ſtate of affairs, the ſucceſſes of the French and Engliſh, during the

war

war, may be ſaid to have been balanced, and both miniſtries turned their thoughts to peace.

However this might be, preliminaries for peace were ſigned in April, 1748, and a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in October; the baſis of which was the reſtitution on both ſides of all places taken during the war. The next year the intereſt of the national debt was reduced from four to three and a half per cent. for ſeven years, after which the whole was to ſtand reduced to three per cent.

This was the boldeſt ſtroke of financing that ever was attempted perhaps in any country, conſiſtently with public faith; for the creditors of the government, after a ſmall ineffectual oppoſition, continued their money in the funds, and a few who ſold out even made intereſt to have it replaced on the ſame ſecurity, or were paid off their principal ſums out of the ſinking fund.

A new treaty of commerce was ſigned at Madrid, between Great Britain and Spain, by which, in conſideration of 100,000l. the South Sea company gave up all their future claims to the aſſiento contract, by virtue of which, that company had ſupplied the Spaniſh Weſt Indies with negroes. In March, 1750, died, univerſally lamented, his royal highneſs Frederic, prince of Wales. In May, 1751, an act paſſed for regulating the commencement of the year, by which the old ſtyle was aboliſhed, and the new ſtyle eſtabliſhed, to the vaſt conveniency of the ſubjects. This was done by ſinking eleven days in September, 1752, and from that time beginning the year on the firſt of January. In 1753, the famous act paſſed for preventing clandeſtine marriages; but whether it is for the benefit of the ſubject, is a point that is ſtill very queſtionable.

The barefaced encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back ſettlements in America, and the diſpoſitions they made for ſending over vaſt bodies of veteran troops, to ſupport thoſe encroachments, produced a wonderful ſpirit in England, eſpecially after admiral Boſcawen was ordered, with eleven ſhips of the line, beſides a frigate and two regiments, to ſail to the banks of Newfoundland, where he came up with, and took two French men of war, the reſt of their fleet eſcaping up the river St. Lawrence, by the ſtreights of Belleiſle. No ſoooner was it known that hoſtilities were begun, than the people of England poured their money into the government's loan, and orders were iſſued for making general repriſals in Europe as well as in America; and that all the French ſhips, whether outward or homeward bound, ſhould be ſtopped and brought into Britiſh ports. Theſe orders were ſo effectual, that before the end of the year 1765, above 500 of the richeſt French merchant ſhips, and above 8,000 of their beſt ſailors were brought into the kingdom. This well-timed meaſure had ſuch an effect, that the French had neither hands to navigate their merchantmen, nor to man their ſhips of war; for about two years after, near 30,000 French ſeamen were found to be priſoners in England.

In July, 1755, General Braddock, who had been injudiciouſly ſent from England to attack the French, and reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuſcade of the French and Indians near Forte de Queſne; but major-general Johnſon defeated a body of French near Crown Point, of whom he killed about 1000.

In proportion as the ſpirits of the public were elevated by the formidable armaments, which were prepared for carrying on the war, they were ſunk with an account that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip there; that admiral Byng, who had been ſent out

out with a ſquadron, at leaſt equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their admiral Galliſſionere, and that at laſt Minorca was ſurrendered by General Blakeney. The Engliſh were far more alarmed than they ought to have been at thoſe events. The loſs of Minorca was more ſhameful than detrimental to the kingdom, but the public outcry was ſuch, that the king gave up Byng to public juſtice, and he was ſhot at Portſmouth for not doing all that was in his power againſt the enemy.

It was about this time, that Mr. Pitt was placed, as ſecretary of ſtate, at the head of adminiſtration. He had long been known to be a bold, eloquent, and energetic ſpeaker, and he ſoon proved himſelf to be as ſpirited a miniſter. The miſcarriages in the Mediterranean had no conſequence but the loſs of Fort St. Philip, which was more than repaired by the vaſt ſucceſs of the Engliſh privateers, both in Europe and America. The ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in the Eaſt Indies, under Colonel Clive, are almoſt incredible. He defeated Suraja Dowla, Nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and placed Jaffier Ally Cawn in the ancient ſeat of the nabobs of thoſe provinces. Suraja Dowla, who was in the French intereſt, a few days after his being defeated, was taken by the new nabob Jaffier Ally Cawn's ſon, and put to death. This event laid the foundation of the preſent amazing extent of riches and territory, which the Engliſh now poſſeſs in the Eaſt Indies.

Mr. Pit introduced into the cabinet a new ſyſtem of operations againſt France, than which nothing could be better calculated to reſtore the ſpirits of his countrymen, and to alarm their enemies. Far from dreading an invaſion, he planned an expedition for carrying the arms of England into France itſelf; and the deſcent was to be made at Rochefort, under general Sir John Mordaunt, who was to command the land troops. Nothing could be more promiſing than the diſpoſitions for this expedition. It failed on the 8th of September, 1757; and admiral Hawke brought both the ſea and land forces back on the 6th of October, to St. Helen's without the general making any attempt to land on the coaſt of France. He was tried and acquitted, without the public murmuring, ſo great an opinion had the people of the miniſter; who, to do him juſtice, did not ſuffer a man or a ſhip belonging to the Engliſh army or navy to lie idle.

The French having attacked the electorate of Hanover with a moſt powerful army, merely becauſe his Britannic majeſty refuſed to wink at their encroachments in America, the Engliſh parliament, in gratitude, voted large ſupplies of men and money in defence of the electoral dominions. The duke of Cumberland had been ſent thither to command an army of obſervation, but was ſo powerfully preſſed by a ſuperior army, that he found himſelf obliged to lay down his arms; and the French, under the duke of Richlieu took poſſeſſion of that electorate and its capital. At this time, a ſcarcity next to a famine, raged in England; and the Heſſian troops, who, with the Hanoverians, had been ſent to defend the kingdom from an invaſion intended from the French, remained ſtill in England. So many difficulties concurring in 1758, a treaty of mutual defence was agreed to between his majeſty and the king of Pruſſia: in conſequence of which, the parliament voted 670,000l. to his Pruſſian majeſty; and alſo voted large ſums, amounting in the whole to two millions a year, for the payment of 50,000 of the troops of Hanover, Heſſe Caſſel, Saxe-gotha, Wolfenbuttel, and Buckeburg. This treaty, which proved afterwards ſo burdenſome to England, was intended to unite the proteſtant intereſt in Germany.

George

George II. with the conſent of his Pruſſian majeſty, declaring that the French had violated the convention concluded between them and the duke of Cumberland at Cloſterſeven, ordered his Hanoverian ſubjects to reſume their arms under prince Ferdinand of Brunſwick, a Pruſſian general, who inſtantly drove the French out of Hanover, and the duke of Marlborough, after the Engliſh had repeatedly inſulted the French coaſts by deſtroying their ſtores and ſhipping at St. Maloes and Cherbourg, marched into Germany, and joined prince Ferdinand with 12,000 Britiſh troops, which were afterwards increaſed to 25,000. A war enſued, in the courſe of which the Engliſh every where performed wonders, and were every where victorious, but nothing deciſive followed, and the enemy opened every campaign with advantage. Even the battle of Minden, the moſt glorious, perhaps, in the Engliſh annals, in which 7000 Engliſh defeated 80,000 of the French regular troops in fair battle, contributed nothing to the concluſion of the war, or towards weakening the French in Germany.

The Engliſh bore the expences of the war with chearfulneſs, and applauded Mr. Pitt's adminiſtration, becauſe their glorious ſucceſſes in every other part of the globe demonſtrated that he was in earneſt. Admiral Boſcawen and general Amherſt, in Auguſt 1758, reduced and demoliſhed Louiſburgh in North America, which had been reſtored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and was become the ſcourge of the Britiſh trade, and took five or ſix French ſhips of the line; Frontenac and Fort du Queſne, in the ſame quarter, fell alſo into the hands of the Engliſh: acquiſitions that far overbalanced a check which the Engliſh received at Ticonderago, and the loſs of above 300 of the Engliſh guards, as they were returning under general Bligh from the coaſt of France.

The Engliſh affairs in the Eaſt Indies this year proved equally fortunate; and the lords of the admiralty received letters from thence, with an account that admiral Pocoke had engaged the French fleet near Fort St. David's on the 29th of March, in which engagement a French man of war, called the Bien Aime, of 74 guns, was ſo much damaged that they run her on ſhore. That on the 3d of Auguſt following, he engaged the French fleet a ſecond time, near Pondicherry; when, after a briſk firing of ten minutes, the French bore away with all the ſail they could make, and got ſafe into the road of Pondicherry. And that, on the 14th of December following, general Lally, commander of the French army in thoſe parts, marched to beſiege Madras, which was defended by the Engliſh colonels Lawrence and Draper; and, after a briſk cannonade, which laſted till the 16th of February following, the Engliſh having received a reinforcement of 600 men, general Lally thought proper to raiſe the ſiege, and retire with precipitation, leaving behind him forty pieces of cannon.

The year 1759 was introduced by the taking of the iſland of Groée, on the coaſt of Africa, by commodore Keppel. Three capital expiditions had been planned for this year in America, and all of them proved ſucceſsful. One of them was againſt the French iſlands in the Weſt Indies, where Guadaloupe was reduced. The ſecond expedition was againſt Quebec, the capital of Canada. The command was given, by the miniſter's advice, to general Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military genius. Wolfe was oppoſed, with far ſuperior force, by Montcalm, the beſt and moſt ſucceſsful general the French had. Though the ſituation of the country which Wolf was to attack, and the works the French threw up to prevent a deſcent of the Engliſh, were deemed impregnable, yet Montcalm never relaxed in his vigilance. Wolfe's courage and perſeverance, however, ſurmounting incredible difficulties; he gain-

gained the heights of Abraham, near Quebec, where he fought and defeated the French army, but was himſelf killed, as was Montcalm; general Monkton, who was next in command, being wounded, the completion of the French defeat, and the glory of reducing Quebec, was reſerved for brigadier-general (now lord viſcount) Townſhend.

General Amherſt, who was the firſt Engliſh general in command in America, conducted the third expedition. His orders were to reduce all Canada, and to join the army under general Wolfe on the banks of the river St. Lawrence. It is to the honour of the miniſter, that Mr. Amherſt in this expedition was ſo well provided with every thing that could make it ſucceſsful, that there ſcarcely appeared any chance for its miſcarriage; and thus the French empire in North America became ſubject to Great Britain.

The affairs of the French being now deſperate, and their credit ruined, they reſolved upon an attempt to retrieve all by an invaſion of Great Britain: but on the 8th of Auguſt, 1759, admiral Boſcawen attacked the Toulon ſquadron, commanded by M. de la Clue, near the ſtraits of Gibraltar, took Le Centaure of 74, Le Temeraire of 74, and Le Modeſte of 74 guns; and burnt L'Ocean of 80, and Le Redoubtable of 74 guns. The reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of ſeven ſhips of the line, and three frigates, made their eſcape in the night; and on November 20, Sir Edward Hawke defeated the Breſt fleet, commanded by admiral Conflans, off the iſland of Dumet, in the Bay of Biſcay. The Formidable, a French man of war of 80 guns was taken; the Theſée of 74, and the Superbe of 70 guns, were ſunk; and the Soleil Royal of 80, and the Heros of 74 guns, were burnt, and afterwards the Juſte of 74 periſhed in the mouth of the Loire. Seven or eight French men of war of the line got up the river Villaine, by throwing their guns overboard; and the reſt of the fleet, conſiſting of five ſhips of the line, and three frigates, eſcaped in the night. The Engliſh loſt on this occaſion, the Eſſex of 64, and the Reſolution of 74 guns, which ran aſhore in the chace. After this engagement, the French gave over all thoughts of their invaſion of Great Britain.

In February 1760, captain Thurot, a French marine adventurer, who had, with three ſloops of war, alarmed the coaſts of Scotland, and actually made a deſcent at Carrickfergus in Ireland, was, on his return from thence, met, defeated, and killed by captain Elliot, the commodore of three ſhips, inferior in force to the Frenchman's ſquadron. In ſhort, Great Britain now reigned as ſole miſtreſs of the main, and ſucceeded in every meaſure that had been projected for her own ſafety and advantage.

The war in Germany, however, continued ſtill as undeciſive as it was expenſive, and many in England began to conſider it now as foreign to the internal intereſts of Great Britain. The French again and again ſhewed diſpoſitions for treating, and the charges of the war, which began now to amount to little leſs than eighteen millions ſterling, yearly, inclined the Britiſh miniſtry to liſten to their propoſals. A negociation was accordingly entered upon, which proved abortive, as did many other projects for accommodation; but on the 25th of October 1760, George II. died ſuddenly (from a rupture in the right ventricle of the heart), full of years and glory, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign, and was ſucceeded by his grandſon, now George III eldeſt ſon to the late prince of Wales.

The memory of George II. is reprehenſible on no head but his predilection for his electoral dominions. He never could ſeparate an idea that there was any difference between them and his regal dominions; and he was ſometimes ill enough adviſed to declare ſo much in his ſpeeches to parliament.

We are, however, to remember, that his people gratified him in this partiality, and that he never acted by power or prerogative. He was not very acceſſible to converſation, and therefore it was no wonder that having left Germany after he had attained to man's eſtate, he ſtill retained foreign notions both of men and things. In government he had no favourite, for he parted with Sir Robert Walpole's adminiſtration with great indifference, and ſhewed very little concern at the ſubſequent revolutions among his ſervants. In his perſonal diſpoſition he was paſſionate, but placable, fearleſs of danger, fond of military parade, and enjoyed the memory of the campaigns in which he ſerved when young. His affections, either public or private, were never known to interfere with the ordinary courſe of juſtice; and though his reign was diſtracted by party, the courts of juſtice were never better filled than under him: this was a point in which all factions were agreed.

King George III. aſcended the throne with great advantages. His being a native of England prejudiced the people in his favour; he was in the bloom of youth, in his perſon tall and comely, and at the time of his acceſſion Great Britain was in the higheſt degree of reputation and proſperity, and the moſt ſalutary unanimity and harmony prevailed among the people. The firſt acts of his reign ſeemed alſo calculated to convince the public that the death of his predeceſſors ſhould not relax the operations of the war. Accordingly, in 1761, the iſland of Belleiſle, on the coaſt of France, ſurrendered to his majeſty's ſhips and forces under commodore Keppel and general Hodgſon; as did the important fortreſs of Pondicherry, in the Eaſt Indies, to colonel Coote and admiral Stevens. The operations againſt the French Weſt Indies ſtill continued under general Monkton, lord Rollo, and Sir James Douglas; and in 1762, the iſland of Martinico, hitherto deemed impregnable, with the iſlands of Grenada, St. Lucia, Grenadillas, St. Vincent, and others of leſs note, were ſubdued by the Britiſh arms with inconceivable rapidity.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war againſt France with ſuch eminent ability, and who had received the beſt information of the hoſtile intentions, and private intrigues of the court of Spain, propoſed in council an immediate declaration of war againſt that kingdom. But he was over-ruled in the council, all the members of which declared themſelves of a contrary opinion, excepting his brother-in-law earl Temple. Mr. Pitt now found the decline of his influence; and it was ſuppoſed that the earl of Bute, who had a conſiderable ſhare in directing the education of the king, had acquired an aſcendency in the royal favour *. Mr. Pitt, however, ſaid that "as he was called to the miniſtry by the voice of the people, to whom he conſidered himſelf as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a ſituation which made him reſponſible for meaſures that he was no longer allowed to guide." He, therefore, reſigned the ſeals, and lord Temple alſo gave up the poſt which he held in the adminiſtration. But the next day, the king ſettled a penſion of three thouſand pounds a year upon Mr. Pitt, and at the ſame time a title was conferred upon his lady and her iſſue; and the penſion was to be continued for three lives.

The war ſtill continued to be carried on with vigour after the reſignation of Mr. Pitt, and the plans were purſued that he had previouſly concerted. Lord Egremont was appointed to ſucceed him, as ſecretary for the ſouth-

* It was on the 25th of March 1761, that the earl of Bute was appointed one of the principal ſecretaries of ſtate: and on the 5th of October following, Mr. Pitt reſigned the ſeals.

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ern department. It was at length alſo found indiſpenſably neceſſary to engage in a war with Spain, the famous family-compact among all the different branches of the Bourbon family being generally known; and accordingly war was declared againſt that kingdom, on the 4th of January 1762. A reſpectable armament was fitted out under admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land forces; and the vitals of the Spaniſh monarchy were ſtruck at, by the reduction of the Havannah, the ſtrongeſt and moſt important fort which his catholic majeſty held in the Weſt Indies, after a ſiege of two months and eight days. The capture of the Hermione, a large Spaniſh regiſter ſhip, bound from Lima to Cadiz, the cargo of which was valued at a million ſterling, preceded the birth of the prince of Wales, and the treaſure paſſed in triumph through Weſtminſter to the Bank, the very hour he was born. The loſs of the Havannah, with the ſhips and treaſures there taken from the Spaniards, was ſucceeded by the reduction of Manilla and the Philippine iſlands in the Eaſt Indies, under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, with the capture of the Trinidad, reckoned worth three millions of dollars. To counteract thoſe dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards opened their laſt reſource, which was to quarrel with and invade Portugal, which had been always under the peculiar protection of the Britiſh arms. Whether this quarrel was real or pretended, is not for me decide. It certainly embarraſſed his Britannic Majeſty, who was obliged to ſend thither armaments both by ſea and land.

The negociations for peace were now reſumed; and the enemy at laſt offered ſuch terms as the Britiſh miniſtry thought admiſſible and adequate to the occaſion. The defection of the Ruſſians from the confederacy againſt the king of Pruſſia, and his conſequent ſucceſſes, produced a ceſſation of arms in Germany, and in all other quarters; and on the 10th of February 1763, the definitive treaty of peace between his Britannic majeſty, the king of France, and the king of Spain, was concluded at Paris, and acceded to by the king of Portugal; March 10, the ratifications were exchanged at Paris. The 22d, the peace was ſolemnly proclaimed at Weſtminſter and London; and the treaty having on the 18th been laid before the parliament, it met the approbation of a majority of both houſes.

By this treaty the extenſive province of Canada, with the iſlands of Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John, were confirmsd to Great Britain; alſo the two Floridas, containing the whole of the continent of North America, on this ſide the Miſſiſſippi, (except the town of New Orleans, with a ſmall diſtrict round it), was ſurrendered to us by France and Spain, in conſideration of reſtoring to Spain the iſland of Cuba; and to France the iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, Mariegalante, and Deſiada; and in conſideration of our granting to the French the two ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, on the coaſt of Newfoundland; and quitting our pretenſions to the neutral iſland of St. Lucia, they yielded to us the iſlands of Grenada and the Grenadilles, and quitted their pretenſions to the neutral iſlands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago. In Africa we retained the ſettlement of Senegal, by which we nearly engroſſed the whole gum trade of that country, but we returned Goree, a ſmall iſland of little value. The article that relates to the Eaſt Indies, was dictated by the directors of the Engliſh company; which reſtores to the French all the places they had at the beginning of the war, on condition that they ſhall maintain neither forts nor forces in the province of Bengal;

and the city of Manilla was reſtored by the Spaniards; but they confirmed to us the liberty of cutting logwood in the Bay of Honduras in America. In Europe, likewiſe, the French reſtored to us the iſland of Minorca, and we reſtored to them the iſland of Belleiſle. In Germany, after ſix years ſpent in marches and counter-marches, numerous ſkirmiſhes and bloody battles, Great Britain acquired much military fame, but at the expence of thirty millions ſterling! As to the objects of that war, it was agreed that a mutual reſtitution and oblivion ſhould take place, and each party ſit down at the end of the war in the ſame ſituation in which they began it. And peace was reſtored between Portugal and Spain, both ſides to be upon the ſame footing as before the war.

The war, to which a period was now put, was the moſt brilliant, and diſtinguiſhed with the moſt glorious events in the Britiſh annals. No national prejudices, nor party diſputes then exiſted. The ſame truly Britiſh ſpirit by which the miniſter was animated, fired the breaſt of the ſoldier and ſeaman. The nation had then arrived at a pitch of wealth unknown to former ages; and the monied man, pleaſed with the aſpect of the times, confiding in the abilities of the miniſter, and courage of the people, cheerfully opened his purſe. The incredible ſums of 18, 19, and 22 millions, raiſed by a few citizens of London, upon a ſhort notice, for the ſervice of the years 1759, 1760, and 1761, was no leſs aſtoniſhing to Europe than the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh fleets and armies in every quarter of the globe.

But the peace, though it received the ſanction of a majority of both houſes of parliament, was far from giving univerſal ſatisfaction to the people. And from this period various cauſes contributed to occaſion a great diſcontent to prevail throughout the nation.

On the 30th of April, 1763, three of the king's meſſengers entered the houſe of John Wilkes, eſq. member of parliament for Ayleſbury, and ſeized his perſon, by virtue of a warrant from the ſecretary of ſtate, which directed them to ſeize 'the authors, printers, and publiſhers, of a ſeditious and treaſonable paper, intitled the North Briton, No. 45.' The papers publiſhed under this title ſeverely arraigned the conduct of the adminiſtration, and repreſented the earl of Bute as the favourite of the king, and the perſon from whom meaſures of government of a very pernicious tendency originated. The 45th number contained ſtrictures on the king's ſpeech. Mr. Wilkes was ſuſpected to be the author but his name was not mentioned in the warrant, by which he was apprehended. He objected to being taken into cuſtody by ſuch a warrant, alleging that it was illegal. However he was forcibly carried before the ſecretaries of ſtate for examination, and they committed him cloſe priſoner to the Tower, his papers being alſo ſeized. He was likewiſe deprived of his commiſſion as colonel of the Buckinghamſhire militia. A writ of habeas corpus being procured by his friends, he was brought to the court of Common Pleas, and the matter being there argued, he was ordered to be diſcharged. This affair made a great noiſe; people of all ranks intereſted themſelves in it, and Weſtminſter-hall reſounded with acclamations when he was ſet at liberty. An information, however, was filed againſt him in the court of King's Bench, at his majeſty's ſuit, as author of the North Briton, No. 45. On the firſt day of the meeting of parliament, after theſe tranſactions Mr. Wilkes ſtood up in his place, and made a ſpeech, in which he complained to the houſe, that in his perſon the rights of all the commons of England, and the privileges of parliament, had been violated by his impriſonment, the plunderiug of his houſe, and the ſeizure of his papers. The ſame day a meſſage was ſent to acquaint the houſe of commons, with

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the information his majeſty had received, that John Wilkes, eſq. a member of that houſe, was the author of a moſt ſeditious and dangerous libel, and the meaſures that had been taken thereupon. The next day a duel was fought in Hyde Park between Mr. Wilkes and Mr. Martin, another member of parliament, and ſecretary of the treaſury, in which Mr. Wilkes received a dangerous wound in the belly with a piſtol-bullet. Both houſes of parliament ſoon concurred in voting the North Briton, No. 45. to be a falſe, ſcandalous, and ſeditious libel, and ordered it to be burnt by the common hangman. This order was accordingly executed, though not without great oppoſition from the populace: and Mr. Harley, one of the ſheriffs who attended, was wounded and obliged to take ſhelter in the Manſion houſe. Another proſecution was commenced againſt Mr. Wilkes, for having cauſed an obſcene and profane poem to be printed, intitled, "An Eſſay on Woman." Of this, only twelve copies had been privately printed: and it did not appear to have been intended for publication. Finding, however, that he ſhould continue to be proſecuted with the utmoſt rigour, when his wound was in ſome degree healed, he thought proper to quit the kingdom. He was ſoon after expelled the houſe of commons; verdicts were alſo given againſt him, both on account of the North Briton and the Eſſay on Woman, and towards the end of the year 1764 he was outlawed. Sundry other perſons had been taken up for being concerned in printing and publiſhing the North Briton; but ſome of them obtained verdicts againſt the king's meſſengers for falſe impriſonment.

In the mean while, the earl of Bute, who had been made firſt lord of the treaſury, reſigned that office, and was ſucceeded by Mr. George Grenville. And under this gentleman's adminiſtration, an act was paſſed, ſaid to have been framed by him, which was productive of the moſt pernicious conſequences to Great Britain; "An Act for laying a *ſtamp-duty* in the Britiſh colonies of North America," which received the royal aſſent on the 22d of March 1765. Some other injudicious previous regulations had alſo been made, under pretence of preventing ſmuggling in America; but which in effect ſo cramped the trade of the colonies, as to be prejudical both to them and the mother country. As ſoon as it was known in North America that the *ſtamp-act* was paſſed, the whole continent was kindled into a flame. As the Americans had hitherto been taxed by their own repreſentatives in their provincial aſſemblies, they loudly aſſerted, that the Britiſh parliament, in which they were not repreſented, had no right to tax them. Indeed, the ſame doctrine had been maintained in the Britiſh parliament, when the ſtamp-act was under conſideration: on which occaſion it was ſaid, that it was the birth-right of the inhabitants of the colonies, even as the deſcendants of Engliſhmen, not to be taxed by any but their own repreſentatives; that, ſo far from being actually repreſented, they were not even virtually repreſented there, as the meaneſt inhabitants of Great Britain are, in conſequence of their intimate connection with thoſe who are actually repreſented; and that therefore the attempt to tax the colonies in the Britiſh parliament was oppreſſive and unconſtitutional. On the other hand it was contended, that the colonies, who had been protected by Great Britain, ought, in reaſon and juſtice, to contribute towards the expence of the mother-country. "Thoſe children, of our own planting," ſaid Mr. George Grenville, ſpeaking of the Americans, "nouriſhed by our indulgence, until they are grown to a good degree of ſtrength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy load of national expence which we lie under?"

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When the ſtamp act, printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Several acts of violence were likewiſe committed, with a view of preventing the operations of the ſtamp-act; and aſſociations were alſo formed in the different colonies, whereby the people bound themſelves not to import or purchaſe any Britiſh manufactures, till that act ſhould be repealed. The inhabitants of the different colonies alſo eſtabliſhed committees from every colony to correſpond with each other, concerning the general affairs of the whole, and even appointed deputies from theſe committees to meet IN CONGRESS at New York. They aſſembled together in that city, in October 1765, and this was the firſt congreſs held on the American continent.

Theſe commotions in America occaſioned ſo great an alarm in England, that the king thought proper to diſmiſs his miniſters. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury; and ſome of his lordſhip's friends ſucceeded to the vacant places. In March 1766, an act was paſſed for repealing the American ſtamp-act. This was countenanced and ſupported by the new miniſtry; and Mr. Pitt, though not connected with them, yet ſpoke with great force in favour of the repeal. He alſo aſſerted, that the profits to Great Britain from the trade of the colonies, through all its branches, was two millions a year.

At the time that the ſtamp-act was repealed, an act was alſo paſſed for ſecuring the dependence of the American colonies on Great Britain.

The marquis of Rockingham and his friends continued in adminiſtration but a ſhort time; though during their continuance in power ſeveral public meaſures were adopted, tending to relieve the burdens of the people, and to the ſecurity of their liberties. But on the 30th of July, 1766, the duke of Grafton was appointed firſt lord of the treaſury, in the room of the marquis of Rockingham; the earl of Shelburne, ſecretary of ſtate, in the room of the duke of Richmond; Charles Townſhend, chancellor of the exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, now created earl of Chatham, was appointed lord privy-ſeal; but that eminent ſtateſman's acceptance of a peerage, as it removed him from the houſe of commons, greatly leſſened his weight and influence. Indeed, this political arrangement was not of any long continuance, and ſundry changes followed. Mr. Charles Townſhend, who was a gentleman of great abilities and eloquence, made for ſome time a conſiderable figure both in the cabinet and in parliament; but, on his death, the place of chancellor of the exchequer was ſupplied by lord North, who afterwards became firſt lord of the treaſury, and obtained a great aſcendancy in the adminiſtration.

In the year 1768, Mr. Wilkes, who had for a conſiderable time reſided in France, came over to England, and again became an object of public attention. The limits of our work will not permit us to enter into all the particulars reſpecting the proſecution of this gentleman, and the ſubſequent tranſactions concerning him: for theſe we muſt refer to our quarto edition. It is well known, that verdicts were found againſt him on account of the North Briton, and for the indecent poem, "Eſſay on Woman." That he ſuffered a long impriſonment of two years, and paid two fines of 500l. each. That he diſplayed great abilities during his conteſts with the miniſtry, and was choſen member for the county of Middleſex on the 28th of March, 1768. He was alſo again expelled for being the author of ſome prefatory remarks on a letter which he publiſhed, written by one of the ſecretaries of ſtate to the chairman of the quarter-ſeſſions at Lambeth, in which the ſecretary had recommended to the magiſtrates, previous to the unhappy affair of St. George's Fields, their calling in the aſſiſtance of the military, and employing them *effectually*, if there

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ſhould be occaſion. In the vote for his expulſion, his former offences, for which he was now ſuffering impriſonment, were complicated with this charge; and a new writ was ordered to be iſſued for the election of a member for the county of Middleſex.

The rigour with which Mr. Wilkes was proſecuted, only increaſed his popularity, which was alſo much augmented by the ſpirit and firmneſs which on every occaſion he diſplayed. Before his expulſion he had been choſen an alderman of London: and on the 16th of February, 1769, he was re-elected at Brentford, member for the county of Middleſex without oppoſition. The return having been made to the houſe, it was reſolved, that Mr. Wilkes having been expelled that ſeſſion, was incapable of being elected a member of that parliament. The late election, therefore was again declared void, and a new writ iſſued for another. He was once more unanimouſly re-elected by the freeholders, and the election was again declared void by the houſe of commons. After this, a new election being ordered, colonel Luttrel, in order to recommend himſelf to the court, vacated the ſeat which he already had in parliament, by the acceptance of a nominal place, and declared himſelf a candidate for the county of Middleſex. Though the whole weight of court intereſt was thrown into the ſcale in this gentleman's favour, yet a majority of near four to one appeared againſt him on the day of election: the numbers for Wilkes being 1143, and for Luttrel only 236. Notwithſtanding this, two days after the election it was reſolved in the houſe of commons, that Mr. Luttrel ought to have been returned a knight of the ſhire for the county of Middleſex; and the deputy clerk of the crown was ordered to amend the return, by eraſing the name of Mr. Wilkes, and inſerting that of colonel Luttrel in its place. The latter accordingly took his ſeat in parliament; but this was thought ſo groſs a violation of the rights of the electors, that it excited a very general diſcontent, and loud complaints were made againſt it in every part of the kingdom.

After the term of Mr. Wilkes's impriſonment was expired in the year 1771, he was choſen one of the ſheriffs for London and Middleſex; and was afterwards again choſen member for the county of Middleſex in the ſubſequent parliament, and permitted quietly to take his ſeat there; in the year 1775, he executed the office of lord mayor of the city of London; and was afterwards elected to the lucrative office of chamberlain of that city. In the year 1783, after the change of lord North's adminiſtration, at Mr. Wilkes's motion, all the declarations, orders, and reſolutions of the houſe of commons reſpecting his election for the county of Middleſex, were ordered to be expunged from the journals of that houſe, "as being ſubverſive of the rights of the whole body of this kingdom." And it ſhould be remembered, that in conſequence of his manly and ſpirited conteſts with the government, general warrants were declared to be illegal, and an end was put to ſuch warrants, and to the unlawful ſeizure of an Engliſhman's papers by ſtate meſſengers.

After the repeal of the ſtamp-act, which was received with great joy in America, all things became quiet there; but unhappily new attempts were made to tax them in the Britiſh parliament, though, beſides the experience of the ill ſucceſs of the ſtamp-act, governor Pownall, a gentleman well acquainted with the diſpoſition of the coloniſts, ſaid in the houſe of commons, in 1767, "It is a fact which this houſe ought to be apprized of in all its extent, that the people of America, univerſally, unitedly, and unalterably, are reſolved not to ſubmit to any internal tax impoſed upon them by any legiſlature, in which they have not a ſhare by repreſentatives of their own elec-

election." He added, "this claim muſt not be underſtood as though it were only the pretences of party leaders and demagogues; as though it were only the viſions of ſpeculative enthuſiaſts; as though it were the mere ebullition of a faction which muſt ſubſide; as though it were only temporary or partial—it is the cool, deliberate, principled maxim of every man of buſineſs in the country." The event verified the juſtice of theſe obſervations; yet the ſame year, an act was paſſed laying certain duties on paper, glaſs, tea, &c. imported into America, to be paid by the colonies, for the purpoſe of raiſing a revenue to the government. About two years after, it was thought proper to repeal theſe duties, excepting that on tea; but it was not the amount of the duties, but the *right* of the parliament of Great Britain to impoſe taxes in America, which was the ſubject of diſpute, the repealing the other duties anſwered no purpoſe, while that on tea remained; which accordingly became a freſh ſubject of conteſt between the mother-country and the colonies.

In order to induce the Eaſt India company to become inſtrumental in enforcing the tea-duty in America, an act was paſſed, by which they were enabled to export their teas, duty free, to all places whatſoever. Several ſhips were accordingly freighted with teas for the different colonies by the company, who alſo appointed agents there for the diſpoſal of that commodity. This was conſidered by the Americans as a ſcheme calculated merely to circumvent them into a compliance with the revenue law, and thereby pave the way to an unlimited taxation. For it was eaſily comprehended, that if the tea was once landed, and in the cuſtody of the conſignees, no aſſociations, nor other meaſures, would be ſufficient to prevent its ſale and conſumption: and it was not to be ſuppoſed, that when taxation was eſtabliſhed in one inſtance, it would reſtrain itſelf in others. Theſe ideas being generally prevalent in America, it was reſolved by the coloniſts to prevent the landing of the tea-cargoes amongſt them, at whatever hazard. Accordingly, three ſhips laden with tea having arrived in the port of Boſton in December, 1773, a number of armed men, under the diſguiſe of Mohawk Indians, boarded theſe ſhips, and in a few hours diſcharged their whole cargoes of tea into the ſea, without doing any other damage, or offering any injury to the captains or crews. Some ſmaller quantities of tea met afterwards with a ſimilar fate at Boſton, and a few other places; but in general, the commiſſioners for the ſale of that commodity were obliged to relinquiſh their employments, and the maſters of the tea veſſels from an apprehenſion of danger, returned again to England with their cargoes. At New York, indeed, the tea was landed under the cannon of a man of war. But the perſons in the ſervice of government there were obliged to conſent to its being locked up from uſe. And in South Carolina ſome was thrown into the river, as at Boſton, and the reſt put into damp warehouſes, where it periſhed.

Theſe proceedings in America excited ſo much indignation in the government of England, that on the 31ſt of March, 1774, an act was paſſed for removing the cuſtom-houſe officers from the town of Boſton, and ſhutting up the port. Another act was ſoon after paſſed for better regulating the government of the province of Maſſachuſett's Bay. The deſign of this act was to alter the conſtitution of that province as it ſtood upon the charter of king William; to take the whole executive power out the hands of the people, and to veſt the nomination of the counſellors, judges and magiſtrates of all kinds, including ſheriffs, in the crown, and in ſome caſes in the king's governor, and all to be removeable at the pleaſure of the crown. Another act was alſo paſſed, which was conſidered as highly injurious, cruel and uncon-

conſtitutional, empowering the governor of Maſſachuſett's Bay to ſend perſons accuſed of crimes there, to be tried in England for ſuch offences. Some time after, an act was likewiſe paſſed, "for making more effectual proviſion for the government of the province of Quebec," which excited a great alarm both in England and America. By this act, a legiſlative council was to be eſtabliſhed for all the affairs of the province of Quebec, except taxation, which council was to be appointed by the crown, the office to be held during pleaſure; and his majeſty's Canadian Roman Catholic ſubjects were intitled to a place in it. The French laws, and a trial without jury, were alſo eſtabliſhed in civil caſes, and the Engliſh laws, with a trial by jury, in criminal; and the popiſh clergy were inveſted with a legal right to their tithes from all who were of their own religion. No aſſembly of the people, as in other Britiſh colonies, was appointed, it being ſaid in the act, that it was then inexpedient; but the king was to erect ſuch courts of criminal, civil, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction, as he would think proper. The boundaries of the province of Quebec were likewiſe extended, by the act, thouſands of miles at the back of the other colonies, whereby, it was ſaid, a government little better than deſpotic was eſtabliſhed throughout an extenſive country.

The meaſures of government reſpecting America had ſo univerſally exaſperated the coloniſts, that provincial or town meetings were held in every part of the continent, wherein they avowed their intentions of oppoſing, in the moſt vigorous manner, the meaſures of adminiſtration. Agreements were entered into in the different colonies, whereby the ſubſcribers bound themſelves in the moſt ſolemn manner, and in the preſence of God, to ſuſpend all commercial intercourſe with Great Britain, from the laſt day of the month of Auguſt 1774, until the Boſton port bill, and the other late obnoxious laws, were repealed, and the colony of Maſſachuſett's Bay fully reſtored to its chartered rights. Other tranſactions ſucceeded; and the flame continued to increaſe and extend in America, till at length twelve of the colonies, including that whole extent of country which ſtretches from Nova Scotia to Georgia, had appointed deputies to attend a General Congreſs, which was to be held at Philadelphia, and opened the 5th of September, 1774. They met accordingly, and the number of delegates amounted to fifty-one; who repreſented the ſeveral Engliſh colonies of New Hampſhire (2 delegates), Maſſachuſett's Bay (4), Rhode Iſland and Providence plantations (2), Connecticut (3), New York (7), New Jerſey (4), Pennſylvania (7), the lower counties on Delaware (3), Maryland (4), Virginia (7), North Carolina (3), and South Carolina (5 delegates); Georgia afterwards acceded to the confederacy and ſent deputies to the Congreſs.

They drew up a petition to the king in which they enumerated their ſeveral grievances, and ſolicited his majeſty to grant them peace, liberty, and ſafety. They likewiſe publiſhed an addreſs to the people of Great Britain, another to the colonies in general, and another to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec. The congreſs broke up on the 26th of October, having reſolved, that another congreſs ſhould be held in the ſame place on the 10th of May following, unleſs the grievances of which they complained ſhould be redreſſed before that time; and they recommended to all the colonies to chooſe deputies, as ſoon as poſſible, for that purpoſe.

Shortly after theſe events, ſome meaſures were propoſed in the parliament of Great Britain, for putting a ſtop to the commotions which unhappily ſubſiſted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm ſtate of health, appeared in the houſe of lords, and expreſſed in the

ſtrongeſt terms his diſapprobation of the whole ſyſtem of the American meaſures. He alſo made a motion, for immediately recalling the troops from Boſton, as a meaſure which ſhould be inſtantly adopted; urging, that an hour then loſt, in allaying the ferment in America, might produce years ofcalamity. He alledged that this conciliatory meaſure would be well-timed; and as a mark of affection and good will on our ſide, would remove all jealouſy and apprehenſion on the other, and inſtantaneouſly produce the happieſt effects to both. His lordſhip's motion was rejected by a large majority, 68 againſt 18; as was alſo a bill which he brought in ſoon after for ſettling the American troubles, by 61 to 32. The methods propoſed in the houſe of commons for promoting an accommodation, met alſo with a ſimilar fate. The number of his majeſty's troops was ordered to be augmented; and an act was paſſed for reſtraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and to prohibit their fiſhery on the Banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed afterwards made in the houſe of commons, by lord North, firſt lord of the treaſury, for ſuſpending the exerciſe of the right of taxation in America, claimed by the Britiſh parliament, in ſuch of the colonies as ſhould, in their general aſſemblies, raiſe ſuch contributions as were approved of by the king in parliament. This motion was carried, and afterwards communicated to ſome provincial aſſemblies; but it was rejected by them as deluſive and unſatisfactory, and only calculated to diſunite them. The petition from the congreſs to the king was ordered by his majeſty to be laid before the parliament: whereupon Dr. Franklin, and two other American agents, ſolicited to be heard at the bar of the houſe of commons, on behalf of the colonies, in ſupport of that petition; but their application was rejected; it being ſaid, that the American congreſs was no legal aſſembly, and that therefore no petition could be received from it by the parliament with propriety.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the firſt blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war, at Lexington and Concord in New England. This was occaſioned by general Gage ſending a body of troops to deſtroy ſome military ſtores that were at Concord. They ſucceeded in their deſign, but were extremely haraſſed and forced to a quick retreat; 65 of them were killed 170 wounded, and about 20 made priſoners. The Americans were computed not to have loſt more than 60, including killed and wounded. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia inveſted the town of Boſton, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmoſt diſpatch; and a ſtop was almoſt every where put to the exportation of proviſions. The continental congreſs met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May 1775, as propoſed, and ſoon adopted ſuch meaſures as confirmed the people in their reſolutions to oppoſe the Britiſh government to the utmoſt. Among their firſt acts, were reſolutions for the raiſing of an army, and the eſtabliſhment of a large paper currency for its payment. They aſſumed the appellation of "The United Colonies of America," who were ſecurities for realizing the nominal value of this currency. They alſo ſtrictly prohibited the ſupplying of the Britiſh fiſheries with any kind of proviſions; and to render this order the more effectual, ſtopt all exportation to thoſe colonies, iſlands, and places, which ſtill retained their obedience.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, ſurpriſed the garriſons of Ticonderago and Crown Point. Theſe fortreſſes were taken without the loſs of a man on either ſide: and the provincials found in the forts a conſiderable number of pieces of cannon, beſides mortars, and ſundry kinds of military ſtores. However, the force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boſton from Eng-

land of the generals How, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with conſiderable reinforcements. But the continental congreſs were ſo little intimidated by this, that they voted, a few days after, that the compact between the crown and the people of Maſſacuſett's Bay was diſſolved, by the violation of the charter of William and Mary; and therefore recommended to the people of that province, to proceed to the eſtabliſhment of a new government, by electing a governor, aſſiſtants, and houſe of aſſembly, according to the powers contained in their original charter.

Our limits will not permit us here to relate, as in the quarto edition, all the particulars of this fatal war. We can only mention ſome of the moſt important tranſactions. On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunkers Hill, near Boſton, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loſs of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. But after this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, oppoſite to it, on their ſide of Charlestown neck; ſo that the troops were as cloſely inveſted in that peninſula as they had been in Boſton. About this time the congreſs appointed George Waſhington, eſq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired conſiderable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the laſt war, to be general and commander in chief of all the American forces. They alſo publiſhed a declaration, in which they ſtyled themſelves "The repreſentatives of the United Colonies of North America," and aſſigned their reaſons for taking up arms. It was written in a very animated ſtrain, and contained the following paſſage: "In our own native land, in defence of the freedom that is our birth-right, and which we ever enjoyed till the late violation of it; for the protection of our property, acquired ſolely by the honeſt induſtry of our forefathers and ourſelves; againſt violence actually offered, we have taken up arms. We ſhall lay them down when hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on the part of the aggreſſors, and all danger of their being renewed ſhall be removed, and not before." A ſecond petition to the king was voted by the congreſs, in which they earneſtly ſolicited his majeſty to adopt ſome method of putting a ſtop to the unhappy conteſt between Great Britain and the colonies. This petition was preſented by Mr. Penn, late governor, and one of the proprietors of Pennſylvania, through the hands of lord Dartmouth, ſecretary of ſtate for the American department; but Mr. Penn was ſoon after informed, that no anſwer would be given to it. The refuſal of the king to give anſwer to this petition, from near three millions of people, by their repreſentatives, contributed exceedingly towards farther exaſperating the minds of the Americans. It was a raſh and unhappy determination of the cabinet-council, and their advice to the king on this point was fatal, if not highly criminal. An addreſs now alſo was publiſhed by the congreſs to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland.

But as no conciliatory meaſures were adopted, hoſtilities ſtill continued; and an expedition was ſet on foot by the Americans againſt Canada, to which they were induced by an extraordinary commiſſion given to general Carleton, the governor of Canada: by which he was empowered to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the ſubjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital puniſhments againſt all thoſe whom he ſhould deem rebels and oppoſers of the laws. The American expedition againſt Canada was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, a gentleman of an amiable character, and of conſiderable military ſkill, on

whom the congreſs conferred the rank of brigadier-general. On the 31ſt of December, Montgomery attempted to gain poſſeſſion of Quebec by ſtorm but was killed in the firſt fire from a battery, as advancing in the front of his men: Arnold was alſo dangerouſly wounded, about 60 of their men were killed and wounded, and 300 taken priſoners. The beſiegers immediately quitted their camp, and retired about three miles from the city, and the ſiege was for ſome months converted into a blockade. On general Carleton's receiving conſiderable reinforcements and ſupplies of proviſions from England, May 1776, Arnold was obliged to make a precipitate retreat; Montreal, Chamblee, and St. John's were retaken, and all Canada recovered by the king's troops.

During theſe tranſactions, the royal army at Boſton was reduced to great diſtreſs for want of proviſions; the town was bombarded by the Americans, and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of ſeven thouſand men, was obliged to quit Boſton, and embark for Halifax, leaving a conſiderable quantity of artillery and ſome ſtores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March, 1776, and general Waſhington immediately took poſſeſſion of it. On the 4th of July following, the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, "Free and Indendent States;" that they were abſolved from all allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally diſſolved; and alſo that, as free and independent ſtates, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things, which independent ſtates may of right do. They likewiſe publiſhed articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "The United States of America."

In July 1776, an attempt was made by commodore Sir Peter Parker, and leutenant-general Clinton, upon Charles-town in South Carolina. But this place was ſo ably defended by the Americans under general Lee, that the Britiſh commodore and general were obliged to retire, the king's ſhips having ſuſtained conſiderable loſs, and a twenty-eight gun ſhip, which run aground, was obliged to be burnt by the officers and ſeamen. However, a much more important and ſucceſsful attack againſt the Americans was ſoon after made under the command of general Howe, then joined with a large body of Heſſians, and a conſiderable number of Highlanders, ſo that his whole force was now extremely formidable. The fleet was commanded by his brother vice-admiral lord How; and both the general and the admiral were inveſted with a power, under the title of "Commiſſioners for granting Peace to the Colonies," of granting pardon to thoſe who would lay down their arms. But their offers of this kind were treated by the Americans with contempt. An attack upon the town of New York ſeems to have been expected by the provincials, and therefore they had fortified it in the beſt manner they were able. On Long Iſland, near New York, the Americans had alſo a large body of troops encamped, and ſeveral works thrown up. General Howe firſt landed on Staten Iſland, where he met with no oppoſition; but early in the morning of the 22d of Auguſt, a deſcent was made by the Britiſh troops upon Long Iſland, and towards noon about fifteen thouſand were landed. They had greatly the advantage of the Americans, by their ſuperior ſkill and diſcipline, and being better provided with artillery, and

and every kind of military accommodation; and the American paſſes were far from being properly ſecured. Some actions and ſkirmiſhes happened between them during ſeveral ſucceſſive days; in which the Britiſh troops engaged their enemies with great ardour, and the Americans ſuffered exceedingly. Finding themſelves ſo much overpowered, they at length reſolved to quit the iſland, and general Waſhington came over from New York to conduct their retreat, in which he diſplayed great ability. In the night of the 29th of July, the American troops were withdrawn from the camp, and their different works, and with their baggage, ſtores, and part of their artillery, were conveyed to the water-ſide, embarked, and paſſed over a long ferry to New York, with ſuch extraordinary ſilence and order, that the Britiſh army did not perceive the leaſt motion, and were ſurpriſed in the morning at finding the American lines abandoned, and ſeeing the laſt of their rear-guard in their boats, and out of danger. The provincials had been ſo ſurrounded by the Britiſh troops, and the latter had diſplayed ſuch ſuperior military ſkill, it was a ſubject of wonder that the greateſt part of the American army ſhould be able to effectuate their retreat. In the different actions previous to this, the loſs of the Americans had been very conſiderable. Upwards of 2 thouſand of them were taken priſoners, including three generals, three colonels, and many inferior officers; their number killed and wounded was computed to be ſtill greater; they loſt alſo five field-pieces, and a quantity of ordnance was found in their different redoubts and forts on the iſland; whilſt the whole loſs of the Britiſh troops, if faithfully publiſhed, did not amount to more than three hundred killed and wounded.

New York was now ſoon abandoned, and the royal army obtained ſome other conſiderable advantages over the Americans: at the White Plains, taking fort Waſhington, with a garriſon of 2500 men, and fort Lee with a great quantity of ſtores, which loſſes obliged the American general to retreat through the Jerſies to the river Delaware, a diſtance of ninety miles. Alſo on the 8th of December, general Clinton and Sir Peter Parker obtained poſſeſſion of Rhode-iſland; and the Britiſh troops covered the Jerſies. This was the criſis of American danger. All their forts taken, and the time of the greateſt part of their army to ſerve, was expired, and the few that remained with their officers were in a deſtitute ſtate, with a well clothed and diſciplined army purſuing. Had general Howe puſhed on at that time to Philadephia, after Waſhington, it hath been maintained there would have been an end of the conteſt; but Providence directed otherwiſe; and the general's orders from home are ſaid to have prevented him. This delay gave way for volunteer reinforcements of gentleman, merchant, farmer, tradeſman, and labourer, to join general Waſhington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidſt ſnow, ſtorms, and ice, with a ſmall detachment, croſſed the Delaware, and ſurpriſed a brigade of the Heſſian troops at Trenton. He took upwards of 900 of them priſoners, with whom he repaſſed the river; having alſo taken three ſtandards, ſix pieces of braſs cannon, and near one thouſand ſtand of arms. Immediately after this ſurpriſe of the Heſſians, and depoſiting them in ſafety, Waſhington recroſſed the river to reſume his former poſt at Trenton. The Britiſh troops collected in force to attack him, and only waited for the morning to execute it; but the Americans, by a happy ſtroke of generalſhip, defeated the plan. Waſhington, to diſguiſe his retreat in the night, ordered a line of fires in front of his camp, as an indication of their going to reſt, and to conceal what was acting behind them. Then he moved completely from the ground with his baggage and artillery, and by a circuitous march of eighteen miles reached Prince-town early in the morning, carried

carried the Britiſh poſt at that place, and ſet off with near 300 priſoners on his return to the Delaware, juſt as the Britiſh troops at Trenton were under arms and proceeding to attack him, ſuppoſing him in his former poſition.

In the month of September 1777, two actions of ſome importance happened between the armies of general Howe and general Waſhington, in both of which the former had the advantage; and ſoon after, the city of Philadelphia ſurrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for ſome time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unſucceſsful. The command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He ſet out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a conſiderable body of the Indians. For ſome time he drove the Americans before him, and made himſelf maſter of Ticonderago; but at length he encountered ſuch difficulties, and was ſo vigorouſly oppoſed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two ſevere actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne and his army of 5,660 men were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.

About the ſame time, Sir Henry Clinton and general Vaughan made a ſucceſsful expedition againſt the Americans up the North River; they made themſelves maſters of ſeveral forts; but the Americans complained, that in this expedition, and ſome others, the Britiſh troops had wantonly ſet fire to houſes and towns, particularly Eſopus, and carried on the war in a manner not uſual among civilized nations. Theſe devaſtations greatly increaſed the averſion of the Americans to the Britiſh government, which had already taken a deep root. General Howe ſoon after returned to England, and the command of the Britiſh army in America devolved upon general Clinton: but it was now found neceſſary to evacuate Philadelphia; and accordingly Clinton retreated with the army to New York, in June 1778. The Britiſh troops were attacked on their march by the Americans, but the retreat was ſo ably conducted, or the American general Lee behaved ſo ill, that their loſs did not amount to 300, killed and wounded.

During part of this unhappy war between Great Britain and the colonies, the latter received conſiderable ſupplies of arms and ammunition from France; and the French court ſeems to have thought this a favourable opportunity for leſſening the power of Great Britain. Some French officers alſo entered into the American ſervice; and on the 6th of February, 1778, a treaty of alliance was concluded at Paris, between the French king and the Thirteen United Colonies; and in this treaty it was declared, that the eſſential and direct end of it was "to maintain effectually the liberty, ſovereignty, and independence, abſolute and unlimited, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be in general alarmed at the fatal tendency of the American war: and in June, 1778, the earl of Carliſle, William Eden, and George Johnſtone, eſqrs. arrived at Philadelphia, as commiſſioners from his majeſty, to ſettle the diſputes between the mother country and the colonies. But it was now too late: the terms, which, at an earlier period of the conteſt, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with diſdain. The congreſs refuſed to enter into any treaty with the Britiſh commiſſioners, if the independency of the United States of America was not previouſly acknowledged, or the Britiſh fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of theſe requiſitions being

being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animoſity.

The conduct of France towards Great Britain, in taking part with the revolted colonies, occaſioned hoſtilities to be commenced between the two nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either ſide. On the 27th of June, 1778, the Licorne and La Belle Poule, two French frigates, were taken by admiral Keppel. Orders were immediately iſſued by the French court for making repriſals on the ſhips of Great Britain; and on the 27th of July, a battle was fought off Breſt between the Engliſh fleet, under the command of admiral Keppel, and French fleet, under the command of the court d'Orvilliers. The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of 30 ſhips of the line, and the French 32, beſides frigates: they engaged for about three hours; but the action was not deciſive, no ſhip being taken on either ſide, and the french fleet at length retreated into the harbour of Breſt. Of the Engliſh 133 were killed in the action, and 373 wounded; and the loſs of the French is ſuppoſed to have been very great. After the engagement, there was much murmuring throughout the Engliſh fleet, becauſe a deciſive victory had not been obtained over the French; at laſt the blame was thrown upon Sir Hugh Palliſer, vice admiral of the blue, who was charged in a news paper with miſconduct, and diſobedience of orders. Though no regular accuſation was brought againſt him, he required of admiral Keppel publicly to vindicate his conduct from the unfavourable reports that were propagated againſt him. This the admiral declined, which gave riſe to ſome altercation between them; and Sir Hugh Palliſer afterwards thought proper to exhibit to the board of admiralty (of which he was himſelf a member) articles of accuſation againſt admiral Keppel, though for many months after the action he had continued to act under him, and profeſſed the greateſt reſpect to him. A mode of conduct ſo extraordinary, was very generally and ſeverely cenſured, but the lords of the admiralty ordered a court-martial to be held for the trial of admiral Keppel. When the court-martial was held, admiral Keppel was acquitted in the moſt honourable manner; and Sir Hugh Palliſer's charge againſt him was declared by the court to be "malicious and ill-founded." But Sir Hugh Palliſer being afterwards tried by another court martial, partly compoſed from ſome of the captains of his own diviſion, he likewiſe was acquitted; his diſobedience to the admiral's orders was conſidered as being occaſioned by the diſabled ſtate of his ſhip; a ſlight cenſure only was paſſed on him for not making the ſtate of his ſhip known to the admiral; and his conduct in other reſpects was declared to have been meritorious.

In the Eaſt Indies alſo an engagement happened between ſome Engliſh ſhips of war under the command of Sir Edward Vernon, and ſome French ſhips under the command of Monſ. de Tronjolly, on the 10th of Auguſt, in which the former obliged the latter to retire; and on the 17th of October following, Pondicherry ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain. In the courſe of the ſame year, the iſland of St. Lucia, in the Weſt Indies, was taken from the French; but the latter made themſelves maſters of Dominica, and the following year they obtained poſſeſſion of the iſlands of St. Vincent's and Grenada. In September, 1779, the count D'Eſtaing arrived at the mouth of the river Savannah, with a large fleet, and a conſiderable body of French troops, to the aſſiſtance of the Americans. After dallying a month, the French and Americans made an united attack upon the Britiſh troops at Savannah, under the command of general Prevoſt. But the latter defended themſelves ſo well, that the French and Americans were driven off with great

loſs

loſs, and D'Eſtaing ſoon after totally abandoned the coaſt of America. And at the cloſe of the year 1779, ſeveral French ſhips of war, and merchant-ſhips, were taken in the Weſt-Indies, by a fleet under the command of Sir Hyde Parker.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage with France in the war againſt England; one of the firſt enterprifes in which the Spaniards engaged was the ſiege of Gibraltar, which was defended by the garriſon with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was alſo added to that of France, now become extremely formidable, and their combined fleets ſeemed for a time to ride almoſt triumphant in the Britiſh channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation was under no inconſiderable apprehenſions of an invaſion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind; and after parading for ſome time in the channel, thought proper to retire to their own ports without effecting any thing. On the 8th of January 1780, Sir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured ſeven Spaniſh ſhips and veſſels of war belonging to the royal company of Carraccas, with a number of trading veſſels under their convoy; and in a few days after, the ſame admiral engaged near Cape St. Vincent, a Spaniſh fleet, conſiſting of eleven ſhips of the line, and two frigates, under Don Juan de Langara. Four of the largeſt Spaniſh ſhips were taken, and carried into Gibraltar, and two others driven on ſhore, one of which was afterwards recovered by the Engliſh. A Spaniſh 70 gun-ſhip, with 600 men was alſo blown up in the action. In April and May three actions likewiſe happened in the Weſt Indies, between the Engliſh fleet under admiral Rodney, who was now arrived in that part of the world, (having previouſly thrown ſupplies into Gibraltar), and the French fleet under the count de Guichen; but none of theſe actions were deciſive, nor was any ſhip taken on either ſide. In July following, admiral Geary took twelve valuable French merchant ſhips from Port au Prince; but on the 8th of Auguſt, the combined fleets of France and Spain took five Engliſh Eaſt Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant ſhips, bound for the Weſt Indies, which was one of the moſt complete naval captures ever made, and a very ſevere ſtroke to the commerce of Great Britain. Such a prize never before entered the harbour of Cadiz.

On the 4th of May, 1780, Sir Henry Clinton made himſelf maſter of Charles-town, South Carolina; and on the 16th of Auguſt, earl Cornwallis obtained a very ſignal victory over general Gates in that province, in which about a thouſand American priſoners were taken.

Soon after, major general Arnold deſerted the ſervice of the congreſs, made his eſcape to new York, and was made a brigadier-general in the royal ſervice. Major André, who negociated this deſertion, and was concerting meaſures with him for betraying the important poſt of Weſt Point into the hands of the Engliſh, was taken in the American lines, in his return to New York, and being conſidered as a ſpy, ſuffered death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

The great expences of the American war, and the burthens which were thereby laid upon the people naturally occaſioned much diſcontent in the nation, and ſeemed to convince perſons of all ranks of the neceſſity of public œconomy. Meetings were therefore held in various counties of the kingdom at the cloſe of the year 1779, and the beginning of the year 1780, at which great numbers of freeholders were preſent, who agreed to preſent petitions to the houſe of commons, ſtating the evils which the profuſe expenditure of the public money occaſioned, &c.

Some

Some trivial attempts were made in parliament to remedy the grievances ſtated in the petitions, but nothing important was effected; the miniſtry ſoon found means to maintain their influence in parliament; a diverſity of ſentiment occaſioned ſome diſunion among the popular leaders; the ſpirit which had appeared among the people by degrees ſubſided; and various cauſes at length conſpired to bring the greateſt part of the nation to a patient acquieſcence in the meaſures of adminiſtration.

The middle of the year 1780 was diſtinguiſhed by one of the moſt diſgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country; eſpecially if it be conſidered as happening in an age, in which the principles of toleration were well underſtood, and very prevalent. An act of parliament had been lately paſſed "for relieving his majeſty's ſubjects, profeſſing the Romiſh religion, from certain penalties and diſabilities impoſed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the reign of king William III." This act was generally approved by men of ſenſe, and of liberal ſentiments, by whom the laws againſt Papiſts were juſtly deemed too ſevere. The act at firſt ſeemed to give little offence to perſons of any claſs in England, but in Scotland it excited much indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Reſolutions were formed to oppoſe any law for granting indulgences to Papiſts in Scotland; and a Romiſh chapel was burned, and the houſes of ſeveral Papiſts demoliſhed, in the city of Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England: a number of perſons aſſembled themſelves together, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament, for a repeal of the late act in favour of the Papiſts, and they aſſumed the title of the Proteſtant Aſſociation. In was then reſolved, in order to give the more weight to their petition, that it ſhould be attended by great numbers of petitioners in perſon; and a public advertiſement was iſſued for that purpoſe, ſigned by lorge George Gordon.

Fifty thouſand perſons are ſuppoſed to have aſſembled with this view, on Friday the 2d of June, in St. George's Fields; from whence they proceeded, with blue cotkades in their hats, to the houſe of commons, where their petition was preſented by their preſident. In the courſe of the day ſeveral members of both houſes of parliament were groſsly inſulted and ill-treated by the populace: and a mob aſſembled the ſame evening, by which the Sardinian chapel in Lincoln's-inn Fields, and another Romiſh chapel in Warwick ſtreet, Golden-ſquare, were entirely demoliſhed. A party of the guards were then ſent for, to put a ſtop to the farther progreſs of theſe violences, and thirteen of the rioters were taken, five of whom were afterwards committed to Newgate, eſcorted by the military. On the Sunday following, another mob aſſembled, and deſtroyed a Popiſh chapel in Ropemaker's-alley, Moorfields. On Monday they demoliſhed a ſchool houſe, and three dwelling-houſes, in the ſame place, belonging to the Romiſh prieſts, with a valuable library of books, and a maſs-houſe, in Virginia-ſtreet, Ratcliff-highway. They alſo deſtroyed all the houſehold furniture of Sir George Saville, one of the moſt reſpectable men in the kingdom, becauſe he had brought in the bill in favour of the Papiſts. On Tueſday great numbers again aſſembled about the parliament houſe, and behaved ſo tumultuouſly, that both houſes thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a moſt daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to releaſe the rioters who were confined there: and the keeper having refuſed to deliver them, his houſe was ſet on fire, the priſon was ſoon in flames, and great part of it conſumed, though a new ſtone edifice of uncommon ſtrength; and more than three hundred priſoners made their eſcape, many of whom joined

the mob. Now, a committee of the Proteſtant Aſſociation circulated hand bills, requeſting all true proteſtants to ſhew their attachment to their beſt intereſt, by a legal and peaceable deportment: but none of them ſtept forth, notwithſtanding their boaſted numbers, to extinguiſh the flames they had occaſioned: violence, tumult, and devaſtation ſtill continued. The Proteſtant Aſſociation, as they thought proper to ſtyle themſelves, had been chiefly actuated by ignorance and bigotry; and their new confederates were animated by the love of miſchief, and the hope of plunder. Two other priſons, the houſes of lord Mansfield, and Sir John Fielding, and ſeveral other private houſes, were deſtroyed the ſame evening. The following day, the King's Bench priſon, the New Bridewell, in St. George's Fields, ſome popiſh chapels ſeveral private houſes of the Papiſts, and other buildings, were deſtroyed by the rioters; ſome were pulled down, and others ſet on fire; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and diſorder, tumults and conflagrations.

During theſe extraordinary ſcenes, there was a ſhameful inactivity in the lord mayor of London, and in moſt of the other magiſtrates of the metropolis, and its neighbourhood; and even the miniſtry appeared to be panic-ſtruck, and to be only attentive to the preſervation of their own houſes, and of the royal palace. The magiſtrates, at the beginning of the riots, declined giving any orders to the military to fire upon the inſurgents: but at length, as all property began to be inſecure, men of all claſſes began to ſee the neceſſity of vigorous oppoſition to the rioters; large bodies of troops were brought to the metropolis from many miles round it; and an order was iſſued, by the authority of the king in council, "for the military to act without waiting for directions from the civil magiſtrates, and to uſe force for diſperſing the illegal and tumultuous aſſemblies of the people." The troops exerted themſelves with diligence in the ſuppreſſion of theſe alarming tumults, great numbers of the rioters were killed, many were apprehended, who were afterwards tried and executed for felony *, and the metropolis was at length reſtored to order and tranquillity. The manner in which theſe tumults were ſuppreſſed by the operations of the military, without any authority from the civil magiſtrate, however neceſſary from the peculiar circumſtances of the caſe, was thought to be a very dangerous precedent: and that an act of indemnity ought to have been paſſed, not only with regard to inferior perſons who had acted in the ſuppreſſion of theſe riots, but alſo with reſpect to the miniſtry themſelves, for the part they had taken in this tranſaction, in order to prevent its being eſtabliſhed as a precedent.

While the internal peace of the kingdom was diſturbed by theſe commotions, there appeared reaſon to apprehend an increaſe of its foreign enemies, by a rupture with Holland; loud remonſtrances were made by the Britiſh miniſter to the States-general, complaining that a clandeſtine commerce was carried on between their ſubjects and the Americans; that this was particularly the caſe at St. Euſtatia; and that the enemies of Great Britain were ſupplied with naval and military ſtores by the Dutch.

The war with Holland was commenced with great vigour: and that republic ſoon ſuffered a very ſevere ſtroke in the loſs of the iſland of St. Euſtatia, which was taken by the Engliſh on the 2d of February, 1781.

On the 5th of Auguſt the ſame year, a very bloody engagement was fought between an Engliſh ſquadron of ſhips of war, under the command of admiral Hyde Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral

* Lord George Gordon was himſelf committed to the Tower and tried for high treaſon, but acquitted.

Zoutman

Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. On both ſides they fought with great gallantry, and by both of the contending ſquadrons the victory was claimed.

The war continued to be proſecuted with various ſucceſs; the French made themſelves maſters of the iſland of Tobago; and the Spaniards of Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida, with little effectual reſiſtance. Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans under general Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15, 1781, but it was a hard fought battle, and the loſs on both ſides conſiderable. Indeed the victory was productive of all the conſequences of a defeat; for three days after, lord Cornwallis was obliged to leave part of his ſick and wounded behind him to the care of his enemy, and to make a circuitous retreat of 200 miles to Wilmington before they could find ſhelter, and ſo left South Carolina entirely expoſed to the American general. The generals Philips and Arnold committed ſome ravages in Virginia, deſtroyed much ſhipping, and about 8000 hogſheads of tobacco; but none of theſe events at that time promiſed any ſpeedy termination of the war, they rather contributed to draw the attention of the Americans and the French at Rhode iſland to that quarter, where the next year the deciſive blow was ſtruck which firmly eſtabliſhed American independence. Lord Cornwallis's ſituation at Wilmington was very diſagreeable, and his force reduced ſo low that he could not think of marching to Charles-Town by land; he turned his thoughts then to a co-operation in Virginia with Philips and Arnold, and began his march, April 25, 1781. In this central province, all the ſcattered operations of active hoſtility began at length to converge into a point, and the grand cataſtrophe of the American war opened to the world. By different reinforcements, lord Cornwallis's force amounted to above 7000 excellent troops, but ſuch was their plundering and devaſtations on their route, and the order of the Americans, his ſituation became at length very critical. Sir Henry Clinton, the commander in chief, was prevented from ſending thoſe ſuccours to him which he otherwiſe would have done, by his fears for New York, againſt which he apprehended Waſhington meditated a formidable attack. This American general played a game of great addreſs; as many of their poſts and diſpatches had been intercepted, and the letters publiſhed with great parade and triumph in the New York papers, to expoſe the poverty, weakneſs and diſunion of the Americans; Waſhington ſoon turned the tables on the Britiſh commanders, and derived public advantage from this ſource of vexation and prejudice. He wrote letters to the ſouthern officers and others, informing them of his total inability to relieve Virginia, unleſs by a direct attack with the French troops on New York. He aſſerted it was abſolutely determined on, and would ſoon be executed. Theſe letters were intercepted (as was intended they ſhould) with others of the like kind from the French officers, and the project was ſucceſsful, Sir Henry Clinton was thus amuſed and deceived, and kept from forming any ſuſpicion of the real deſigns of the enemy.

By a variety of judicious military manœuvres, Waſhington kept New York, and its dependencies in a continual ſtate of alarm for about ſix weeks, and then ſuddenly marched acroſs the Jerſies and through Pennſylvania to the head of the Elk, at the bottom of the Cheſapeak, from which the light troops were conveyed by ſhipping down the bay, and the bulk of the army, after reaching Maryland by forced marches, were alſo there embarked, and ſoon joined the other body under the marquis de la Fayette. Sir Henry Clinton receiving information that the count de Graſſe was expected every moment in the Cheſapeak, with a large French fleet to co-ope-

rate with Washington, now seriously attempted to reinforce lord Cornwallis, but without success; for on the 5th of September, after a partial action of a few hours between the British fleet under admiral Graves, and that of the French under de Grasse, Graves returned to New York to refit, and left the French masters of the navigation of the Chesapeak. Presently the most effectual measures were adopted by general Washington for surrounding lord Cornwallis's army, and on the last of September it is was closely invested in York Town, and at Glocester on the opposite side of the river, with a considerable body of troops on one side, and a large naval force on the other. The trenches were opened in the night between the 5th and 7th of October, with a large train of artillery. The works which had been raised by the British, sunk under the weight of the enemies' batteries; the troops were much diminished by the sword and sickness, and worn down by constant watching and fatigue, and all hope of relief failing, the 19th of October lord Cornwallis surrendered himself and his whole army by capitulation to general Washington, as prisoners of war *. Fifteen hundred seamen underwent the fate of the garrison, but these, with the Guadaloupe frigate of 24 guns and a number of transports, were assigned to M. de Grasse, as a return for the French naval power and assistance.

Such was the issue of the Virginian war. The capture of this army, under lord Cornwallis, was too heavy a blow to be soon or easily recovered; it threw a gloom over the whole court and cabinet at home, and put a total period to the hopes of those who had flattered themselves with the subjugation of the colonies by arms. The surrender of this second British army may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in America; for the immense expence of carrying it on so distant from the seat of preparations and power; the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation; the plentiful effusion of human blood it had occasioned; the diminution of trade, and the vast increase of taxes—these were evils of such a magnitude, arising from this ever to be lamented contest, as could scarcely be overlooked even by the most insensible and stupid. Accordingly, on the first of March, 1782, after repeated struggles in the house of commons, the house addressed the king, requesting him to put a stop to any farther prosecution of so offensive a war against the American colonies. This was a most important event; it rendered a change of measures, and of councils absolutely necessary, and diffused universal joy throughout the kingdom. Those country gentlemen who had generally voted with the ministry, saw the dangers to which the nation was exposed in an expensive war with France, Spain, and Holland, without a single ally and feeling the pressure of the public burdens, they at length deserted the standard of administration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, March 27th, 1782, under the auspices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed first lord of the treasury.

The first business of the new ministry, was the taking measures for effectuating a general peace, Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris with all the parties at war, and was also directed to propose the independency of the Thirteen United Provinces of America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty. The commanders in chief in America were also directed to acquaint the congress with the pacific views of the British court, and with the offer to acknowledge the independency of the United States.

Peace every day became more desirable to the nation. A series of losses agitated the minds of the people. January 14th 1782, the French took Nevis.

* The American return made the number of prisoners 7,247, land and marine.

On

On the 5th of February, the iſland of Minorca ſurrendered to the Spaniards; and on the 13th of the ſame month, the iſland of St. Chriſtopher's was given up to the French. The valuable iſland of Jamaica would ſoon probably have ſhared the ſame fate, had not the Britiſh fleet, under admiral Rodney, fallen in with that of the French under the Count de Graſſe, in their way to join the Spaniſh fleet at St. Domingo. The van of the French was too far advanced to ſupport the centre, and a ſignal victory was obtained over them. The French admiral, in the Ville de Paris of 110 guns (a preſent from the city of Paris to the French king), was taken, with two ſeventy-fours, and one of 64 guns; a 74 gun ſhip blew up by accident ſoon after ſhe was in our poſſeſſion, and another 74 ſunk during the engagement. A few days after, two more of the ſame fleet, of 64 guns each, were captured. By this victory of the 12th of April, the deſign againſt Jamaica was fruſtrated, and admiral Rodney's reputation and intereſt were greatly promoted.

May 8th, the Bahama iſlands ſurrendered to the Spaniards: but the credit of the Britiſh arms was well ſuſtained at Gibraltar, under general Elliot, the governor, and their formidable attack on the 13th of September with floating batteries of 212 braſs cannon, &c. in ſhips from 1400 to 600 tuns burthen, ended in diſappointment, and the deſtruction of all the ſhips and moſt of the aſſailants in them. The garriſon was relieved by lord Howe, in the month of October, who offered battle to the combined force of France and Spain, though twelve ſail of the line inferior. The military operations after this, were few, and of little conſequence. Negapatnam, a ſettlement in the Eaſt Indies, and Trincomale on the iſland of Ceylon, were taken from the Dutch by the Britiſh forces; but the French ſoon receiving conſiderable ſuccours from Europe, took Cuddalore, retook Trincomale forced the Britiſh fleet into ſeveral actions, but none deciſive, and enabled Hyder Ally to withſtand, with various ſucceſs, all the efforts of Sir Eyre Coote, and his troops.

The death of the marquis of Rockingham, on the 1ſt of July, occaſioned a violent commotion in the cabinet, and leſſened the hopes which had been formed of important national benefits from the new adminiſtration. Lord Shelburne ſucceeded the marquis as firſt lord of the treaſury, and it is ſaid, without the knowledge of his colleagues.

By the treaty of peace between Great Britain and France *; Great Britain ceded to France, of her poſſeſſions before the war, the iſland of Tobago, in the Weſt Indies, and the river of Senegal in Africa, with its dependencies and the forts on the river; and gave up a few diſtricts in the Eaſt Indies, as dependencies on Pondicherry, and Karical; it agreed alſo to reſtore the iſlands St. Lucia, St. Pierre, and Miquelon, and the iſland of Goree; with Pondicherry, Karical: Mahe, Chandernagore, and the comptoire of Surat, in the Eaſt Indies, which had been conquered from the French during the war. To prevent diſputes about boundaries in the Newfoundland fiſhery, it was agreed, that the French line for fiſhing ſhould begin from Cape St. John on the eaſtern ſide, and going round by the North, ſhould have for its boundary Cape Ray on the Weſtern ſide; and Great Britain renounced every claim by former treaties with reſpect to the demolition of Dunkirk. France on the other hand was to reſtore to Great Britain the iſlands of Granada, and the Grenadines, St. Chriſtopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Nevis, and Montferrat; and guarrantied Fort James, and the river Gambia, agreeing that the gum trade ſhould remain in the ſame condition as before the war, 1755. The allies of each ſtate in the Eaſt Indies were to be invited to accede

* Preliminary articles, ſettled January 20, 1783.

to the pacification, but if they were averſe to peace, no aſſiſtance on either ſide was to be given to them.

By the treaty with Spain, Great Britain gave up to that power Eaſt Florida, and alſo ceded Weſt Florida and Minorca, which Spain had taken during the war. To prevent all cauſes of complaint and miſunderſtanding for the future, it was agreed that Britiſh ſubjects ſhould have the right of cutting and carrying away logwood in the diſtrict lying between the rivers Wallis or Bellize, and Rio Hondo, taking the courſe of the ſaid rivers for unalterable boundaries. Spain agreed to reſtore the iſlands of Providence and the Bahamas, to Great Britain, but they had been retaken before the peace was ſigned.

In the treaty with the United States of America, the king of Great Britain acknowledges New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's Bay, Rhode Iſland and Providence plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, to be *free, ſovereign, and independent ſtates*, and for himſelf, his heirs and ſucceſſors, relinquiſhed all claims to the government, propriety, and territorial rights of the ſame, and every part thereof. To prevent all diſputes in future on the ſubject of boundaries between theſe ſtates and the remaining provinces to Great Britain, lines were very minutely drawn, which will be noticed in the proper place, and ſome favourable clauſes were obtained for the loyaliſts. The navigation of the Miſſiſſippi to remain open to both parties, as alſo the Newfoundland fiſheries.

In the treaty with the Dutch, great difficulties aroſe; but at length it was ſtipulated that Great Britain ſhould reſtore Trincomale in the iſland of Ceylon, but the French had already taken it; and that the Dutch ſhould yield to us the town of Negapatnam, with its dependencies in the Eaſt Indies, with liberty to treat for its reſtitution on the point of an equivalent.

Thus a period was put to a moſt calamitous war, in which Great Britain loſt the beſt part of her American colonies, and many thouſand valuable lives, and expended or ſquandered nearly 150 millions of money. The terms of the peace were, to many, a ſubject of great regret; but had the war continued, it would have been neceſſary to have borrowed annually 17 millions and a half, by which a million *per annum* would have been added to the taxes, and 25 millions at leaſt to the capital of the public debt, according to the uſual modes of funding. The addreſs of thanks for the peace was carried in the houſe of lords, by a majority of 72 to 59, but loſt in the houſe of commons by a majority of 224 to 208.

The majority of the commons, thus enliſting under the banners of the *famous coalition leaders*, Mr. Fox and lord North plainly indicated a miniſterial revolution to be near at hand, unleſs the cabinet would call a new parliament. As they did not, the peace makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two gentlemen juſt mentioned were made ſecretaries of ſtate, and the duke of Portland firſt lord of the treaſury, on April the 2d, 1783. All plans of reformation in public offices, and for preſerving the nation, which lord Shelburne propoſed, ſeemed now to be dropt. Every thing went on juſt as the coalition adminiſtration pleaſed, till Mr. Fox brought into parliament his famous bill for new regulating the government of the Eaſt India company, and their commercial affairs and territories; a plan of which bill, its progreſs and fate, we have already given in our account of that trading company. This bill being rejected in the houſe of lords, on December 17, by a majority of 19, occaſioned a great ferment in the cabinet, and in both houſes of parliament.

A royal meſſage was ſent between 12 and 1 of the morning of the 19th of December, to deſire the two ſecretaries to ſend the ſeals of their offices immediately; and Mr. Pitt ſucceeded the duke of Portland as firſt lord of the treaſury, bringing in his friends into the reſpective departments, which formed the tenth adminiſtration ſince his majeſty's acceſſion.

Some leading independent gentlemen (as they ſtyled themſelves) interpoſed to unite the contending parties, which had filled parliament and the country with diſtractions, and tended to the ruin of all; but their endeavours to form what they called a firm, efficient, extended, and united adminiſtration, proved unſucceſsful.

Perſons of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and independent character in the houſe of commons, and in the kingdom, now wiſhed that a diſſolution had taken place weeks before, even at the firſt forming of the coalition.

At laſt, after ſtrong and repeated conteſts between the two parties, on the 25th of March, 1784, a proclamation was iſſued for diſſolving the preſent parliament, and calling a new one, agreeable to the deſires and addreſſes of a great part of the kingdom. Juſt at that critical period, the great ſeal was ſtolen from the houſe of the lord chancellor, which occaſioned many ſuſpicions, as if done by more than ordinary felons; but nothing farther appeared, and a new ſeal was preſently made. On the 18th of May the new parliament aſſembled, and the commons choſe Mr. Cornwall, the ſpeaker of the late houſe, for their preſent ſpeaker. The next day, his majeſty addreſſed them from the throne. A very feeble oppoſition was made to the addreſs of thanks in the houſe of lords, and it ſoon appeared that the appeal to the people had turned out greatly in Mr. Pitt's favour; for on May 24th, on a diviſion of the houſe for an addreſs to the king's ſpeech, the numbers for it without any alteration or amendment, were 282 againſt 114.

Mr. Pitt brought in his famous Eaſt India bill the 5th of July, the leading particulars of which we have given in our account of that company, with a few obſervations upon it.

The buſineſs of parliamentary reform having been taken up by Mr. Pitt, he accordingly introduced a ſpecific plan for that purpoſe on the 18th of April, 1785. The plan was to give one hundred members to the popular intereſt of the kingdom, and to extend the right of election to above one hundred thouſand perſons, who, by the exiſting proviſions of law, were excluded from it. This acceſſion to the popular intereſt was to be principally obtained by the ſuppreſſion of decayed boroughs, and the transfer of their repreſentatives to the counties; ſo that the number of the houſe of commons would remain the ſame.—After a debate of conſiderable length, it was rejected by a majority of 74; the noes being 248, and the ayes 174.

Amongſt the various meaſures agitated by parliament in 1786, the plan for eſtabliſhing a ſinking fund, and employing a million annually for reducing the national debt, engaged their moſt immediate attention. The heads of this plan as ſtated by Mr. Pitt, in his ſpeech on this ſubject are—Firſt, That the yearly income of the ſtate exceeded the permanent level of its expenditure, by a ſum of 900,000l. Next that this ſum would be increaſed to a million by means in no wiſe burthenſome to the people.—Thirdly, That altho' the preſent eſtabliſhment exceeded in certain inſtances the ſame eſtabliſhments as ſtated in the report of the ſelect committee, yet there were ample reſources, and contingent and outſtanding receipts, ſufficient to overbalance ſuch exceſſes, without having recourſe to any freſh taxes:—And laſtly, that the ways and means for the preſent year would be ſufficient

to

to furniſh the ſupplies, together with the ſum of 250,000l. to be applied quarterly towards the eſtabliſhment of the new fund; and, after all, would leave a conſiderable balance to be carried to the next year. Mr. Pitt concluded by moving. "That the ſum of one million be annually granted to certain commiſſioners, to be by them applied to the purchaſe of ſtocks, towards diſcharging the public debt of this country; which money ſhall ariſe out of the ſurpluſſes, exceſſes, and overplus monies compoſing the fund, commonly called the ſinking fund."

In the month of Auguſt 1786, an attempt was made by one Margaret Nicholſon on the life of his majeſty, as he was alighting from his carriage at the gate of St. James's palace. This woman had been obſerved to wait the king's arrival for ſome time, and previous to the appearance of the carriage, had taken her ſtation between two women that were unknown to her. On the ſight of the carriage, ſhe begged with ſome earneſtneſs that ſhe might not be hindered from delivering a memorial to his majeſty. As the king was alighting, ſhe puſhed forward, and preſented a paper, which his majeſty received with great condeſcenſion. At that inſtant ſhe ſtruck a concealed knife at the king's breaſt, which his majeſty happily avoided, by bowing as he received the paper. As ſhe was making a ſecond thruſt, one of the yeoman caught her arm; and at the ſame inſtant, one of the king's footmen wrenched the knife out of her hand. His majeſty, with amazing temper and fortitude exclaimed, "I have received no injury! Do not hurt "the woman; the poor creature appears to be inſane."—She was immediately taken into cuſtody; and upon examination was found to be inſane. In conſequence thereof, ſhe was afterwards ſent to Bethlehem hoſpital, to be taken proper care of.

A plan was this year ſet on foot for eſtabliſhing a colony in New Holland, for the convenience of tranſporting convicts thither: and with a future view of improving the ſoil, and cultivating the manners of the natives.

Both houſes of parliament having met on the 23d of January 1787, his majeſty then delivered a ſpeech from the throne, in which he informed them, that he had concluded a treaty of navigation and commerce with his moſt Chriſtian Majeſty.

In the houſe of commons, Mr. Sheridan brought forward an important charge againſt Warren Haſtings, Eſq; late governor general of Bengal, for high crimes and miſdemeanors in the Eaſt Indies.

He was accuſed of various acts of tyranny, extortion, and cruelty, during his government of India, The houſe of commons reſolved to impeach him, and proſecute his trial before the houſe of peers. The impeachment was conducted by a number of its moſt diſtinguiſhed members, and enforced with all their eloquence. But he was believed to have performed thoſe acts, for which he was impeached, upon the moſt urgent neceſſity, and for the ſalvation of the Britiſh empire in India. All the influence of the Eaſt India Company, and its moſt diſtinguiſhed ſervants, was employed to ſave him; miniſtry wavered between his friends and his enemies, till the energy of the latter languiſhed by the lengthening out of his trial. He was acquitted, and the Eaſt India Company repayed to him the expences of his trial, and ſettled upon him an annuity of 5000l. a-year.

The conſolidation of the cuſtoms and exciſe was the moſt important circumſtance deſerving of attention in the year 1787. Thie was a meaſure of incredible labour and detail, as well as of infinite advantage to commerce, by facilitating and ſimplifying the intricacies attendant on mercantile tranſactions

factions, and the payment of duties, a regulation which was duly and permanently effected.

The miniſtry ſoon after the receſs of parliament were engaged in attending to diſputes which ſubſiſted in the Republic of the United Provinces of Holland. The malcontents there were become highly refractory and turbulent, and had treated the royal conſort of his ſerene highneſs the Stadthholder, ſiſter to the king of Pruſſia with the greateſt indignity. Every method was taken on the part of his Britannic Majeſty, to effect the reſtoration of tranquillity, and the maintenance of lawful government among them. To this end a memorial was preſented by Sir James Harris to the States General, repreſenting the extreme inquietude with which the king his maſter beheld the continuance of their diſſentions; expreſſing his ardent deſire of ſeeing peace re-eſtabliſhed; and aſſuring them, that if it ſhould be found neceſſary to recur to a foreign mediation, and to invite his majeſty, every effort ſhould be exerted on his part to bring the negotiations to a happy, ſolid, and permanent iſſue. His Majeſty alſo thought it neceſſary to explain his intention of counteracting all forcible interference on the part of France in the internal affairs of the Republic.

As the king of Pruſſia had taken meaſures to enforce his demand of ſatisfaction for the inſult offered to the Princeſs of Orange, and the party which then uſurped the government of Holland had applied to the French king, and received aſſurance of aſſiſtance, which was notified to his Britannic majeſty, orders were given for augmenting the Britiſh forces both by ſea and land, to cooperate with the king of Pruſſia, which orders were executed with the greateſt alacrity.

In the mean time, the rapid ſucceſs of the Pruſſian troops under the conduct of the duke of Brunſwick at once obtained the reparation demanded by their ſovereign, and enabled the provinces to deliver themſelves from the oppreſſion under which they laboured, as well as to re-eſtabliſh their lawful government; inſomuch that all ſubjects of conteſt being thus removed, an explanation took place between the courts of London and Verſailles, and declarations were exchanged by their reſpective miniſters, by which it was mutually agreed to diſarm, and to place their naval eſtabliſhment on the ſame footing as in the beginning of this year. Thus by the united efforts of the kings of England and Pruſſia, the king of France was prevented from openly aſſiſting the malcontents in Holland, and the Stadholder eſtabliſhed in the government of the United Provinces.

In the beginning of this year 1788, died at Rome prince Charles Lewis Caſſimir Stuart, who headed the rebellion in 1745. Since the death of his father in 1765, he had aſſumed to himſelf the title of King of England; but was commonly known on the continent by the name of Chevalier de St. George, and in England by that of the young Pretender. He was juſt 67 years and two months old on the day of his death. This perſon was grandſon to James II. whoſe ſon was recognized by ſeveral courts of Europe as king of England, immediately after the death of his father. As ſuch he received kingly honours, had his palace and his guards, and enjoyed the privilege allowed by the Pope to catholic kings, of beſtowing a certain number of cardinal hats. But his ſon prince Charles, who lately died, did not enjoy theſe honours. He was indeed called prince of Wales during the life of his father; but after that event, he no longer bore that title; nor would the catholic courts ſtyle him king.

A proviſional treaty of defenſive alliance was ſigned on the 18th of June

between the miniſters plenipotentiary of their majeſties the kings of Great Britain and Pruſſia; and afterwards with the States General of Holland.

The centenary of the revolution in 1688 was this year obſerved, on the 5th of November, by many ſocieties in the metropolis, and other parts of the kingdom, not only with feſtivity, but devotion and thankſgiving.

His majeſty was in the month of November afflicted by a ſevere indiſpoſition which prevented him from meeting his parliament. Several phyſicians were examined as to the ſtate of his majeſty's health. In conſequence of this, a grand queſtion was ſtarted in the houſe of commons, between the right honourable William Pitt and Charles James Fox, concerning the right of ſupplying the deficiency of the royal authority during the incapacity of his majeſty. In 1789. after very conſiderable debates the following reſolutions were at length agreed to; *viz.* 1. "That it is the opinion of this committee, that for the purpoſe of providing for the exerciſe of the king's royal authority during the continuance of his majeſty's illneſs, in ſuch manner, and to ſuch extent, as the preſent circumſtances of the urgent concerns of the nation may require: it is expedient that his royal highneſs the prince of Wales, being reſident within the realm, ſhall be empowered to exerciſe and adminiſter the royal authority according to the laws and conſtitution of Great Britain, in the name, and on the behalf of his majeſty, under the ſtyle and title of REGENT of the kingdom; and to uſe, execute and perform, in the name, and on the behalf of his majeſty, all authorities, prerogatives, acts of government, and adminiſtration of the ſame, which belong to the king of this realm to uſe, execute, aud perform, according to the law thereof, ſubject to ſuch limitations and exceptions as ſhall be provided.——2. That the prince regent ſhould not confer peerages but on perſons of the royal iſſue, and thoſe of full age.——3. That he ſhould not grant offices, or penſions, nor ſalaries for life, or in reverſion.——4. That the real and perſonal property of his majeſty ſhould be ſecured, and not be conſidered as appertaining to, or under the controul of the prince regent.——5. That it is the opinion of this committee, that the care and cuſtody of the king's perſon ſhould be committed to the queen's moſt excellent majeſty; that her majeſty ſhall have power to remove and appoint, from time to time, all perſons belonging to the different departments of his majeſty's houſehold during the continuance of his majeſty's illneſs, and no longer; and that for the better enabling her majeſty to perform this duty, it is expedient that a council ſhould be appointed to adviſe with her majeſty on all matters relative to the ſaid truſt, who ſhall alſo be empowered to examine upon oath, at ſuch times as they ſhall think fit, the phyſicians who have attended, or may in future attend his majeſty, touching the ſtate of his majeſty's health."

All theſe reſolutions were agreed to after much altercation; and before the lords could communicate their concurrence to the commons, a proteſt by upwards of fifty peers was entered on their journals. The reſolutions were afterwards agreed to, and a committee appointed to communicate them to her majeſty, and his royal highneſs the prince of Wales. The prince replied to the committee in terms that did honour to his humanity, liberality, and patriotiſm; and her majeſty expreſſed her ſatisfaction and pleaſure at the meaſures they had adopted in the preſent ſituation of affairs.

The conſideration of the regency bill was reſumed from time to time in both houſes of parliament, till the 10th of March, when the lords commiſſioners ſent a meſſage to the commons, deſiring their attendance in the houſe of peers: and announced to them, by his majeſty's command, his happy

recovery

recovery from his late indiſpoſition, and conſequent capacity of now attending to the public affairs of his kingdom, together with his warmeſt acknowledgements for their late proofs of their attachment to his perſon and government. On this occaſion a general joy was manifeſted by all ranks of people, and illuminations and other marks of public rejoicings were made over all the kingdom. By his majeſty's proclamation, the 23d of April was obſerved as a day of public thankſgiving to Almighty God for the removal of his late illneſs. The king, attended by the whole royal family, went to St. Paul's church in ſtate, amidſt the joyful acclamations of the populace, who demonſtrated their loyalty and affection by every poſſible token of reſpect and applauſe; and particularly on the following evening, by the moſt univerſal and ſplendid illuminations ever known.

In the month of May 1790, a meſſage was ſent from his majeſty to both houſes of parliament, relative to two veſſels taken by the Spaniards in Nootka Sound, on the ſouth weſt coaſt of America. In conſequence of which, both houſes unanimouſly agreed to aſſiſt his majeſty in obtaining full ſatisfaction for the inſult done to our trade. The greateſt preparations, therefore, were made both by land and ſea. Fifty ſhips of the line and a proportionable number of frigates were put in commiſſion, and the greateſt exertions made in the different dock-yards in repairing and equipping ſeveral more. The Spaniards, on the other hand, appeared to be equally diligent. They had a large fleet at ſea, and uſed their utmoſt endeavours to put their marine on a reſpectable footing. And the nation had the melancholy proſpect of being involved in a Spaniſh war. In this ſtate of things Mr. Fitzherbert was ſent to Madrid with plenipotentiary powers to adjuſt the diſpute. The treaty was firſt protracted to the latter end of July, and then to the 28th of October, when all differences were finally ſettled, and peace thus happily re-eſtabliſhed. It was agreed, that the buildings and veſſels ſhould be reſtored, that the right of navigation and fiſhery ſhould be equally conceded to both nations; that illicit commerce with the Spaniſh ſettlements ſhould be prohibited, and that the Britiſh fiſhing veſſels or others ſhould be reſtricted to ten leagues diſtance from the Spaniſh coaſt; that thoſe parts of the North Weſt coaſts of America, which are to the north of thoſe now occupied by Spain, ſhould be left free; and thoſe to the ſouth of the preſent Spaniſh ſettlements ſhould be declared the excluſive property of that ſtate.

But though Great Britain was thus happily reſcued from the horrors of war in this quarter of the globe accident or ambition involved our Indian poſſeſſions in blood.

Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the moſt formidable to the Britiſh government, and the moſt hoſtile to its authority. The diſpute which finally involved the Engliſh aroſe betwixt the Dutch and Tippoo. The Dutch were poſſeſſed of two forts ſituated between Myſore and Cochin, to theſe forts Tippoo laid claim, in right of his father who had conquered them. The Dutch, unable to defend themſelves entered into a negociation with the Rajah of Travancore for the purchaſe of them. That politic people eaſily ſaw that by placing them in the hands of the Rajah of Travancore who was the ally of Great Britain, they erected a powerful barrier againſt the ambitious encroachments of their neighbour, no leſs than the whole power of Britain. The bargain was concluded with the Rajah in July, 1789, though it was not till the 4th of Auguſt that the Rajah informed the Madras government that he was on the point of making the purchaſe.

It was not probable that Tippoo would remain an indifferent ſpectator of theſe tranſactions. He inſiſted on the claims which he retained over theſe forts

forts, in conſequence of their being conquered by his father, and in conſequence of the ſubſequent compromiſe. He aſſerted, that in virtue of the feudal laws no transfer of them could be made without his conſent as ſovereign of Myſore; and alledging as a further cauſe of complaint againſt the Rajah that he had given protection to a number of his rebel ſubjects, he aſſembled a conſiderable force and on the 29th of December made a direct attack on the lines of Travancore. On a remonſtrance however, from the Britiſh government, he deſiſted and even apologized for his conduct. From the 29th of March to the firſt of December Tippoo remained perfectly quiet, ſtill aſſerting his claim to the ſovereignty of theſe forts; but, it is confidently affirmed offered to ſubmit the diſpute to any impartial arbitration.

On the firſt of March 1790 the Rajah's troops made an attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th of December. An engagement took place, and war being thus commenced, the Britiſh government conceived themſelves bound to take an active part. Such was the ſtate of affairs previous to the meeting of parliament, and ſuch were the facts which induced the miniſtry to take part in an Indian war.

In purſuance of his majeſty's intimation of the cloſe of the ſeſſion, the parliament was diſſolved on the 11th of June. On the 25th of November 1790 the new parliament was aſſembled, and on the following day his majeſty opened the ſeſſion by a ſpeech from the throne. He began with teſtifying his approbation that the difference with the court of Spain had been brought to an amicable termination. He informed parliament, that ſince the laſt ſeſſion a foundation had been laid for a pacification between Auſtria and the Porte, and for putting an end to the diſſenſions in the Netherlands. He remarked that a ſeparate peace had taken place between Ruſſia and Sweden: but as the war ſtill continued between Ruſſia and the Porte, he intimated an intention of employing the weight and influence of Great Britain in reſtoring the general tranquillity. In the concluſion of his ſpeech, his majeſty remarked the hoſtilities which had commenced in India; and called the attention of both houſes to the ſtate of the province of Quebec. The addreſs after a few words from Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox was voted without a diviſion.

On the third of December the chancellor of the exchequer preſented to the houſe of commons a copy of the declaration and counter-declaration as exchanged at Madrid on the 24th July 1790, and a copy of the convention with the expences of the armament. But theſe not appearing ſatisfactory to the members in oppoſition, Mr. Grey on the 13th moved for the production of ſeveral other papers relative to the negociation, and particularly the requiſitions made by his majeſty's miniſters to the court of Spain. The motion was ſupported by Mr. Pelham and Mr. Fox; it was oppoſed by Mr. Wilberforce, and Mr. Pitt, and negatived by a majority of 124. Immediately connected with the armament are the ways and means of defraying it. This buſineſs was opened by the chancellor of the exchequer who ſtated the whole expences of the armament including ſtores at £.3,133,000. That this debt might not be left a permanent burden, Mr. Pitt produced a plan of ways and means which would in a ſhort period extinguiſh the whole of the debt. The firſt reſource for this purpoſe was the balance of iſſues of public money, which had accumulated from unpaid dividends in the hands of the bank of England. By the yearly accounts of the bank it appeared that this balance had been increaſing from the year 1727, and on the 5th of July 1789 amounted to £.547,000. On the 12th of October there was a floating balance of £.669,000. Mr. Pitt intended to avail himſelf of this dead balance to the amount

amount of £.500,000, which he ſhould take for the public uſe, and £.160,000 would then be left for the diſcharge the whole of arrears. In order to diſcharge the whole of the remainder in four years, Mr. Pitt propoſed an additional tax of 2s. 8d. per cent. on Sugar; one fifth additional tax on Spirits; a tax of 3d. per buſhel on malt to continue for two years only; ten per cent. on all aſſeſſed taxes, the commutation and land tax excepted; and laſtly a double tax on game keepers, and one third additional on game licences. To theſe he propoſed to add one permanent tax, which conſiſted in a further regulation of the tax already exiſting upon bills of exchange. After much conteſt, however, the miniſter thought proper to relinquiſh that part of his plan, which related to the appropriation of the £.500,000, inſtead of which he accepted of a loan of that ſum without intereſt, as long as a floating balance ſhould remain in the hands of their caſhier. The other arrangements were carried into effect.

A ſubject of conſiderable conſtitutional importance came under the conſideration of parliament in the beginning of this ſeſſion; the queſtion was whether proſecutions upon impeachments of the commons before the peers of great Britain, do or do not abate by the diſſolution of parliament; on the 17th of December Mr. Burke moved for a committee to conſider of the ſtate of the impeachment of Warren Haſtings Eſq. This motion being carried, Mr. Burke opened the main queſtion and moved that it appeared to the houſe that a proſecution againſt Warren Haſtings is now pending. After Mr. Burke Mr. Erskine roſe and moved that the houſe ſhould ſearch for precedents, which was carried againſt him by a majority of 113. Mr. Burke's original motion was then put and carried without a diviſion.

The next important buſineſs that engaged the attention of the Britiſh legiſlature was the Indian War, the cauſes and circumſtances of which have been already noticed.

On the 22d of December Mr. Cox Hippeſley roſe to propoſe a preliminary motion, the object of which was merely to deſire that copies of the correſpondence relative to the attack of Tippoo Sultan on the lines of Travancore ſhould he laid before the houſe, Mr. Hippeſley diſapproved of the war in India both for its injuſtice and impolicy; the motion was ſupported by Mr. Francis who reprobated the deſtructive policy of increaſing our territories in India: he was followed on the ſame ſide by Mr. Fox; the motion was oppoſed by Mr. Pitt, who repreſented Tippoo as a mercileſs tyrant. The queſtion was carried however in favour of the production of the papers.

On the 28th of February Mr. Hippeſley followed up his motion on the Indian war: hut his ill ſtate of health only permitted him to read the acts of parliament and reſolutions of the houſe of commons which prohibit the Britiſh government of India from entering into offenſive war. After the reading of theſe papers, Mr. Francis roſe at the requeſt of Mr. Hippeſley, and in a very able ſpeech explained the cauſes of the war, which he entirely attributed to the Dutch and the ambition of the Rajah of Travancore, Mr. Francis concluded with ſeveral motions, the object of which was to cenſure the origin and prevent the proſecution of the war.

Mr. Dundas, Mr. Wilberforce, and the ſolicitor-general ſupported the conduct of government and Mr. Francis's motions were negatived. A bill for the relief of proteſting catholics brought in by Mr. Mitford, paſſed the houſe of commons without oppoſition. The rights of juries with regard to libels had formerly been indeterminate; it had been maintained that Juries had no right to judge of the matter contained in the libels; that their ſole buſineſs was to judge of the fact whether the pannel had publiſhed the alledged libel or not. To aſcertain and ſettle the law in this point, and

in another which appeared equally defective, Mr. Fox moved for a grand committee of juſtice to conſider of two important law queſtions, this motion Mr. Fox afterwards withdrew and ſubſtituted in its place a motion for leave to bring in two bills, one "to remove all doubts reſpecting the right and functions of juries in criminal caſes," and the other to explain and amend the act of the ninth year of queen Anne, relative to quo warrantos. On the 25th of May Mr. Fox introduced his bill and with a ſlight oppoſition from the legal profeſſion, it completed its progreſs through the houſe of commons with the loſs of its preamble. In the houſe of lords, however, it experienced a different reception. On the 8th of June the ſecond reading of the bill was moved for in that houſe, when it met with a warm oppoſition from the lord chancellor, who moved for the ſecond reading of the bill on that day month. The lord chancellor's motion was carried and the bill conſequently poſtponed to a future ſeſſion.

The important queſtion relative to the abolition of the ſlave trade had been agitated in a former ſeſſion. Early in the ſeſſion of 1791. Mr. Wilberforce gave notice of an intended motion for appointing a committee for receiving and examining evidence on that ſubject; and on the 4th of February he ſubmitted a motion to that effect; which after a ſhort debate was put and carried.

It was not however till the 18th of April that the buſineſs was in ſuch a degree of forwardneſs as to enable Mr. Wilberforce to preſs for the abolition. On that day he opened the diſplay of the leading arguments in favour of that meaſure. His réaſoning convinced all thoſe whoſe minds were not blinded by prejudice, or the more ſordid conſideration of intereſt. The motion was ſupported by Mr. Francis, W. Smith, the chancellor of the exchequer, and by Mr. Fox, who aſſured the houſe that "if they did not by their vote of "that night mark their abhorrence of a practice ſo enormous, ſo repugnant to "all laws human and divine, it would be more ſcandalous and more defaming "in the eyes of the world than any vote that houſe had ever given. It "would in fact give a parliamentary ſanction to rapine, robbery and murder." —The motion was oppoſed by Sir William Young and Lord Sheffield, and was at laſt negatived by a majority of ſeventy five.

One of the main objects recommended in his Majeſty's ſpeech, was, that the houſe would conſider of ſuch regulations for the government of Quebec as the preſent circumſtances of the province ſeemed to require. On the 4th of March his majeſty ſent a meſſage to the houſe importing, that it appeared to his majeſty, that it would be for the benefit of the inhabitants of that province that the ſame ſhould be divided into two ſeparate provinces, to be called the Upper and Lower Canada. He further recommended to the houſe to conſider of ſuch proviſions as might enable his majeſty to make a permanent appropriation of lands within the ſaid provinces for the maintenance of a proteſtant clergy within the ſame. In conſequence of this meſſage the chancellor of the exchequer moved for leave to bring in a bill to repeal certain proviſions of the fourteenth of his majeſty reſpecting the government of Canada, and to make ſuch farther proviſions, &c. The bill was warmly oppoſed by Mr. Fox. Mr. Huſſey, and Lord Sheffield. During the diſcuſſion of this bill, a very warm diſpute took place between the two moſt diſtinguiſhed characters in oppoſition, Mr. Burke and Mr Fox. The ſeeds of diſunion had been already ſown berween theſe great men, but had never broke forth into any public difference till the debate on the army eſtimates for 1791, when a diſpute took place concerning the French revolution. A more violent difference now took place on the ſame ſubject in the

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debate upon the Quebec-bill, in which Mr. Burke ſaid, he knew the price of his conduct, and their friendſhip was at an end. This altercation produced a ſchiſm in the politics of the oppoſition, which ended in a final ſeparation.

While ſeveral of the topics we have juſt mentioned, remained in agitation before the Britiſh ſenate, the attention of that body was called to another object, not leſs important to the intereſts of the nation. On the 28th of March a meſſage was delivered from his majeſty, importing, that the endeavours which he had uſed, in conjunction with his allies, to effect a pacification, not having proved ſucceſsful, his majeſty judged it requiſite, in order to add weight to his repreſentations, to make ſome further augmentation to his naval force.

On the 29th Mr. Pitt, moved an addreſs, to thank his majeſty for the communication of his meſſage, which was carried by a majority of 93. This ſubject was afterwards agitated at three different times in the houſe of commons; it was likewiſe brought forward in the houſe of peers, by a motion of Earl Fitzwilliam, which was negatived by a majority of 67.

As in the courſe of the preceeding ſeſſion a conſiderable difference of opinion had exiſted relative to the ſuppoſed ſtate of the national finances a committee of nine were choſen to enquire into the ſtate of the public expenditure. With a great deal of diligence and attention they produced a very accurate report ſufficiently early in the ſeſſion to meet the opening of the miniſter's budget on the 18th of May.

In ſtating the articles of expenditure and of the ways and means for the current year, Mr. Pitt deſired to keep them entirely ſeparate from the expences of the armament on the diſpute with Spain, which had been already provided for. This being the caſe the ſum total of the ſupplies amounted to 5,728,000l. The ſum total of ways and means amounted to 5,734,471l.

This ſeſſion of parliament was concluded on the 10th of June by a ſpeech from the throne in which his majeſty expreſſed his ſatisfaction at the circumſtance, that a mode had been attempted for defraying the expences of laſt year without any permanent addition to the public burthens, and alſo at the proviſion which had been made for the government of Canada. He intimated his regret at not being able to acquaint them with the reſult of the negociation for peace between Ruſſia and the Porte, thanked the commons for the ſupplies and prorogued the parliament to the 16th of Auguſt.

Soon after the riſing of parliament, a ſeries of ſhameful outrages and violences, took place in the town of Birmingham, and for the ſpace of four days ſpread terror and alarm through the town and adjacent country. A feſtive meeting previouſly announced to the public, in commemoration of the French revolution ſeems to have provoked theſe tumults. Without attempting to palliate much leſs excuſe the exceſſes of a frantick mob, it may be obſerved that the purpoſe of the meeting was at leaſt very idle, and when we conſider the ſcenes of wickedneſs that had taken place in France, and the deteſtable principles propagated by the leaders of the French Revolution, it may ſeem to deſerve a harſher appellation.

The tranſactions of the parliament of 1792 were even leſs important than thoſe of the ſeſſions immediately preceding. The ſeſſion was opened on the 31ſt of January by a ſpeech from the throne, in which his Majeſty expreſſed his ſatisfaction in announcing to parliament the marriage which had been celebrated between his ſon, the duke of York, with the daughter of his good brother and ally the king of Pruſſia. He acquainted them that a definitive treaty had been concluded between the emperor and the Ottoman Porte; and

and alſo that preliminaries had been agreed upon by the latter of theſe powers and the empreſs of Ruſſia. He regretted that he was not able to acqnaint them with the iſſue of the Indian war, but expreſſed his hopes that it would ſoon be brought to an honourable concluſion. The friendly aſſurances he had received from foreign powers, and the general ſtate of affairs in Europe, appeared to promiſe to his ſubjects the continuance of tranquillity; in conſequence of this he was induced to hope that ſome reduction might be made in the naval and military eſtabliſhments. Theſe were the principal ſubjects of the ſpeech delivered from the throne.

The addreſs after an amendment propoſed by Mr. Grey, which was rejected, paſſed as uſual. The ſubject which appears to have firſt engaged attention was the Indian war.

After ſeveral motions by oppoſition for the production of papers, had been rejected; it was moved by Col. Phipps on the part of miniſtry that the agreement entered into with the Nizam by lord Cornwallis, in his letter of the 7th of July 1789 is conſonant to the wiſe and politic views eſtabliſhed by the parliament of Great Britain as the rule of conduct to be obſerved in the Britiſh government of India. The motion was carried without a diviſion.

The next buſineſs of importance that occupied the attention of parliament, was the armament againſt Ruſſia. On the 13th of February Mr. Grey made a motion for the production of papers, which was oppoſed by Mr. Pitt, on the ground that ſome of the papers which Mr. Grey thought were omitted never exiſted.

While the Ruſſian armament was in agitation, Mr. Pitt on the 17th of February preſented a copy of the treaty between his Majeſty and the king of Pruſſia on the marriage of his royal highneſs the duke of York with the princeſs Frederica of Pruſſia; the ſubſtance of which is as follows.—1ſt. That the king of Pruſſia gives to the princeſs his daughter 100,000 crowns.—2d. That their royal highneſſes and the king of Great Britain renounce for ever all right of inheritance to the crown of Pruſſia.—3d. That the duke of York make a preſent to her royal highneſs for pin-money the ſum of 4,000l. per annum.—4th. That the king of Great Britain pay a counter portion of 100,000 crowns, and that he engage in caſe of the death of his royal highneſs, to provide for the princeſs, the annual ſum of 8,000l. with a ſuitable reſidence and ſuitable eſtabliſhment.

On the 7th of March the houſe reſolved itſelf into a committee to take into conſideration an eſtabliſhment for their royal highneſſes the duke and ducheſs of York. The ſubject was opened by Mr. Pitt, who after obſerving that the ſatisfaction which the houſe and the public had expreſſed on the marriage of their royal highneſſes, rendered it unneceſſary to trouble them with any obſervation on that topic, propoſed that 18,000l. a year ſhould be allowed them from the conſolidated fund; to which he propoſed to add a further ſum of 7000l. a year out of the Iriſh revenue, and that in the event of her royal highneſs ſurviving the duke, the jointure of 8,000l. a year ſhould be payable out of the conſolidated fund. Mr. Pitt concluded with a motion to that effect. After much deſultory converſation the reſolutions paſſed the houſe by which theſe kingdoms were pledged to an allowance of 37,000 pounds per annum to their royal highneſſes.

The laſt object to which his Majeſty's ſpeech at the opening of the ſeſſion directed the attention of the parliament was the ſtate of the public revenue and expenditure; on the 17th of February, the houſe of commons reſolved itſelf into a committee to take into conſideration this important ſubject.

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Adverting to the paragraph in his majeſty's ſpeech which related to the finances of the country, Mr. Pitt ſtated the actual produce of permanent taxes from 5th of January 1791 to 5th of January 1792 at 14,132,000l. The actual produce of the land and malt-tax at 2,558,000l. The regulation in ſtamp duties intended to be permanent at 40,000l. Theſe three ſums taken together make 16,730,000l. The permanent expence by the eſtimate of the committee was 15,969,000l. To this was to be added an additional charge on the ſinking fund for the duke of Clarence, which amounted to 12,000l; for the eſtabliſhment of Upper Canada, 12,000l. Propoſed eſtabliſhment of the duke of York, 18,000l. Total of permanent expence was 16,011,000l. From which by the reduction of ſeveral articles of expenditure was to be taken 200,000l. Deducting the amount of the above ſavings from the eſtimate of the committee, the future permanent expenditure would be 15,811,000. Thus the future permanent income, eſtimated on an average of four years exceeded the permanent expence, including the million appropriated to the gradual reduction of the debt, by 401,000l. The total of the eſtimate for 1793 amounted to 5,654,000l. The total of ways and means amounted to 5,691,000l, exceeding the ſupply by 37,000l.

The ſlave trade which had been ſo ably diſcuſſed the former ſeſſion, was again brought before the houſe, by Mr. Wilberforce who ſeverely reprobated this abominable traffic. The queſtion was adjourned to Wedneſday the 25th, when Mr. Dundas moved his firſt reſolution, viz. That the importation of negroes ſhould ceaſe 1ſt of January 1800. Lord Mornington moved that "1800" ſhould be altered for 1793, Lord Mornington's amendment was negatived.

On the 18th of April Mr. Sheridan made his long expected motion concerning the grievances complained of by petition from the royal burghs of Scotland. The motion was negatived by a majority of 42. On the 5th of June Mr. Dundas made his ſtatement of the revenues of India, which was controverted by Mr. Francis. A great deal of the debate conſiſted in deſultory converſation concerning the Indian war. But as we are now in poſſeſſion of ſufficient information we haſten to detail the principal events of that war from its commencement to the peace concluded in March 1792.

The actual commencement of hoſtilities may be dated from the engagement between the troops of the Rajah of Travancore with thoſe of Tippoo Sultan, on the 1ſt of May 1790. Immediately after this the grand Carnatic army aſſembled in the ſouthern provinces. The general plan of the campaign was to reduce the Coimbettore and all the adjacent conntry, which lay below the narrow paſſes between the mountains, and to advance by the Gujelhetty paſs to the ſiege of Seringapatam the capital of Myſore. While ſuch were to be the operations of the grand army under General Meadows, the Bombay army under General Abercrombie was to undertake the reduction of the country lying to the weſt of the Ghauts or paſſes between the mountains, and afterwards to co-operate with the main army as circumſtances might direct.

It would be needleſs to detail the hiſtory of the grand army, during this period; which is no more than a journal of its marches in purſuit of an enemy. On the 29th of January the grand army was joined by earl Cornwallis; who after repeated ſucceſſes, arrived on the 5th of March, within ſight of the walls of Seringapatam. The Britiſh commander did not ſuffer his troops to enjoy a long repoſe in this ſtation. At 7 o'clock that evening he commenced an attack upon the enemy's camp and lines. After a de-

ſperate conflict which continued in different quarters, with ſome intermiſſion the two ſucceeding days, the enemy were finally diſlodged from their camp and lines. Thus preſſed on all hands, Tippoo began anxiouſly to wiſh for peace. As a preliminary article he releaſed lieutenants Chalmers and Naſh, whom he had made priſoners at Coimbettore. On being introduced into the Sultan's preſence, theſe officers found him in a ſmall tent on the ſouth glacis of the fort, very plainly dreſſed and with but few attendants. After acquainting them with their releaſe, he aſked Mr. Chalmers, if on going to the camp, he was likely to ſee lord Cornwallis; and on being anſwered in the affirmative, he requeſted that he would take charge of a letter to his lordſhip on the ſubject of peace. He expreſſed a wiſh that Mr. Chalmers would return with the anſwer, and concluded by preſenting him with two ſhawls and 500 rupees.

The Sultan's deſire of peace did not, however, divert him from the proſecution of the war. He had a plan in view for making himſelf maſter of the perſon of lord Cornwallis. For this purpoſe he diſpatched a conſiderable body of cavalry who got round the left wing undiſcovered, and on their aſking ſome of the camp-followers for the commander, they, ſuppoſing they wiſhed to communicate ſome intelligence to colonel Duff, pointed to his tent. The horſemen, then drawing their ſabres galloped to the tent; but being perceived by the ſeapoy drafts and recruits, they were ſoon diſperſed, and the attempt proved abortive. Having been joined on the 16th by general Abercrombie, lord Cornwallis made vigorous preparations for the attack of the fort on the quarter he deemed moſt aſſailable; on the night of the 19th a parallel and redoubt were completed within a ſmall diſtance of the walls of the fort. The Sultan made every poſſible exertion to deliver himſelf from this difficult ſituation; but his vigilant enemies by their bravery and prudence baffled every exertion; every enterpriſe that was undertaken by the Britiſh ſucceeded; they were well ſupplied with every neceſſary, while the army of the Sultan was reduced to the greateſt diſtreſs.

In this hopeleſs ſituation the Sultan was compelled to accept of whatever terms were offered by the Britiſh commander. The ſubſtance of the treaty was. 1ſt. That Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d. That he was to pay three crores and thirty lacks of rupees. 3d. That all priſoners were to be reſtored. 4th. That two of the Sultan's three eldeſt ſons were to become hoſtages for the due performance of the treaty.

On the 26th the two princes, each mounted on an elephant, richly capariſoned, proceeded from the fort to lord Cornwallis's camp. The kindneſs with which they were received by the Britiſh commander appeared to afford them viſible ſatisfaction. The ſcene is deſcribed as highly intereſting.

It was the 19th of March before the definitive treaty was finally adjuſted. Tippoo however gave his reluctant conſent, as it is ſaid, to a treaty which deſpoiled him of half his dominions. Thus was concluded by the prudence and activity of lord Cornwallis, a war, judged raſh and impolitic by ſeveral of thoſe, who by their abilities, and the attention they had given to Indian affairs, muſt be allowed to be competent judges of that important queſtion.

We now come to treat of a moſt eventful period in the Britiſh hiſtory; a period in which our invaluable conſtitution was threatened with dangers the moſt alarming and unprecedented. It was not difficult to foreſee that the French revolution muſt produce conſequences of the utmoſt importance to Europe in general; particularly to England, both on account of its vicinity and the connection which ſubſiſted betwixt the two countries.

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We have already taken notice of a difference betwixt two of the moſt diſtinguiſhed members of oppoſition concerning the French revolution. This difference as it was fundamental produced afterwards a final ſeparation in politics between Mr. Burke and Mr. Fox. Mr. Fox extolled the French conſtitution as a "ſtupendous monument of human wiſdom;" Mr. Burke reprobated it as a "cruel, bloody, and ferocious democracy." As to the ſentiments of miniſtry with reſpect to the French revolution, they ſeemed to concide with thoſe of Mr. Burke. In 1790 the celebrated reflections on the French revolution were publiſhed; in this work with equal truth and eloquence the illuſtrious author ſhewed its true ſpirit, and the direct tendency of thoſe principles which were profeſſed by its authors. It would be difficult to give any idea of the ferment and commotion that was occaſioned by the French revolution at that time in Great Britain. The proſelytes to French principles ſpoke and acted as if a ſudden blaze of light had illuminated the darkened world; as if mankind had awakened from a dream, and juſt opened their eyes hitherto obſcured by prejudice and ſuperſtition. Congratulatory addreſſes were ſent from different ſocieties to the national convention, extolling their new conſtitution with the higheſt praiſes; the preſs teemed with publications of the moſt ſeditious tendency: the wholeſome principles of our anceſtors were derided as the prejudices of narrow minds; and nothing was heard but the vain ſounds of liberty, equality, and the rights of man. A book was at this time publiſhed by one Paine, fooliſhly called an anſwer to Mr. Burke, which contributed very much to poiſon the minds of the ignorant and profligate, and to ſpread the infection of French principles among the lower claſſes of the people. The book contained a great deal of extravagant ideas expreſſed in coarſe and inelegant language well ſuited to enſnare thoſe to whom it was addreſſed. The author had evidently meddled with a ſubject of which he was ignorant, and in which he ſhewed the narrowneſs of his underſtanding, and the wickedneſs of his heart. The aſtoniſhing rapidity however with which the book circulated, together with the ſucceſſes of the French in the Netherlands, inſpired the favourers of French anarchy with unuſual boldneſs, and under the ſpecious pretext of reform, they entered into deſigns for the ſubverſion of the Britiſh government.

The firſt meaſure that was adopted in this difficult criſis was the Alien-bill. In conſequence of the diſorders which at that time prevailed in France, and the tyrannical government which was eſtabliſhed in that country, great numbers of the French nobility and clergy had been obliged to emigrate, and to ſeek for ſafety in poverty and in exile. Together with them, another deſcription of men had emigrated from France, ſome for the worſt of purpoſes. It was to thwart the deſigns of theſe men, that a bill, eſtabliſhing regulations reſpecting aliens arriving in this kingdom, was preſented to the houſe of peers. It paſſed the houſe of lords without any thing remarkable; but met with more violent oppoſition in the houſe of commons. The principal oppoſers of the bill were, Mr. Fox, Mr. Sheridan, and Mr Grey.

Mr. Burke eminently diſtinguiſhed himſelf in favour of the bill; that great man, concluded a moſt eloquent oration, with this ſolemn and ever memorable warning. "I now warn my country, to beware of thoſe exe-
"crable philoſophers, whoſe only object is to deſtroy every thing that is good
"here, and to eſtabliſh murder by precept and example.

" Hic niger eſt, hunc tu, Romane, caveto."

The Alien Bill, was followed by another bill brought in by the Attorney-general, to prevent the circulation of aſſignats, bonds, promiſſory notes, &c. iſſued under the authority of France; another bill was paſſed about the ſame period, for reſtraining the exportation of naval ſtores, ammunition, &c. and an order of council was iſſued, for preventing the exportation of corn to France. Theſe were ſtrong meaſures; but rendered abſolutely neceſſary, by the threatening aſpect of the times.

While theſe affairs were tranſacting in parliament, lord Loughborough was honoured with the great ſeal of England, and was called to ſucceed lord Thurlow on the woolſack.

The French having now filled up the meaſure of their crimes, by imbruing their hands in the blood of their ſovereign, having by repeated decrees held out encouragement and protection to traitors in every country, and endeavoured to kindle the flames of rebellion in the world, the ſituation of Great Britain was rendered to the laſt degree critical and alarming.

Having by their laſt outrage, the opening of the Scheldt, manifeſted their contempt of all the exiſting treaties of Europe, Great Britain determined to remain no longer an unconcerned ſpectator of what was tranſacting on the continent of Europe. On the 28th of January 1793, a meſſage was delivered to the houſe of commons, informing them that his majeſty thinks it indiſpenſibly neceſſary, to make a further augmentation of his forces by ſea, for oppoſing views of aggrandiſement and ambition on the part of France, which would be at all times dangerous to the general intereſts of Europe, but were peculiarly ſo, when connected with the propagation of principles which lead to the violation of the moſt ſacred duties, and are utterly ſubverſive of the peace and order of all civil ſociety. The queſtion in favour of the addreſs was carried both in the houſe of lords and commons without a diviſion. The French however, anticipated our intentions, whatever they might have been, by a decree of the convention formally declaring war againſt his Britannic majeſty, and the Stadtholder.

War being thus declared on the part of France, it became neceſſary to provide for the expences, which would neceſſarily be incurred in a ſtate of war. Mr. Pitt therefore took the earlieſt opportunity of ſtating to the houſe the total amount of the ſupplies and of the ways and means. The total of the ſupply amounted to 8,734,043l. To defray this expence, Mr. Pitt ſtated the total of ways at 8,299,696l. He further obſerved, that after every other reſource, there would be wanting a loan of 2,900,000l. To pay the intereſt of this loan, he meant to devote the temporary taxes impoſed upon occaſion of the Spaniſh armament, which amounted to 287,000l. Such was the ſtatement Mr. Pitt ſubmitted to the committee of the houſe of commons. After an eloquent defence of the principles of the war he concluded with moving the ſeveral reſolutions which were agreed to.

About this period from different cauſes a general paralyſis appeared to ſeize the country, and the number of bankruptcies exceeded all that had ever happened in the moſt calamitous times; ſuch was the general diſtreſs, that each man looked upon his neighbour with ſuſpicion. Thoſe who were poſſeſſed of property, appeared at a loſs where to depoſit it, and thoſe who experienced pecuniary diſtreſs, appeared at a loſs where to look for relief. To apply a remedy to this alarming evil, Mr. Pitt moved that 5,000,000l. ſhould be iſſued by exchequer bills, under certain reſtrictions; for the aſſiſtance of ſuch perſons, who can give proper ſecurity to the commiſſioners, for the ſums that

that may be advanced. The bill paſſed the houſe of lords and commons without a diviſion.

In the mean time events on the continent became every day more critical and alarming. Inſtead of delivering France from the tyranny by which ſhe was oppreſſed, the combined armies had been obliged to retreat with loſs, and the arms of France were unfortunately victorious in every quarter. General Monteſquieu had over-run Savoy and Nice, and the whole of the Auſtrian Netherlands were ſubjected by Dumourier to her dominion before the concluſion of the year. The next campaign was begun with the ſame ſucceſſes. General Dumourier aſſembled his army in the vicinity of Antwerp. Previous to his unprovoked aggreſſion of Holland, he publiſhed a manifeſto inviting the Dutch to rebel againſt their lawful government. Breda ſurrendered after a very feeble reſiſtance. General Dumourier diſpatched general Berneron to the attack of Williamſtadt, and general d'Arcon to Gertruydenberg. On the 4th of March Gertruydenberg ſurrrendered, and at this place Dumourier's ſucceſſes ended. On the 1ſt of March, general Clairfait, having paſſed the Roer, attacked the French poſts, and compelled them to retreat with the loſs of 2000 men. The following day the archduke attacked them anew with conſiderable ſucceſs. On the 3d the French were driven from Aix la Chapelle, with the loſs of 4000 men killed and 1600 taken priſoners. But the battle of Neerwinden was moſt fatal to the enemy. Beſides their loſs of men in the field, 6000 immediately deſerted, and proceeded to Bruſſels and France. Dumourier continuing to retreat, at laſt came to an agreement with the Imperialiſts that he ſhould not be ſeriouſly interrupted. It was fully agreed between him and the Auſtrians, that while the latter took poſſeſſion of Condé and Valenciennes, he ſhould march to Paris, diſſolve the convention, and deliver France from her tyrannical oppreſſors. Several circumſtances, however, contributed to render the conduct of Dumourier ſuſpected by the National Convention. Commiſſioners were therefore ſent in order to diſcover his deſigns; the conſequence of which was that he was obliged to make his eſcape with all poſſible expedition.

By the defection of Dumourier, the whole army of the north, was left expoſed to the attacks of a numerous and victorious enemy. The command of this army was proviſionally given to general Dampierre by the commiſſioners.

The war had hitherto been carried on with various ſucceſs, when an action of a very ſerious nature took place on the 8th of May. General Dampierre on that day advanced to diſlodge the allied forces who were poſted in the wood of Rheime and Vicoigne. In this action the French general received a wound of which he died next day, leaving the command in the hands of general La Marche. The Engliſh diſtinguiſhed themſelves in this action, and ſuffered greatly. The loſs of the enemy was eſtimated at 4000 men. Little of importance occurred till the 23. On that day the Britiſh and Hanoverians aſſembled, together, with the Auſtrians and German auxiliaries, with a deſign to diſlodge the French from their fortified camp on the heights of Famars.

They experienced a tremendous fire from the enemy, whom they defeated, notwithſtanding, in the field; the duke of York advanced within a ſmall diſtance of the works, but on account of the ſtrong poſition of the French, thought proper to defer the attack till next day. The French, however, apprehenſive of the conſequences, abandoned their camp, and retreated. This ſucceſs enabled the allies to lay ſiege to Valenciennes, which ſurrendered on the 26th of July. During the whole of the ſiege General Cuſtine was not able to make any attempt of moment for the relief of the place. The king of Pruſſia had been employed from the beginning of April in preparations for the ſiege of Mentz. The garriſon made ſeveral ſorties with various ſucceſs.

On the 18th the French army of the Rhine made a grand attempt for the relief of Mentz. They attempted to force their way not far from Landau, and made an attack in three places at once. They were, however, repulsed in every part by General Wurmser. This last effort proving unsuccessful, the garrison capitulated on the 22d, on condition that they should not serve for the space of one year against the allies.

With these atchievements terminated the success of the allies. After the reduction of Valenciennes a grand council of war was held in which, it was resolved, contrary, it is said, to the opinion of the Austrian commanders, that the British, Hanoverians, and Dutch, should separate from the main army, and attack West Flanders. In consequence of this determination, the British, Hanoverians and the Dutch, with some Austrians and Hessians commenced their march to Dunkirk. On the 24 of August the duke of York attacked and drove in the French outposts, after an action in which the Austrian general Dalton was killed. General Freytag, who commanded the covering army of the allies was soon after attacked and totally routed. The British lost their heavy cannon and baggage, with 2000 men. The consequence of this disaster was, that the siege was soon after raised. Several engagements took place at this time between Prince Cobourg and the French general Jourdan. The attacks were repeated and terrible on both sides and the enemy were but too successful in driving back the allied forces. They now threatned the whole of maritime Flanders. A detachment of British troops ready to sail to the West Indies, were hastily sent to Ostend and prevented for the present the farther progress of the French.

But while the enemy were successful in their military operations on the the frontiers, internal discord began to make its appearance in the interior of France. The people exasperated at the cruelty of the tyrants who governed them, and impatient to deliver themselves from the bloody democracy by which they were oppressed, had taken up arms in several departments. Marseilles, Lyons, and Toulon rose up against their oppressors. Lyons was attacked on the 8th of August, and after repeated assaults surrendered to general Doppet. Then followed a scene of cruelty, the like of which, "no eye had seen, no heart can conceive, no tongue can adequately tell." Unmoved by the "tears of affliction, the yells of murder, or the cries of despair," those merciless barbarians wrecked their vengeance on the helpless inhabitants; no refinement of barbarity which could embitter their misery, was forgotten; neither the natural weakness of the female sex, nor the tenderness of infancy could soften their cruel hearts; they proceeded in their work of slaughter and destruction till they had laid desolate one of the noblest and most ancient cities of France. The Marseillois shortly after submitted, but the leading people of Toulon entered into a negociation with the British admiral lord Hood and surrendered to him, on condition that he should preserve to them as a deposit the town and shipping for Louis XVII. The siege of Toulon was commenced by general Cartaux in the beginning of September. After several sallies the place was judged not tenable and in the course of the day they embarked their troops after having set fire to the arsenal. Crouds of people of every rank, age, and sex, hurried on board the ships to avoid the vengeance of their countrymen. Thirty-one ships of the line were found by the British at Toulon, thirteen were left; ten were burnt; four had been previously sent to Brest and Rochfort with 5000 republicans, who could not be trusted; and Great Britain finally obtained by the expedition three ships of the line and five frigates.

On the side of the Rhine a great variety of events occurred during the months

months of Auguſt and September 1793. General Wurmſer ſtormed the lines of Weiſſembourg, and penetrated to Hagenau, from whence he was driven back by the French, and after ſeveral dreadful conflicts he was finally obliged to retreat acroſs the Rhine. The blockade of Landau was raiſed; Fort Louis was evacuated, and Kaiſerſlatern Germerſheim and Spires ſubmitted to the French. The decree that had paſſed the convention for placing France in a ſtate of requiſition had already given the enemy a ſuperiority in point of numbers which neither bravery not ſuperior diſcipline could withſtand. In this manner ended the caimpaign of 1793.

Thus far we have attended to the military transactions of Great Britain and her allies on the continent. We muſt now look back to her internal affairs, which are by no means leſs important. No event occurs of great importance till the meeting of parliament, which took place on the 21ſt of January 1794. His majeſty, opened the ſeſſion with the uſual formalities. The addreſs was voted by a majority of 118. Our narrow limits render it impoſſible for us to take notice of the important queſtions that were agitated in parliament this ſeſſion. No leſs than three motions were made by different members of oppoſition for altering the criminal law of Scotland; the landing of Heſſian troops, the conduct of the war, were all reprobated by oppoſition. The treaty concluded by the king of Sardinia likewiſe underwent a ſevere inveſtigation. The reſolution, however allowing his majeſty to make good the treaty paſſed without a diviſion. The chancellor of the exechequer then moved two reſolutions to allow his majeſty 4,500,000l. for the preſent year by a loan on exchequer bills, which were put and carried.

On the 5th of February, the miniſter proceeded to open the budget, and ſtated the whole amount to be provided for, at 19,939,000l. The ways and means he ſtated 19,947,000l. After ſtating ſeveral other expences, and repealing the tax on births and burials the ſun of 908,000l. remained to be provided for. The ſurplus of the taxes in 1791 produced 385,000l and the new arrangment adopted with reſpect to the duty on ſpirits in Scotland amounted to 43,000l,. which taken collectively amounted to 428,000l. To theſe Mr. Pitt propoſed an additional tax on Britiſh ſpirits, of one penny per gallon, ten penee per gallon on brandy, nine-pence on rum; 1s. 6d. per thouſand additional on bricks and tile; ſlate carried coaſt-ways 10s. per ton; ſtone 2s. 6d. an additional tax on crown and plate glaſs, paper, and attornies, all which amounted to 911,000l. Mr Pitt concluded by moving his firſt reſolution; after ſome remarks from Mr. Fox, the reſolutions were all paſſed.

On the 1ſt of February, the chancellor of the exchequer, read to the houſe the decree of an extraordinary commiſſion inſtituted in France, in conſequence of a reſolution of the joint committees of finance, of public and general ſafety, and ſubſiſtence, directing the uſe of every poſſible expedient to aſcertain the property of French ſubjects, in foreign funds; in order that it might be delivered up to the ſtate, and become public property; and that when the transfer was made, it ſhould be paid for in aſſignats eſtimated at par. The motion on this occaſion was brought forward by the ſolicitor-general, and was in ſubſtance for leave to bring in a bill, "to prevent "the application of debts in the hands of any of the ſubjects of his majeſty, "to or for the diſpoſal of perſons reſident in France, under the power of "perſons who exerciſe the preſent government of France." The bill paſſed without any oppoſition.

The ſucceſs which attended the French revolution aſſiſted greatly the propagation of the principles profeſſed by the Jacobins. And notwithſtanding

ſtanding the excellence of the Britiſh conſtitution, there were found, men profligate enough to conſpire its deſtruction. A plan had been digeſted and acted upon, the object of which was to aſſemble a convention of the people for the purpoſe of aſſuming the character of a general repreſentation of the nation, ſuperſeding the repreſentative capacity of the houſe of commons, and arrogating the legiſlative power of the country at large. In conſequence of the information they had received on this ſubject, the miniſtry iſſued warrants for apprehending, Mr. Horne Tooke, Mr. Hardy, and Mr. Thelwall, and ſeveral other perſons on a charge of high treaſon. On the ſame day (May 12) Mr. Dundas brought down a meſſage from the king recommending to the houſe to conſider the books and papers, of the London Coreſponding Society which his majeſty had given orders to ſeize, and to purſue ſuch meaſures as were neceſſary to prevent their pernicious tendency.

The papers were referred to a committee of ſecrecy, who brought up their report on the 16th of May, when Mr Pitt after an eloquent ſpeech moved for a bill "empowering his majeſty to ſecure and detain all perſons ſuſpected of deſigns againſt his crown and government. The bill met with a ſtrong oppoſition; it paſſed however by a great majority. Little elſe of very great importance occurred, during the preſent ſeſſion. There happened ſome differences with America, concerning which ſeveral motions were made. They were afterwards, however happily adjuſted. On the 11th of July his majeſty terminated the ſeſſion by a ſpeech to both houſes of parliament. Immediately on the riſing of parliament ſeveral changes took place in adminiſtration. The Duke of Portland was made one of his Majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, and Mr. Windham ſecretary at war. Shortly after Earl Fitzwilliam was appointed viceroy of Ireland.

We have already taken notice of the apprehenſion of ſeveral perſons on a charge of high treaſon. Their trials ſhortly after commenced; Mr. Erſkine and Mr. Gibbs appeared, as advocates for the priſoners who were all acquitted. Without preſuming to decide upon the actual guilt of the priſoners who were tried, we may ſafely ſay that evidence appeared to convince the greater part of men that a dangerous conſpiracy had been actually formed for the ſubverſion of the Britiſh government.

The campaign of 1793 had terminated very unfavourably for the allies. By various negotiations the campaign of 1794 was delayed till a late period. On the 5th of March the duke of York arrived on the continent to take the command of the Britiſh army, and on the 17th he proceeded with general Clairfait to Valenciennes where a council of war was held with the prince of Saxe Cobourg. Towards the latter end of March the French made their appearance in Weſt Flanders, and on the 29th. of that month, they attacked the Auſtrian outpoſts at Cateau, Beauvais, and Soleſmes, in the vicinity of Landrecy. They were however obliged to retreat with the loſs of 900 men.

On the 9th of April the emperor arrived at Bruſſels, from whence he proceeded to Valenciennes, where his preſence diffuſed univerſal joy through the allied army. The emperor having reviewed the combined forces on the heights above Cateau, proceeded in eight columns to inveſt Landrecy, a ſmall but well fortified town. The objects of theſe columns were the redoubts and village of Vaux and the ſtrong entrenchments of the French in the wood called Bois de Bouchain. The fire of the republicans was at firſt ſevere, but finding their poſition no longer tenable againſt the ſuperior force of the Britiſh; they retreated as ſoon as the latter approached to a cloſe engagement

gagement. The ſiege of Landrecy was ſhortly after commenced, and this important fortreſs ſurrendered in about ten days. In conſequence of theſe ſucceſſes, a grand attack was reſolved upon, which was to oblige the enemy to evacuate the whole of Flanders. By ſome unaccountable treachery on the part of the allies, the enemy were acquainted with the whole plan. The iſſue was ſuch as might be expected; the allies were obliged to retreat in the moſt diſorderly manner, and were purſued with great loſs by the enemy. They collected as ſoon as the deſperate ſtate of their affairs would admit, and reſumed their former poſition. The enemy encouraged by this victory, determined to give the allies no reſpite, and next day attacked them with a force of 100,000 men. They at firſt ſucceeded in driving in the out-poſts, but a reinforcement arriving under the command of major-general Fox, the ſkill and intrepidity of that officer enabled the allies to maintain their poſition, who in their turn made a general attack upon the French poſts, in which they were defeated with immenſe loſs, and obliged to retreat thirty miles.

Inſtead of joining with one heart and one ſoul in oppoſing an enterpriſing enemy, mutual jealouſies, diſunion, and even treachery, ſeem to have crippled the operations of the combined armies, and to have rendered ineffectual the ſkill and abilities of the moſt gallant generals in the world. Mournful is the taſk, to thoſe who love their country, to be the unwilling recorders of her calamities and misfortunes; ungrateful the employment, to the laſt degree, and grievous to be obliged to relate the victories of her inveterate foes. This, however, is the taſk of the hiſtorian, to whoſe lot it falls to relate the events of the following campaign, which, is little elſe than "a long unbroken, funereal train of misfortunes."

It may be the opinion of ſome, that the ſucceſs of the republic on the continent of Europe was in ſome degree counterbalanced by the diſmemberment of their foreign poſſeſſions; the whole of their Weſt India iſlands being ſubjected by the navy of Great Britain. But when we conſider how many of our gallant troops were loſt in thoſe unhealthy climates, not cut off by the fury of war, but by the afflicting hand of heaven, we cannot but think that it was in an evil hour the miniſtry planned the ſubjection of the Weſt India iſlands; where ſo many brave men have been ſacrificed for what was infinitely below their value.

Amidſt all our misfortunes on the continent, we had ſtill the conſoling reflection of triumphing completely over the enemy at ſea. In the month of May, the French were induced to depart from the ſyſtem of naval hoſtilities which they had hitherto purſued, and anxious for the fate of a large convoy expected from America, the Breſt fleet to the amount of 26 ſail ventured out to ſea. On the 1ſt of June, the Britiſh commander, having, obtained the weather-gage of the enemy, determined to improve the opportunity for bringing them to a cloſe action. A deſperate engagement accordingly commenced, which the enemy's fleet ſupported with amazing obſtinacy and courage. But nothing could withſtand the ſkill, diſcipline, and valour of the Britiſh fleet. In leſs than an hour after cloſe action commenced, the French admiral, who had been engaged by the Queen Charlotte, crowded off and was followed by moſt of the ſhips in his van in condition to carry ſail, leaving ten or twelve of his crippled or diſmaſted ſhips behind. Such, however, was the diſabled ſtate of the Britiſh fleet, that ſeveral of theſe eſcaped. Six ſhips of the line remained in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh admiral, and were brought ſafe into Plymouth, and one was ſunk.

In the courſe of the preceding year, a treaty of marriage had been negociated between his royal highneſs, the prince of Wales, and the princeſs Caroline of Brunſwick, daughter to the duke of Brunſwick. On the 27th of April, a meſſage from his majeſty was delivered to both houſes of parliament, relative to the debts of the prince of Wales; it ſtated the reliance of his majeſty on their generoſity for enabling him to ſettle an eſtabliſhment upon the prince, and his auguſt bride, ſuited to their rank and dignity; that the benefit of any ſettlement now to be made, could not be effectually ſecured to the prince till he was relieved from his preſent incumbrances to a large amount; but that his majeſty did not propoſe to his parliament any other means of providing for this object, than the application of a part of the income which may be ſettled on the prince, and the appropriation for a certain time of the revenue of the duchy of Cornwall, &c. After a conſiderable difference of opinion upon this ſubject the annual ſum of 125,000l. was finally voted by the commons as a ſuitable eſtabliſhment for the heir apparent to the throne. Of this 65,000l. with the income of the duchy of Cornwall was ſet apart for the liquidation of his debts.

We are now to reſume our unfiniſhed narration of laſt campaign. In addition to their other calamities, the Britiſh army was afflicted with diſeaſe to ſuch a degree that great part of it was rendered wholly incapable of any exertion. On the 10th of January, the French having croſſed the Waal in immenſe force, to the amount of 70,000 men, made a general attack upon Walmoden's poſition, between Nimeguen and Arnheim, and were ſucceſsful in every quarter. All thoughts of reſiſtance were now given up by the allies. They continued retreating before the enemy, and were obliged in this ſevere ſeaſon to paſs the night under the canopy of the inclement ſky. By their retreat they left the moſt important places in the United Provinces open to the conquerors. Utrecht, Rotterdam, and Dort ſucceſſively ſurrendered to the enemy, and on the 20th Pichegru entered Amſterdam, at the head of 5000 men. Leyden, Haerlem, Breda, Williamſtadt, and Bergen-op-Zoom ſhortly after capitulated, and were followed by the whole province of Zealand.

While theſe events were taking place in the Low Countries, the campaign ſeemed rather to languiſh on the Rhine, and was at laſt concluded by common conſent of the hoſtile generals, who agreed to a ſuſpenſion of arms for three months which was ratified by the reſpective powers.

As his majeſty was proceeding this ſeſſion at the uſual hour to open the parliament, the moſt daring inſults were offered him as he paſſed along, by the crowd in St. James's park which was much greater than uſual; in the ſtreets adjoining Weſtminſter-hall, ſtones and other things were thrown, ſeveral of which ſtruck the ſtate-coach. As his majeſty returned from the houſe, the outrages were renewed, and after he alighted, the ſtate-coach was attacked and almoſt totally deſtroyed.

Immediately after the ſpeech from the throne an addreſs to his majeſty relative to the outrages committed againſt his perſon was propoſed and agreed to. On the 4th of November copies of his majeſty's proclamations relative to the outrages committed againſt his perſon were ſubmitted to the houſe and ordered to lie upon the table. Lord Grenville on the 6th in purſuance of the notice he had given on a former day, preſented a bill, "for the ſafety and preſervation of his majeſty's government againſt treaſonable and ſeditious practices and attempts." On the ſame day, the chancellor of the exchequer after an eloquent ſpeech moved that "Leave be given to bring in a bill for the more

more effectually preventing ſeditious meetings and aſſemblies." Theſe bills after a violent oppoſition paſſed both houſes of parliament.

On the continent the French proceeded with their uſual ſucceſs, till being weakened by the vaſt track of country they had overrun, they became leſs able to reſiſt the attacks of the Auſtrians, who had received conſiderable reinforcements. They were compelled to retire with precipitation before the Auſtrian forces, who hung cloſely on their rear and allowed them no reſpite. The peaſantry encouraged by their diſtreſſed ſituation took the opportunity of revenging the oppreſſions they had ſuffered from them. Prince Charles in conſequence of his ſucceſſes commenced the ſiege of Kehl, which after a deſperate reſiſtance was obliged to capitulate.

Diſmayed by the ſucceſſes of the French, ſeveral ſtates had ſent ambaſſadors to Paris to open a negociation for peace. A treaty was concluded with Spain and ſeveral of the German princes. But of all theſe the negociation opened by the Engliſh government engaged moſt deeply the attention of Europe. The neceſſary paſſports which had been demanded for an envoy from the Engliſh court were ſent and the miniſter plenipotentiary arrived in Paris. The commencement of this negociation clearly foreboded what would be the event. The groſſeſt calumnies, concerning the inſincerity and even perfidy of the Engliſh court were circulated under the apparent ſanction of the Directory. After a good deal of diſcuſſion concerning the principle of reſtitution, the two governments at laſt agreed on that point, and lord Malmeſbury delivered two memorials on the principal objects of reſtitution, compenſation, and reciprocal arrangements. The directory having read the memorials ſent an extract from the regiſters of their deliberations requiring his ſignature to the memorials, and alſo the ultimatum of his demands in 24 hours. Lord Malmeſbury complied with the forms required by the directory, but obſerved that the peremptory demand which they made of an ultimatum, ſhut the door at once to all negotiation; and repreſented that if the conditions ſubmitted to their conſideration were not approved, or were not to be the ſubject of diſcuſſion, if they would propoſe their own conditions, he would ſubmit them to the conſideration of his court.

At this point the negotiation ended, for on reading the memorials received on the 17th of December the directory ordered the miniſter to write to lord Malmeſbury on the 18th, that they could hear of no propoſitions contrary to the conſtitution, and the laws and treaties by which the republic was engaged; and likewiſe enjoining him to leave Paris in 24 hours. Such was the event of this negociation; on the part of the French, commenced with reluctance, conducted with inſincerity, and concluded with inſult.

Among other projects of hoſtility which the French government had meditated againſt Britain the invaſion of Ireland at this period engaged their attention; and though it proved abortive, yet it excited a conſiderable degree of alarm. The ſquadron under vice admiral Bouret ſailed from Breſt the 10th of December, and anchored in Bantry-bay, on the coaſt of Ireland; here they remained for ſome days, waiting the arrival of the frigate which conveyed the commander in chief, who had been ſeparated from the fleet in a ſtrong gale of wind, the day after its departure from Breſt; but finding it impoſſible to remain any longer in that ſituation, on account of the tempeſtuous weather, they ſet ſail for Breſt, and were followed at different periods by the reſt of the fleet, except two ſhips of the line and three frigates, which were either taken or ſunk.

In one part of his ſpeech, his Majeſty had taken notice of the invaſion which the enemy had projected againſt England, which although it

excited no ſerious apprehenſions, was not to be completely deſpiſed. Mr. Pitt brought forward the buſineſs in the houſe of commons and pointed out the means by which he propoſed to raiſe 15,000 men, to be divided between the land and ſea ſervice, to raiſe a ſupplemental levy of 60,000 for the militia, and 200,000 cavalry, which with a few alterations and amendments were agreed to.

The total of the ſupplies for the year amounted to 27,647,000. In explaining the different articles of expenditure Mr. Pitt alluded to an expence of a particular nature which had been incurred during the interval of parliament. As it would have been a matter of extreme delicacy to have brought forward a public diſcuſſion on the propriety of advancing a ſum to a foreign court in the critical ſituation of the country, the miniſters had granted to the emperor without a public diſcuſſion the ſum of 1,200,000l. This meaſure came ſhortly after to be diſcuſſed, and the oppoſition took this opportunity of reprobating it with the utmoſt acrimony; the miniſtry were loaded with every expreſſion of abuſe and obloquy which the Engliſh language could produce; a vote of cenſure on their conduct was moved and ſupported by the moſt violent declamations on the part of oppoſition, but was negatived by a great majority.

Meanwhile amidſt this ſcene of faction, of mutual aſperity and reproach, a moſt alarming mutiny broke out in the navy, formerly the pride and glory of the Britiſh nation. The profeſſed object of theſe diſturbances was the redreſs of certain grievances reſpecting the quantum and diſtribution of their pay. Several letters were addreſſed on this ſubject to Earl Howe, which, as they were anonymous could not be attended to. This imagined neglect produced a general correſpondence by letter through the whole fleet, and on the 14th. of April, when the ſignal was made to prepare for ſea, a general diſobedience was obvious, and inſtead of weighing anchor, the ſeamen of the admiral's ſhip gave three cheers, and theſe cheers were anſwered in the ſame manner from the other ſhips. Delegates were then appointed for each ſhip to repreſent the whole fleet, and the cabin of the admiral's ſhip was fixed upon as the place of their deliberation. In ſhort the whole of their conduct was totally different from the honeſt, unreflecting character of Britiſh ſeamen; the unanimity with which they acted manifeſted a complete combination, and evidently ſhewed that they acted upon a deliberate and premeditated plan of mutiny. Petitions were drawn up and preſented to the admirals then upon the ſpot, ſtating their demand of an increaſe of wages, and alſo ſome regulations for their benefit with reſpect to the ratio of proviſions. On the 18th. a committee of the admiralty arrived at Portſmouth, who made ſeveral propoſitions to reduce the men to obedience; the lords of the admiralty next conferred with the delegates who aſſured their lordſhips that no arrangement would be conſidered as final until it ſhould be ſanctioned by king and parliament and guaranteed by a proclamation for a general pardon.

Matters remained in this ſituation till the 23d. when Earl Howe returned to his ſhip, hoiſted his flag, and after a ſhort addreſs to the crew he informed them that he had brought with him a redreſs of all their grievances, and his majeſty's pardon for the offenders; after ſome deliberation theſe offers were accepted, and every man returned with chearfulneſs to his duty. It was now generally believed that all diſputes were ſettled; but either by ſome miſunderſtanding, or by deſign, the ſailors were betrayed into a belief that the government deluded them with vain hopes, and never intended to accede to their requeſts. This rekindled the flame of mutiny, and on the 7th of

May

May when lord Bridport made the ſignal to weigh anchor every ſhip at St. Helens refuſed to obey. A meeting of the delegates was ordered on board the London. Vice-admiral Colpoys oppoſed their coming on board and gave orders to the marines to level their pieces at them; a ſlight ſkirmiſh enſued in which 5 of the ſeamen were killed. The whole crew of the London now turned their guns towards the ſtern and threatened to blow all aft into the water unleſs the commanders ſurrendered; to this imperious menace they reluctantly ſubmitted, and admiral Colpoys and captain Griffiths were confined for ſeveral hours in ſeparate cabins.

In this mutinous ſtate did they continue till the 14th. of May, when lord Howe at length arrived from the admiralty with plenary powers to enquire into and ſettle the matters in diſpute; he was alſo the welcome bearer of an act of parliament, which had been paſſed on the 9th granting an additional allowance and alſo with his majeſty's proclamation of pardon for all who ſhould immediately return to their duty. Affairs being thus adjuſted, the ſailors appeared perfectly ſatisfied; the officers were generally reinſtated in their commands, the flag of diſaffection was ſtruck, and the fleet prepared to put to ſea to encounter the enemy.

Thus was Britain, awed by this dreadful and alarming mutiny, forced to accede to every requeſt demanded by its authors, and to grant his majeſty's pardon to thoſe who had violated all diſcipline and ſubordination, and who had inſulted and even confined officers of the higheſt rank, whom by their duty they were bound to treat with the greateſt deference and reſpect. We ſhall make no farther obſervation upon this ſubject; the mutiny which followed ſoon after in another quarter is a ſufficient comment; a mutiny which ſpread terror and alarm through the whole country, and which for boldneſs and extent was without a parallel in the hiſtory of Great Britain; by ſome, indeed, it has been conſidered rather as a fortunate circumſtance, that by the unreaſonable demands of the ſailors, which were incompatible with all diſcipline and ſubordination, their country was roufed to a juſt ſenſe of her wrongs, and at laſt raiſed her indignant arm againſt thoſe who relinquiſhing their own natural character of her gallant defenders, were the moſt forward to overwhelm her with ruin.

This alarming mutiny broke out at the Nore. The mutineers in imitation of what had been done at Portſmouth choſe delegates from every ſhip, of whom a man of the name of Richard Parker was appointed preſident. After having either confined or ſent aſhore their principal officers, they tranſmitted to the lords of the admiralty a ſeries of articles or conditions, to which they peremptorily demanded compliance, as the only terms on which they would return to obedience. On the 23d. of May they ſtruck the flag of admiral Buckner, and hoiſted the red flag, the ſymbol of mutiny in its ſtead. At the commencement of the mutiny, the delegates and committee-men went on ſhore every day to Sheerneſs, where they paraded the ſtreets and ramparts of the garriſon. Theſe proceſſions were accompanied with muſic and flags, and had a triumphant appearance calculated to make new converts to their unlawful proceedings.

The mutiny having now riſen to a moſt alarming height a deputation of the lords of the admiralty, at the head of whom was earl Spencer, proceeded to Sheerneſs; but finding the ſailors rather riſing in inſolence and diſobedience, than inclining to ſubmiſſion, they departed, after having ſignified to the ſeamen, that they were to expect no conceſſions whatever, further than what had been already made by the legiſlature, the benefit of which they might yet enjoy on returning to their duty.

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The ſeamen now perceived their deſperate ſituation and with a view of extorting a compliance with their demands they proceeded to block up the Thames, by refuſing a free paſſage up and down the river to the London trade. The ſhips of neutral nations, however, colliers, and a few ſmall craft were ſuffered to paſs having firſt received a paſſport, ſigned Richard Parker, as preſident of the delegates.

All hopes of an accommodation being now given up, every neceſſary meaſure was taken to compel the ſeamen to return to their duty. An act of parliament was ſpeedily paſſed for preventing all intercourſe with the ſhips in a ſtate of mutiny; all the buoys were removed from the river Thames, and the neighbouring coaſt by order of government, great preparations were alſo made at Sheerneſs againſt an attack from the mutinous ſhips, which had manifeſted ſome ſtrong diſpoſitions to bombard that place, and after the rejection of the laſt attempt at a reconciliation through the medium of Lord Northeſk, meaſures were taken by lord Keith, and Sir C. Grey, to attack the fleet from the works at Sheerneſs, with gun boats and every thing elſe neceſſary for that purpoſe. Happily however the defection of ſeveral of the ſhips, with other ſtrong ſymptoms of diſunion, rendered the application of force unneceſſary. On the 10th. of June ſeveral more of them pulled down the red flag. The reſt of the fleet in a few days followed their example, and went under the guns of the fort at Sheerneſs. Immediately upon this admiral Buckner's boat went to the Sandwich with a picket-guard of ſoldiers to arreſt Parker, who was very peaceably ſurrendered to them with about thirty other delegates. Their trials ſhortly after commenced; many of them were executed, a conſiderable number remained under ſentence till the ſignal victory of admiral Duncan when they were pardoned. The ſeamen returned very peaceably to their duty and great Britain was by the bleſſing of providence delivered from a ſituation of the moſt extreme peril, and where one accident or miſtake might have been the cauſe of unſpeakable diſtreſs if not utter ruin.

While the tranquillity of the nation was diſturbed, and its exiſtence endangered by the mutinous diſpoſition of its moſt effective defenders, an evil which appeared at firſt of ſcarcely inferior magnitude threatened to overwhelm in ruin the pecuniary reſources and even commerce of the country. The year 1797 among other wonders, which it produced, likewiſe added this to the number, that the Bank of England ſuſpended its payments in ſpecie and yet public credit remained unſhaken.

Various conjectures have been formed with reſpect to this event. One powerful cauſe ſeems to have been the terror of an invaſion, which induced the farmers and other perſons at a diſtance from the metropolis to withdraw their money from the hands of thoſe bankers with whom it was depoſited. The run, therefore, commenced upon the country banks and the demand for ſpecie ſoon reached the metropolis. In this alarming ſtate the miniſtry found themſelves compelled to interfere, and an order of the privy council was iſſued on the 26 of February prohibiting the directors from iſſuing any ca-ſh in payment till the ſenſe of parliament can be taken on that ſubject, and the proper meaſures adopted thereupon for maintaining the means of circulation and ſupporting the public and commercial ſpirit of the kingdom at this important conjuncture.

The buſineſs was immediately laid before the parliament, which was fortunately ſitting at this critical moment; the moſt violent debates enſued, the oppoſition, as uſual, imputing every evil to the incapacity and wickedneſs of

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the miniſtry, and declaiming with great violence that the bank had failed, and that the nation was ruined.

The Statement of the committee, being laid before parliament, the fidelity and exactneſs of which was never queſtioned, completely refuted all the vague aſſertions of oppoſition. By this ſtatement it appeared, that the bank had funds far above any demands that could poſſibly be made upon them; this ſoon allayed all the ferment and alarm, which had been raiſed by this unexpected event; and that confidence which had tottered a little now ſtands on a firm and ſolid baſis, ſupported by legiſlative ſanction and a developement of the affairs of that great monied corporation.

On the 9th of June this year died at his ſeat at Beaconsfield after a painful illneſs the Rt. Hon. Edmund Burke. He did not live to ſee the unravelling of the intricate plot, which ſaddened and perplexed the awful drama of providence. but ſoon followed his beloved and lamented ſon from a world of ſtrife and diſcord to more inviting regions of undiſturbed repoſe.

In this extraordinary man was united every quality which could form an accompliſhed orator, and as long as genius, erudition, eloquence, integrity and wiſdom are valued among men ſo long will his character be revered. As an orator and a writer he ſhone with the ſame unrivalled ſplendour. The ſame ſublime and magnificent conceptions adorned with the moſt elegant language; the ſame dazzling brilliancy of wit and humour; the ſame luxuriancy of imagination; the ſame fertility of alluſion and illuſtration; the ſame depth of judgment, and extenſive knowledge diſtinguiſhed both his writings and ſpeeches as the productions of a ſuperior genius, and reflected the lively image of their illuſtrious author. The words which the Roman hiſtorian makes uſe of in drawing a great character may be applied with propriety to him; *nec is tantum, cujus lingua, vivo eo, viguerit, monumentum eloquentiæ nullum extet; vivit imo, vigetque eloquentia ejus ſacrata ſcriptis omnis generis.* He was the firſt man in Britain, we may ſay in the world, who, foreſeeing the pernicious and deſtructive tendency of thoſe principles which gave riſe to the French Revolution, lifted up his warning voice, and with a certainty almoſt approaching to preſcience proclaimed aloud to Europe the woes which would ariſe from this moſt aſtoniſhing and awful event.

Were our powers equal to the taſk, our narrow limits would not permit us to attempt a delineation the of character of Mr. Burke; yet we could not paſs over the loſs of ſo excellent a man without withdrawing for a few moments from the noiſe of faction, mutiny, and war, to ſhed a tear to his memory, and juſt in paſſing by to breathe a farewel ſigh over his grave.

The war on the part of Great Britain was during this year, almoſt excluſively confined to naval operations, in which the ſkill and activity of the Britiſh ſeamen was eminently conſpicuous, and invariably crowned with victory. The Spaniards and Dutch were grievous ſufferers in two great naval engagements, which were both equally glorious to the Britiſh arms.

The firſt of theſe memorable actions took place on the 14th of February off cape St. Vincent. The Britiſh ſquadron under the command of Sir John Jervis, amounted to no more than fifteen ſail of the line, while that of the Spaniſh conſiſted of twenty-ſeven, one of which was a four-decker, and carried 136 guns. The action commenced about half paſt 11 o'clock, the van ſhip the Culloden, Captain Trowbridge, firing againſt the enemy's headmoſt ſhips to windward. The a in a ſhort time after became general, and it was ſoon apparent that the Britiſh admiral had accompliſhed his deſign of breaking through the enemy's line, and had effectually ſeparated their fleet. His attention

tention was therefore directed to the main body, which was reduced by this ſeparation to 18 ſail of the line; and after an engagement of ſome hours which was but feebly ſupported by the enemy, the Britiſh remained in poſſeſſion of four ſhips of the line. This ſplendid victory was atchieved with little loſs on the part of the Britiſh, the killed and wounded amounting to 300 men.

The Dutch were ſtill more unfortunate in their naval operations, but not equally inglorious; they ſupported a long and bloody engagement with amazing obſtinacy and courage, and every man continued faithful to the laſt to their gallant admiral. The action commenced at about 40 minutes paſt 12 o'clock, at which time every ſhip of the Britiſh had broken the enemy's line, and cut them off from getting into the Texel, the land being then diſtant about ſeven miles. While the rear was attacked by the larboard diviſion under vice-admiral Onſlow, the commander in chief directed all his attention to the enemy's van, and his own ſhip, the Venerable, was in cloſe action for near two hours and a half, when he obſerved all the maſts of the Dutch admiral's ſhip go by the board, ſhe was, however, defended for ſome time after in a moſt gallant manner; but was at laſt obliged to ſtrike to the Venerable; admiral De Winter himſelf being the only man left on the quarter-deck, who was not either killed or wounded. The great importance of this victory was not fully known at the time it was gained. It did not appear till afterwards that this fleet was deſigned to aſſiſt the French in their intended invaſion of this country.

While Britain triumphed ſo completely at ſea, a negociation was entered into at Liſle for the purpoſe of reſtoring peace between the Regicide directory and England. Lord Malmeſbury arrived at Liſle in the beginning of July, and on the 8th delivered in his *projet* as the baſis of the negociation. As this *projet* contained ſome particulars concerning which the French commiſſioners profeſſed themſelves unable to determine, they ſent them, with their obſervations, to the directory. On the 16th of July, Lord Malmeſbury received a note from the French plenipotentiaries, informing him that the French government required as a preliminary to negociation the reſtitution of all his Britannic majeſty's conqueſts. To this inſolent demand lord Malmeſbury replied, that he was ſure peace on ſuch terms would not be thought of. While the negociation remained in this ſtate, from ſome commotion in the internal adminiſtration of France, the plenipotentiaries were recalled, and others appointed in their room. After a long diſcuſſion, and the ſtrongeſt profeſſions of a ſincere deſire to conclude a peace, they ſent a note on the 15th peremptorily aſking whether lord Malmeſbury's powers were ſufficient to reſtore all the poſſeſſions taken from France or her allies, and on his anſwering in the negative, he received another note requiring him to return in 24 hours to obtain the neceſſary qualifications from his own court. The ſtrange demand urged in the note of the 15th demonſtrated beyond a doubt that the profeſſions they made concerning their ſincere deſire of friendſhip, however ſtrongly, however ſolemnly urged, were falſe and perfidious, and that all proſpect of an accommodation muſt be for the preſent abandoned.

Having rejected our offers of peace, the enemy reſumed the project of an invaſion of Britain and it was generally believed that they ſeriouſly intended to make the attempt. Vaſt preparations were made in all the different ſea-ports of France; a great number of flat-bottomed boats and tranſports were fitted out; and a formidable force was aſſembled near the ſea-coaſt to which they gave the abſurd appellation of *The Army of England*. Idle ſtories were likewiſe propagated about rafts of an immenſe ſize, in which they were

were to float over to England, and to carry terror and diſmay to her ſhores. This viſionary ſcheme, does not, however ſeem to have been ſeriouſly adopted by the enemy; perhaps the ſtory was propagated to ridicule their frothy declamations againſt England. The conduct adopted by the miniſtry was prudent and judicious. By ſome the invaſion had been treated as ſo completely ridiculous that no preparation was neceſſary. Inſtead of ſleeping in this falſe ſecurity, the miniſtry took every neceſſary precaution to repel their attacks, unterrified by their threats, but not deſpiſing them.

A bill was paſſed for enabling the king to provide more effectually for the defence of the country and to indemnify ſuch perſons as might ſuſtain loſs or injury, in conſequence of the meaſures which it might be neceſſary to take for the general defence of the country &c. likewiſe to aſcertain thoſe who were willing near their own homes to cooperate with the exiſting force of the country, whether as ſoldiers, pioneers, drivers of waggons or in any other ſituation; circular letters were addreſſed to the Lord Lieutenants of the counties, informing them that any corps of reſpectable houſeholders would be accepted; in ſhort every meaſure was taken by miniſtry which could enſure internal tranquillity, or defeat the attempts of our enemies.

At no period of our hiſtory was ſo much zeal and courage diſplayed by the Britiſh Nation. Inſtead of that narrow policy which actuated ſeveral of the continental powers, they united as one man in defence of their invaluable conſtitution; indignant at the menaces of the enemy this high-ſpirited nation with firmneſs and magnanimity rallied round the ſtandard of freedom; undiſmayed by the preparations of France they joined with one ſoul in defence of their moſt gracious ſovereign Lord the King, in defence of their liberties handed down to them by their anceſtors as their invaluable birthright; reſolved either to preſerve theſe bleſſings or to periſh in the attempt. Such indeed was the ſpirit, zeal, and loyalty of the Britiſh nation, that the enemy after having ſolemnly promiſed (if indeed their ludicrous jargon can be ſolemn) that they would be in England before the ſpring, finally abandoned the attempt, and inſtead of the invaſion of Britain their fleet ſet ſail for Egypt, accompanied by a great number of tranſports. It was their intention forcibly to effect a ſettlement in that country, and by degrees to penetrate to the Britiſh ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies; a deſign for abſurdity, for wickedneſs, for perfidy, and for injuſtice unequalled in the hiſtory of mankind; fit only to be attempted by the bloody oppreſſors of France who are not to be ſtartled by the moſt determined villainy. But while the miniſtry watched with a jealous and vigilant eye the preparations of the enemy abroad, their attention was not diverted from the wicked and treaſonable attempts of their adherents at home. By their vigilance a conſpiracy of a very dangerous nature was diſcovered. Mr. O'Connor, a young man of family, leagued with ſeveral obſcure perſons, had given juſt grounds for ſuſpecting his deſigns. In conſequence of theſe ſuſpicions he, together with his accomplices were watched, and traced to Margate, from whence they intended to embark for France, and there apprehended. After ſeveral examinations they were finally committed to ſtand their trial, for high treaſon, which took place at Maidſtone. Their defence conſiſted in a ſimple denial of the facts with which they were charged. Mr. O'Connor brought forward in his defence the moſt reſpectable members of oppoſition who gave him an excellent character. One only of the priſoners, a Mr. O'Coigley was found guilty, who was ſhortly after executed. Mr. O'Connor was apprehended immediately on his acquittal by authority of a warrant from the Duke of Portland, and ſent under a

guard to Dublin. Affairs in Ireland wore a ſtill more alarming aſpect. An extenſive and dangerous conſpiracy was there formed for erecting Ireland into an independent republic. As the tranſactions of theſe conſpirators with their ſubſequent rebellion belong to the hiſtory of Ireland, it is unneceſſary here to repeat the relation of that calamitous period.

We turn with pleaſure from theſe afflicting ſcenes to one of the moſt brilliant naval victories, which adorn the hiſtory of Great Britain, achieved off the mouth of the Nile by the illuſtrious admiral Nelſon. The French fleet having eſcaped the Britiſh in their voyage to Egypt and ſafely landed their forces at Alexandria, were on their return home, when admiral Nelſon having reconnoitred the harbour of Alexandria perceived that it was full of veſſels of various kinds, and that the French flag was flying on board ſeveral of the ſhips. The enemy's fleet was firſt diſcovered by the Zealous, captain Hood, who immediately communicated, by ſignal, the number of ſhips, 16, lying at anchor in line of battle, in a bay upon the larboard bow, which he afterwards found to be Aboukir Bay. The admiral made the ſignal to prepare for battle, and that it was his intention to attack the enemy's van and centre as they lay at anchor, and according to the plan before developed. His idea, in this diſpoſition of his force, was, firſt to ſecure the victory, and then to make the moſt of it, as circumſtances might permit. A bower cable of each ſhip was immediately got out abaft, and bent forward. The Britiſh continued carrying ſail and ſtanding in for the enemy's fleet in a cloſe line of battle. As all the officers of the ſquadron were totally unacquainted with Aboukir Bay, each ſhip kept ſounding as ſhe ſtood in. The enemy appeared to be moored in a ſtrong and compact line of battle, cloſe in with the ſhore, their line deſcribing an obtuſe angle in its form, flanked by numerous gun-boats, 4 frigates, and a battery of guns and mortars on an iſland in their van. This ſituation of the enemy ſeemed to ſecure to them the moſt decided advantages, as they had nothing to attend to but their artillery, in their ſuperior ſkill in the uſe of which the French ſo much pride themſelves, and to which indeed their ſplendid ſeries of land victories was in general chiefly to be imputed. The poſition of the enemy preſented the moſt formidable obſtacles; but the Admiral viewed theſe with the eye of a ſeaman determined on attack; and it inſtantly ſtruck his eager and penetrating mind, that where there was room for an enemy's ſhip to ſwing, there was room for one of ours to anchor. No further ſignal was neceſſary than thoſe which had already been made. The Admiral's deſigns were as fully known to his own ſquadron, as was his determination to conquer, or periſh in the attempt. The Goliath and Zealous had the honour to lead inſide, and to receive the firſt fire from the van ſhips of the enemy, as well as from the batteries and gun-boats with which their van was ſtrengthened. Theſe two ſhips, with the Orion, Audacious, and Theſeus, took their ſtations inſide the enemy's line, and were immediately in cloſe action. The Vanguard anchored the firſt on the outer-ſide of the enemy, and was oppoſed within half piſtol ſhot to Le Spartiate, the third in the enemy's line. In ſtanding in, our leading ſhips were unavoidably obliged to receive into their bows the whole fire of the broad-ſides of the French line, until they could take their reſpective ſtations; and it is but juſtneſs to obſerve, that the enemy received us with great firmneſs and deliberation, no colours having been hoiſted on either ſide, nor a gun fired, till our van ſhips were within half gun ſhot. At this time the neceſſary number of our men were employed aloft in furling ſails, and on deck, in hauling the braces, &c. preparatory to our caſting anchor. As ſoon as this took place, a moſt animated fire was opened from the

the Vanguard, which ſhip covered the approach of thoſe in the rear, which were following in a cloſe line. The Minotaur, Defence, Bellerophon, Majeſtic, Swiftſure, and Alexander, came up in ſucceſſion, and, paſſing within hail of the Vanguard, took their reſpective ſtations oppoſite to the enemy's line. All our ſhips anchored by the ſtern, by which means the Britiſh line became inverted from van to rear. Captain Thomſon, of the Leander, of 50 guns, with a degree of judgement highly honourable to his profeſſional character, advanced towards the enemy's line on the outſide, and moſt judiciouſly dropped his anchor athwart hauſe of Le Franklin, raking her with great ſucceſs, the ſhot from the Leander's broadſide which paſſed that ſhip all ſtriking L'Orient, the flag ſhip of the French Commander in Chief. The action commenced at ſunſet with an ardour and vigour which it is impoſſible to deſcribe. At about 7 o'clock total darkneſs had come on but the whole hemiſphere was at intervals illuminated with the fire of the hoſtile fleets. Our ſhips, when darkneſs came on, had all hoiſted their diſtinguiſhing lights, by a ſignal from the Admiral. The van ſhip of the enemy, le Guerrier, was diſmaſted in leſs than 12 minutes; and in 10 minutes after the ſecond ſhip, le Conquerant, and the third le Spartiate, very nearly at the ſame moment, were alſo diſmaſted. L'Aquilon and Le Souverain Peuple, the fourth and fifth ſhips of the enemy's line, were taken poſſeſſion of by the Britiſh at half paſt eight in the evening. Captain Berry, at that hour, ſent Lieutenant Galwey, of the Vanguard, with a party of marines, to take poſſeſſion of Le Spartiate, and that officer returned by the boat the French captain's ſword, which Captain Berry immediately delivered to the Admiral, who was then below, in conſequence of the ſevere wound which he had received in the head during the heat of the attack. At this time it appeared that victory had already declared itſelf in our favour; for, although L'Orient, L'Heureux, and Tonnant, were not taken poſſeſſion of, they were conſidered as completely in our power, which pleaſing intelligence captain Berry communicated in perſon to the Admiral. At 10 minutes after nine a fire was obſerved on board L'Orient, which increaſed with great rapidity preſently involving the whole of the after part in flames. The only boats that could ſwim were inſtantly diſpatched from the Vanguard and the lives of about 70 men were ſaved. The light thrown by the fire of L'Orient upon the ſurrounding objects, enabled the Britiſh to perceive with more certainty, the ſituation of the two fleets the colours of both being clearly diſtinguiſhable. The cannonading was partially kept up to the leeward of the centre till about 10 o'clock, when the L'Orient blew up with a moſt tremendous exploſion. An awful pauſe, and ſilence for about three minutes ſucceeded, when the wreck of the maſts and yards, which had been carried to a vaſt height fell down into the water and on board the ſurrounding ſhips. After this awful ſcene, the firing recommenced with the ſhips to the leeward of the centre, till 20 minutes paſt 10; when there was a total ceſſation of firing for about 10 minutes, after which it was revived till about 3 in the morning, when it again ceaſed, and the whole fleet except two ſhips remained in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh. Thus was achieved by the ſkill, valour and diſcipline of the Britiſh ſailors and officers of every deſcription the glorious and ever memorable victory of the 1ſt Auguſt, which excited the moſt lively demonſtrations of joy not only in Britain but through all Europe.

It has not only rendered us ſovereign in the Mediterranean, but has aroused the powers on the continent to another vigorous effort for their deliverance from the diſgraceful tyranny of France; this ſpirit has already produced the happieſt and moſt important effects; the French have been repeatedly defeated by the Auſtrians and purſued acroſs the Rhine, General Suharrow has been

been equally ſucceſsful in Italy and has almoſt entirely driven them out of that country; we may therefore now hope to ſee an end to the calamities of Europe at no very diſtant period.

The enemy were likewiſe about this time diſappointed in another expedition which they fitted out for the invaſion of Ireland. Their force conſiſted of a ſhip of 80 guns, eight frigates, a ſchooner and a brig. They were diſcovered by the ſquadron under Sir John Borlaſe Warren, who immediately gave the ſignal for a general chace, which was continued in very boiſterous weather till the night of the 11th. when they were ſeen at a little diſtance to windward, the line of battle ſhip having loſt her main top maſt. The action commenced at 20 minutes paſt 7 o'clock in the morning and at 11 the Hoche ſtruck and was followed by three others, full of men and every thing neceſſary for the eſtabliſhment of their views in Ireland.

It muſt ſurely afford the moſt heartfelt ſatisfaction to every one who truly loves his country, who rejoices in her joys, and ſorrows in her ſorrows, that by the valour of our ſeamen we may now laugh at the impotent malignity of our enemies, that Britain ſtill reigns as the ſovereign of the ocean, and by the ſplendor of her late victories emulates and even eclipſes the glories of her former days.

GENEALOGICAL LIST OF THE ROYAL FAMILY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

George William Frederic III. born June 4, 1738; proclaimed king of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, and elector of Hanover, October 26, 1760; and married, Sept. 8, 1761, to the princeſs Sophia Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, born May 16, 1744, crowned September 22, 1761, and now have iſſue:

1. George Auguſtus Frederic, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12, 1762. Married April 8, 1795, to her highneſs the princeſs Caroline of Brunſwick; has iſſue 7, Jan. 1796 a princeſs.

2. Prince Frederic, born Auguſt 16, 1763, elected biſhop of Oſnaburgh, February 27, 1764, created duke of York and Albany, November 7, 1784. K. G. and K. B. married Sept. 29, 1791, Frederica Charlotta-Ulrica-Catherina, Princeſs Royal of Pruſſia.

2. Prince William Henry, born Auguſt 21, 1765, created duke of Clarence, K. G. and K. T.

4. Charlotte-Auguſta-Matilda, Princeſs Royal of England, born September 29, 1766. Married 18 April 1797, to his ſerene highneſs Frederic Charles William hereditary prince of Wirtem berg.

5. Prince Edward, born November 2, 1767.

6. Princeſs Auguſta Sophia, born November 8, 1768.

7. Princeſs Elizabeth, born May 22, 1770.

8. Prince Erneſt Auguſtus, born June 5, 1771.

9. Prince Frederic Auguſtus, born January 27, 1773.

10. Prince Adolphus Frederic, born February 24, 1774.

11. Princeſs Mary, born April 25, 1776.

12. Princeſs Sophia, born November 3, 1777.

13. Princeſs Amelia, born Auguſt 7, 1783.

Iſſue of the late prince of Wales by the princeſs Auguſta of Saxe Gotha, now living:

1. Her royal highneſs Auguſta, born Auguſt 11, 1737; married the hereditary prince (now duke) of Brunſwick Lunenburgh, January 16, 1764.

2. His preſent majeſty.

3. Prince William Henry, duke of Glouceſter, born November 25, 1743.

WALES.

THOUGH this principality is politically included in England, yet as it has diſtinction in language and manners, I have, in conformity with common cuſtom, aſſigned it a ſeparate article.

Extent and Situation.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	130	between	51 and 54 North latitude.
Breadth	96		2,41 and 4,56 Weſt longitude.

Area in ſquare miles 7011.

Name and language.] The Welch, according to the beſt antiquaries, are deſcendants of the Belgic Gauls, who made a ſettlement in England about fourſcore years before the firſt deſcent of Julius Cæſar, and thereby obtained the name of Galles or Walles (the G and W being promiſcuouſly uſed by the ancient Britons), that is, Strangers. Their language has a ſtrong affinity with the Celtic or Phœnician, and is highly commended for its pathetic and deſcriptive powers by thoſe who underſtand it.

Boundaries.] Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at preſent, being bounded only by the Severn and the Dee; but after the Saxons had made themſelves maſters of all the plain country, the Welch, or ancient Britons, were ſhut up within more narrow bounds, and obliged gradually to retreat weſtward. It does not however appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conqueſts in their country than Monmouthſhire and Herefordſhire, which are now reckoned part of England. This country is divided into four circuits. See England.

Climate, soil, and water.] The ſeaſons are pretty much the ſame as in the Northern parts of England, and the air is ſharp, but wholeſome. The ſoil of Wales, eſpecially towards the North, is mountainous, but contains rich vallies, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn. Wales contains many quarries of free-ſtone and ſlate, ſeveral mines of lead, and abundance of coal-pits. This country is well ſupplied with wholeſome ſprings; and its chief rivers are the Clywd, the Wheeler, the Dee, the Severn, the Elwy, and the Alen, which furniſh Flintſhire with great quantities of fiſh.

Mountains.] It would be endleſs to particularize the mountains of this country. Snowdon, in Caernarvonſhire, and Plinlimmon, which lies partly in Montgomery and partly in Cardiganſhire, are the moſt famous; and their mountainous ſituation greatly aſſiſted the natives in making ſo noble and long a ſtruggle againſt the Roman, Anglo-Saxon, and Norman powers.

Vegetable and animal productions by sea and land.] In theſe particulars Wales differs little from England. Their horſes are ſmaller, but can endure vaſt fatigue, and their black cattle are ſmall likewiſe, but excellent beef, and their cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats feed on the mountains. As for the

other productions of Wales, ſee England and Scotland. Some very promiſing mines of ſilver, copper, lead, and iron, have been diſcovered in Wales. The Welch ſilver may be known by its being ſtamped with the oſtrich feathers, the badge of the prince of Wales.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The inhabitants of Wales are ſuppoſed to amount to about 200,000, and though not in general wealthy, they are provided with all the neceſſaries, and many of the conveniencies of life. The land-tax of Wales brought in ſome years ago about forty-three thouſand ſeven hundred and fifty-two pounds a year. The Welch are, if poſſible, more jealous of their liberties than the Engliſh, and far more iraſcible, but their anger ſoon abates; and they are remarkable for their ſincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the moſt remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuſcripts, ſome of which they pretend to be coeval with the incarnation. It is however certain, that great part of their hiſtory, eſpecially the eccleſiaſtical, is more ancient, and better atteſted, than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for it bards and poets, particularly Thalieſſin, who lived about the year 450, and whoſe works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince, that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the hiſtory which makes the preſent Welch the deſcendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius ſeems to have influenced the ancient Welch with an enthuſiaſm for independency, for which reaſon Edward I. is ſaid to have made a general maſſacre of the bards; an inhumanity which was characteriſtical of that ambitious prince. The Welch may be called an unmixed people, as may be proved by their keeping up the ancient hoſpitality, and their ſtrict adherence to ancient cuſtoms and manners. This appears even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the ſtream of faſhion. We are not however to imagine, that many of the nobility and gentry of Wales do not comply with the modes and manner of living in England and France. All the better ſort of the Welch ſpeak the Engliſh language, though numbers of them underſtand the Welch.

RELIGION.] I have already mentioned the maſſacre of the Welch clergy by Auguſtine, the popiſh apoſtle of England, becauſe they would not conform to the Romiſh ritual. Wales, after that, fell under the dominion of petty princes, who were often weak and credulous. The Romiſh clergy inſinuated themſelves into their favour, by their pretended power of abſolving them from crimes; and the Welch, when their ancient clergy were extinct, conformed themſelves to the religion of Rome. The Welch clergy, in general, are but poorly provided for; and in many of the country congregations they preach both in Welch and Engliſh. Their poverty was formerly a vaſt diſcouragement to religion and learning, but the meaſures taken by the ſociety for propagating chriſtian knowledge has in a great degree removed the reproach of ignorance from the poorer ſort of the Welch. In the year 1749, a hundred and forty-two ſchoolmaſters were employed to remove from place to place for the inſtruction of the inhabitants; and their ſcholars amounted to 72,264. No people have diſtinguiſhed themſelves more, perhaps, in proportion to their abilities, than the Welch have done by acts of national munificence. They print at a vaſt expence, Bibles, Common prayers, and other religious books, and diſtribute them gratis to the poorer ſort. Few of their towns are unprovided with a free-ſchool.

The

The eſtabliſhed religion in Wales, is that of the church of England, but the common people in many places are ſo tenacious of their ancient cuſtoms, that they retain ſeveral of the Romiſh ſuperſtitions, and ſome ancient families among them are ſtill Roman Catholics. It is likewiſe ſaid, that Wales abounds with Romiſh prieſts in diſguiſe. And it is certain, that the principality contains great numbers of proteſtant diſſenters.

For BISHOPRICKS (See England). We are to obſerve that in the former times, Wales contained more biſhopricks than it does now; and about the time of the Norman invaſion, the religious foundations there far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Wales was a ſeat of learning, at a very early period; but it ſuffered an eclipſe by the repeated maſſacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffiſm took ſhelter in Wales, when it was perſecuted in England. The Welch and Scotch diſpute about the nativity of certain learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas. Giraldus Cambrenſis, whoſe hiſtory was publiſhed by Camden, was certainly a Welchman; and Leland mentions ſeveral learned men of the ſame country, who flouriſhed before the Reformation. The diſcovery of the famous king Arthur's and his wife's burying place was owing to ſome lines of Thalieſſin, which were repeated before Henry II. of England, by a Welch bard. Since the Reformation, Wales has produced ſeveral excellent antiquaries and divines. Among the latter were Hugh Broughton, and Hugh Holland, who was a Roman Catholic, and is mentioned by Fuller in his Worthies. Among the former were ſeveral gentlemen of the name of Llhuyd, particularly the author of that invaluable work the Archæologia. Rowland, the learned author of the Mona Antiqua, was likewiſe a Welchman; as was that great ſtateſman and prelate, the lord-keeper Williams, archbiſhop of York in the time of king Charles I. After all, we muſt be of opinion, that the great merit of the Welch learning, in former times, lay in the knowledge of the antiquity, language, and hiſtory of their own country. Wales, notwithſtanding all that Dr. Hicks, and other antiquaries, have ſaid to the contrary, furniſhed the Anglo Saxons with an alphabet. This is clearly demonſtrated by Mr. Llhuyd, in his Welch preface to his Archæologia, and is confirmed by various monumental inſcriptions of undoubted authority. (See Rowland's Mona Antiqua). I muſt not, however, omit the excellent hiſtory of Henry VIII. written by lord Herbert of Cherbury.

With regard to the preſent ſtate of literature among the Welch, it is ſufficient to ſay, that ſome of them make a conſiderable figure in the republic of letters, and that many of their clergy are excellent ſcholars. The Welch Pater-noſter is as follows;

Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, ſancteiddier dy enw; deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllus ar y adàear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: dyro i ny heddyw ein bara beynyddiol; a maddeu i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddeuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth, eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant yn eos oeſoedd. Amen.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Wales contains no cities or towns that are remarkable either for populouſneſs or magnificence. Beaumaris is the chief town of An-

Angleſey *, and has a harbour for ſhips. Brecknock trades in clothing. Cardigan is a large populous town, and lies in the neighbourhood of lead and ſilver mines. Caermarthen has a large bridge, and is governed by a mayor, two ſheriffs, and aldermen, who wear ſcarlet gowns, and other enſigns of ſtate. Pembroke is well inhabited by gentlemen and tradeſmen; and part of the country is ſo fertile and pleaſant, that it is called Little England. The other towns of Wales have nothing particular. I am however to obſerve that Wales, in ancient times, was a far more populous and wealthy country than it is at preſent; and though it contains no regular fortifications, yet many of its old caſtles are ſo ſtrongly built, and ſo well ſituated, that they might be turned into ſtrong forts by a little expence: witneſs the vigorous defence which many of them made in the civil wars, between Charles I. and his parliament.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. Several of its caſtles are ſtupendouſly large; and in ſome, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly diſcernible. The architecture of others is doubtful; and ſome appear to be partly Britiſh, and partly Roman. In Brecknockſhire are ſome rude ſculptures, upon a ſtone ſix feet high, called the Maiden-ſtone; but the remains of the Druidical inſtitutions, and places of worſhip, are chiefly diſcernible in the iſle of Angleſey, the ancient Mona, mentioned by Tacitus, who deſcribes it as being the chief ſeminary of the Druidical rites and religion. Cherphilly-caſtle in Glamorganſhire is ſaid to have been the largeſt in Great Britain, excepting Windſor; and the remains of it ſhew it to have been a moſt beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, but the other overhangs its baſis more than nine feet, and is as great a curioſity as the leaning tower of Piſa in Italy.

Among the natural curioſities of this country are the following. At a ſmall village called Newton, in Glamorganſhire, is a remarkable ſpring nigh the ſea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the ſea. In Merionethſhire is Kader Idris, a mountain remarkable for its height, which affords variety of Alpine plants. In Flintſhire is a famous well, known by the name of St. Wenefred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The ſpring boils with vaſt impetuoſity out of a rock, and is formed into a beautiful polygonal well, covered with a rich arch, ſupported by pillars, and the roof is moſt exquiſitely carved in ſtone. Over the ſpring is alſo a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous ſtate. King James II. paid a viſit to the well of St. Wenefred in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a preſent which was made him of the very ſhift in which his great grandmother, Mary Stuart, loſt her head. The ſpring is ſuppoſed to be one of the fineſt in the Britiſh dominions; and by two different trials and calculations lately made, is found to fling out about twenty-one tons of water in a minute. It never freezes, or ſcarcely varies in the quantity of water in droughts, or after the greateſt rains. After a violent fall of wet, it becomes diſcoloured by a wheyiſh tinge. The ſmall town adjoining to the well, is known by the name of Holywell. In Caernarvonſhire is the high mountain of Penmanmawr, acroſs the edge of which the public road lies, and occaſions no ſmall terror to many travellers; from one hand the im-

* The iſle of Angleſea, which is the moſt weſtern county of North Wales, is ſurrounded on all ſides by the Iriſh ſea, except on the ſouth-eaſt, where it is divided from Britain by a narrow ſtrait, called Menew, which in ſome places may be paſſed on foot at low water, the iſland is about 24 miles long, and 18 broad, and contains 74 pariſhes. It was the ancient ſeat of the Britiſh Druids.

pending rock ſeems ready every minute to cruſh them to pieces; and the great precipice below, which hangs over the ſea, is ſo hideous, and till very lately, when a wall was raiſed on the ſide of the road, full of danger, that one falſe ſtep was of diſmal conſequence. Snowdon hill is by triangular meaſurement 1240 yards perpendicular height.

There are a great number of pleaſing proſpects and pictureſque views in Wales; and this country is highly worthy the attention of the curious traveller.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES. The Welch are on a footing as to their commerce and manufactures, with many of the northern counties of England. There trade is moſtly inland, or with England, into which they import numbers of black cattle. Milfordhaven, which is reckoned the fineſt in Europe, lies in Pembrokeſhire; but the Welch have hitherto reaped no great benefit from it, though of late conſiderable ſums have been granted by parliament for its fortification. It lies under two capital diſadvantages. the firſt is, that by making it the rendezvous of all the Engliſh marine, a bold attempt of an enemy might totally deſtroy the ſhipping, however ſtrongly they may be defended by walls and forts. The ſame objection however lies to every harbour that contains ſhips of war and merchantmen. The ſecond, and perhaps the chief diſadvantage it lies under, is the ſtrong oppoſition to rendering it the capital harbour of the kingdom, that it muſt meet with in parliament from the numerous Corniſh and Weſt country members, the benefit of whoſe eſtates muſt be greatly leſſened by the diſuſe of Plymouth and Portſmouth, and other harbours. The town of Pembroke employs near 200 merchant ſhips, and its inhabitants carry on an extenſive trade. In Brecknockſhire are ſeveral woollen manufactures; and Wales in general carries on a great coal trade with England, and even Ireland.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Wales was united, and incorporated, with England, in the 27th of Henry VIII. when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the Engliſh form; all laws, cuſtoms, and tenures, contrary to thoſe of England, being abrogated, and the inhabitants admitted to a participation of all the Engliſh liberties, and privileges, particularly that of ſending members to parliament, viz. a knight for every ſhire, and a burgeſs for every ſhire-town, except Merioneth. By the 34th and 35th of the ſame reign, there were ordained four ſeveral circuits for the adminiſtration of juſtice in the ſaid ſhires, each of which was to include three ſhires; ſo that the chief juſtice of Cheſter has under his juriſdiction the three ſeveral ſhires of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery. The ſhires of Caernarvon, Merioneth, and Angleſey, are under the juſtices of North Wales. Thoſe of Caermarthen, Pembrokeſhire, and Cardigan, have alſo their juſtices; as have likewiſe thoſe of Radnor, Brecknock, and Glamorgan. By the 18th of queen Elizabeth, one other juſtice aſſiſtant was ordained to the former juſtices; ſo that now every one of the ſaid four circuits has two juſtices, viz; one chief-juſtice, and a ſecond juſtice-aſſiſtant.

REVENUES.] As to the revenues, the crown has a certain, though ſmall property, in the product of the ſilver or lead mines; but it is ſaid that the revenue accruing to the prince of Wales from his principality, does not exceed 7 or 8,000l. a-year.

ARMS. The arms of the prince of Wales differ from thoſe of England, only by the addition of a label of three points. His cap, or badge of oſtrich feathers, was occaſioned by a trophy of that kind, which Edward the Black Prince took from the king of Bohemia, when he was killed at the battle of Poictiers, and the motto is *Ich dien*, I ſerve. St. David, commonly called

St.

St. Taffy, is the tutelar ſaint of the Welch, and his badge is a leek, which is worn on his day, the 1ſt of March, and for which various reaſons have been aſſigned.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were ſovereign and independent, appears from the Engliſh hiſtory. It was formerly inhabited by three different tribes of Britons, the Silures, the Dimetæ, and the Ordovices These people cut out ſo much work for the Romans, that they do not appear ever to have been entirely ſubdued; yet part of their country, as appears from the ruins of caſtles, was bridled by garriſons. Though the Saxons, as hath been already obſerved, conquered the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, yet they never penetrated farther, and the Welch remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and their own laws. About the year 870, Roderic, king of Wales, divided his dominions among his three ſons; and the names of theſe diviſions were, Demetia, or South Wales; Poveſia, or Powis-land; and Venedotia, or North Wales. This diviſion gave a mortal blow to the independency of Wales. About the year 1112, Henry I. of England planted a colony of Flemings on the frontiers of Wales, to ſerve as a barrier to England, none of the Welch princes being powerful enough to oppoſe them. They made, however, many vigorous and brave attempts againſt the Norman kings of England, to maintain their liberties: and even the Engliſh hiſtorians admit the injuſtice of their claims. In 1237, the crown of England was firſt ſupplied with a handle for the future conqueſt of Wales; their old and infirm prince Llewellin, in order to be ſafe from the perſecutions of his undutiful ſon Griffyn, having put himſelf under ſubjection and homage to king Henry III.

But no capitulation could ſatisfy the ambition of Edward I. who reſolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and Llewellin, prince of Wales, diſdaining the ſubjection to which old Llewellin had ſubmitted, Edward raiſed an irreſiſtible army at a prodigious expence, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and taking poſſeſſion of the iſle of Angleſey, he drove the Welch to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to ſubmit to pay a tribute. The Welch, however, made ſeveral efforts under young Llewellin; but at laſt, in 1285, he was killed in battle. He was ſucceeded by his brother David, the laſt independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him moſt barbarouſly and unjuſtly hanged; and Edward, from that time pretended that Wales was annexed to his crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that Edward perpetrated the inhuman maſſacre of the Welch bards. Perceiving that his cruelty was not ſufficient to complete his conqueſt, he ſent his queen in the year 1282, to be delivered in Caernarvon caſtle, that the Welch having a prince born among themſelves, might the more readily recognize his authority. This prince was the unhappy Edward II. and from him the title of prince of Wales has always ſince deſcended to the eldeſt ſons of the Engliſh kings. The hiſtory of Wales and England becomes now the ſame. It is proper, however to obſerve, that the kings of England have always found it their intereſt to ſoothe the Welch with particular marks of their regard. Their eldeſt ſons not only held the titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a preſident, was named by the crown, for the adminiſtration of the principality. This was thought ſo neceſſary a piece of policy that when Henry VIII. had no ſon, his daughter Mary was created princeſs of Wales.

ISLE

ISLE OF MAN.

THE Mona mentioned by Tacitus was the iſle of Angleſea, not this iſland. Some think it take its name from the Saxon word *Mang* (or among) becauſe lying in St. George's Channel, it is almoſt at an equal diſtance from the kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland; but Mona ſeems to have been a generical name with the ancients for any detached iſland. Its length from north to ſouth is rather more than thirty miles, its breadth from eight to fifteen; and the latitude of the middle of the iſland is fifty-four degrees ſixteen minutes north. It is ſaid that on a clear day the three Britanic kingdoms may be ſeen from this iſland. The air is wholeſome, and the climate, only making an allowance for the ſituation, pretty much the ſame as that in the north of England, from which it does not differ much in other reſpects. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulſe. The ridge of mountainns, which, as it were, divide the iſland, both protects and fertilizes the vallies, where there is good paſturage. The better ſort of inhabitants have good ſizeable horſes, and a ſmall kind, which is ſwift and hardy; nor are they troubled with any noxious animals. The coaſts abound with ſea-fowl; and the puffins which breed in rabit holes, are almoſt a lump of fat, and eſteemed very delicious. It is ſaid that this iſland abounds with iron, lead, and coper mines, though unwrought; as are the quarries of marble, ſlate, and ſtone.

The Iſle of Man contains ſeventeen pariſhes, and four towns on the ſea coaſts. Caſtle-town is the metropolis of the iſland, and the ſeat of its government; Peele of late years begins to flouriſh; Douglas has the beſt market and beſt trade in the iſland, and is the richeſt and moſt populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole, extending into the ſea; Ramſey has likewiſe a conſiderable commerce, on account of its ſpacious bay, in which ſhips may ride ſafe from all winds excepting the north-eaſt. The reader, by throwing his eyes on the map, may ſee how conveniently this iſland is ſituated for being the ſtorehouſe of ſmugglers, which it was till within theſe few years, to the inexpreſſible prejudice of his majeſty's revenue; and this neceſſarily leads us to touch upon the hiſtory of the iſland.

During the time of the Scandinavian rovers on the ſeas, whom I have before mentioned, this iſland was their rendezvous, and their chief force was here collected; from whence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Britain, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often mentioned in hiſtory; and though we have no regular account of their ſucceſſion, and know but a few of their names, yet they undoubtedly were for ſome ages maſters of thoſe ſeas. About the year 1263, Alexander II. king of Scotland, a ſpirited prince, having defeated the Danes, laid claim to the ſuperiority of Man, and obliged Owen or John, its king, to acknowledge him as lord paramount. It ſeems to have continued, either tributary or in property of the kings of Scotland, till it was reduced by Edward I. and the kings of England, from that time, exerciſed the ſuperiority over the iſlands; though we find it ſtill poſſeſſed by the poſterity of its Daniſh princes, in the reign of Edward III. who diſpoſſeſſed the laſt queen of the iſland, and beſtowed it on his favourite.

favourite, Montague, earl of Saliſbury. His family honours and eſtate being forfeited, Henry IV. beſtowed Man, and the patronage of the biſhoprick, firſt upon the Northumberland family, and that being forfeited, upon Sir John Stanley, whoſe poſterity, the earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure of heirs male, it devolved upon the duke of Athol, who married the ſiſter of the laſt lord Derby. Reaſons of ſtate rendered it neceſſary for the crown of Great Britain to purchaſe the cuſtoms and the iſland from the Athol family; and the bargain was completed by 70,000l. being paid to the duke in 1764. The duke, however, retains his territorial property in the iſland, though the form of its government is altered; and the king has now the ſame rights, powers, and prerogatives, as the duke formerly enjoyed. The inhabitants, alſo, retain many of their ancient conſtitutions and cuſtoms.

The eſtabliſhed religion in Man is that of the church of England. The biſhop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the ſpiritual rights and pre-eminences of the other biſhops, but does not ſit in the Britiſh houſe of peers; his ſee never having been erected into an Engliſh barony. One of the moſt excellent prelates who ever adorned the epiſcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilſon, biſhop of Man, who preſided over that dioceſe upwards of fifty-ſeven years, and died in the year 1755, aged ninety-three. He was eminently diſtinguiſhed for the piety and the examplarineſs of his life, his benevolence and hoſpitality, and his unremitting attention to the happineſs of the people entruſted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, eſtabliſhed ſchools for the inſtruction of the children of the inhabitants of the iſland, tranſlated ſome of his devotional pieces into the Manks language, to render them more generally uſeful to them, and founded parochial libraries in every pariſh in his dioceſe. Some of his notions reſpecting government and church diſcipline were not of the moſt liberal kind: but his failings were ſo few, and his virtues ſo numerous and conſpicuous, that he was a great bleſſing to the Iſle of Man, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had ſo much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation ſhould ravage the Iſle of Man.

The eccleſiaſtical government is well kept up in this iſland, and the livings are comfortable. The language, which is called the Manks, and is ſpoken by the common people, is radically Erſe, or Iriſh, but with a mixture of other languages. The New Teſtament and the Common Prayer Book have been tranſlated into the Manks language. The natives, who amount to above 20,000, are inoffenſive, charitable, and hoſpitable. The better ſort live in ſtone houſes, and the poorer in thatched; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmal. Their products for exportation conſiſt of wool, hides, and tallow; which they exchange with foreign ſhipping for commodities they may have occaſion for from other parts. Before the South promontory of Man, is a little iſland called the Calf of Man: it is about three miles in circuit, and ſeparated from Man by a channel about two furlongs broad.

This iſland affords ſome curioſities which may amuſe an antiquary. They conſiſt chiefly of Runic ſepulchral inſcriptions and monuments, of ancient braſs daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are ſometimes dug up, and ſeem to indicate the ſplendor of its ancient poſſeſſors.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

THIS iſland is ſituated oppoſite the coaſt of Hampſhire, from which it is ſeparated by a channel, varying in breadth from two to ſeven miles: it is conſidered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. Its greateſt length, extending from eaſt to weſt, meaſures nearly twenty-three miles; its breadth from north to ſouth above thirteen. The air is in general healthy, particularly the ſouthern parts; the ſoil is various, but ſo great is its fertility, it was many years ago computed, that more wheat was grown here in one year, than could be conſumed by the inhabitants in eight; and it is ſuppoſed that its preſent produce, under the great improvements of agriculture, and the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increaſe of population. A range of hills, which affords fine paſture for ſheep, extends from eaſt to weſt, through the middle of the iſland. The interior parts of the iſland, as well as its extremities, afford a great number of beautiful and picturеſque proſpects, not only in the paſtoral, but alſo in the great and romantic ſtyle. Of theſe beauties the gentlemen of the iſland have availed themſelves, as well in the choice of the ſituation of their houſes, as in their other improvements. Domeſtic fowls and poultry are bred here in great numbers; the outward-bound ſhips and veſſels at Spithead, the Mother-bank, and Cowes, commonly furniſhing themſelves from this iſland.

Such is the purity of the air, the fertility of the ſoil, and the beauty and variety of the landſcapes of this iſland, that it has been called the garden of England; it has ſome very fine gentlemen's ſeats; and it is often viſited by parties of pleaſure on account of its delightful ſcenes.

The iſland is divided into thirty pariſhes; and, according to a very accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to eighteen thouſand and twenty-four, excluſive of the troops quartered there. Moſt of the farm houſes are built with ſtone, and even the cottages appear neat and comfortable, having each its little garden.

The town of Newport ſtands nearly in the centre of the iſland, of which it may be conſidered as the capital. The river Medina empties itſelf into the channel at Cowes harbour, diſtant about five miles, and being navigable up to the quay, renders it commodious for trade. The three principal ſtreets of Newport extend from eaſt to weſt, and are croſſed at right angles by three others, all which are ſpacious, clean, and well paved.

Cariſbrook caſtle, in the Iſle of Wight, has been rendered remarkable by the confinement of king Charles I. who, taking refuge here, was detained a priſoner, from November 1647, to September 1648. After the execution of the king, this caſtle was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter, the princeſs Elizabeth, died in it. There are ſeveral other forts in this iſland, which were all erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII. when many other forts and blockhouſes were built in different parts of the coaſt of England.

The SCILLY ISLES, anciently the SILURES, are a cluſter of dangerous rocks, to the number of 140, lying about 30 miles from the Land's End in Cornwall, of which county they were reckoned a part. By their ſituation between the Engliſh Channel and St. George's Channel, they have been the deſtruction of many ſhips and lives. Some of the iſlands are well inhabited, and have large and ſecure harbours.

In the Engliſh Channel are four iſlands ſubject to England: theſe are Jerſey, Guernſey Alderny, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coaſt of Normandy than to that of England, are within the dioceſe of Wincheſter. They lie in a cluſter in Mount St. Michael's bay, between Cape la Hogue in Normandy, and Cape Frebelle in Brittany. The computed diſtance between Jerſey and Sark is four leagues: and between that and Guernſey, ſeven leagues; and between the ſame and Alderney, nine leagues.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans: and lies fartheſt within the bay, in forty-nine degrees ſeven minutes north latitude, and in the ſecond degree twenty-ſix minutes weſt longitude, 18 miles weſt of Normandy, and 84 miles ſouth of Portland. The north ſide is inacceſſible through lofty cliffs, the ſouth is almoſt level with the water; the higher land, in its midland part, is well planned, and abounds with orchards, from which is made an incredible quantity of excellent cyder. The vallies are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain plenty of cattle and ſheep. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of cyder, the improvement of commerce, and particularly the manufacture of ſtockings. The honey in Jerſey is remarkably fine; and the iſland is well ſupplied with fiſh and wild fowl almoſt of every kind, ſome of both being peculiar to the iſland, and very delicious.

The iſland is not above twelve miles in length; but the air is ſo ſalubrious, that, in Camden's time, it was ſaid there was here no buſineſs for a phyſician. The inhabitants in number are about 20,000, and are divided intwo twelve pariſhes. The capital town is St. Helier, or Hilary, which contains above 400 houſes, has a good harbour and caſtle, and makes a handſome appearance. The property of this iſland belonged formerly to the Carterets, a Norman family, who have been always attached to the royal intereſt, and gave protection to Charles II. both when king and prince of Wales, at a time when no part of the Britiſh dominions durſt recogniſe him. The language of the inhabitants is French, with which moſt of them intermingle Engliſh words. Knit ſtockings and caps form their ſtaple commodity, but they carry on a conſiderable trade in fiſh with Newfoundland, and diſpoſe of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown of England, but the civil adminiſtration reſts with a bailiff, aſſiſted by twelve jurats. As this iſland is the principal remains of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preſerves the old feudal forms, and particularly the aſſembly of ſtates, which is as it were a miniature of the Britiſh parliament, as ſettled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is thirteen miles and a half from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and twelve and half where broadeſt, eaſt and weſt; has only ten pariſhes, to which there are but eight miniſters, four of the pariſhes being united, and Alderney and Sark, which are appendages of Guernſey, having one apiece. Though this is a much finer iſland than that of Jerſey, yet it is far leſs valuable becauſe it is not ſo well cultivated, nor is it ſo populous. It abounds in cyder; and the inhabitants ſpeak French: but want of firing is the greateſt inconveniency that both iſlands labour under. The only harbour here is at St. Peter le Port, which is guarded by two forts; one called the Old-Caſtle, and the other Caſtle-Cornet. Guernſey is likewiſe part of the ancient Norman patrimony.

ALDERNEY is about eight miles in compaſs, and is by much the neareſt of all theſe iſlands to Normandy, from which it is ſeparated by a narrow ſtrait, called the Race of Alderney, which is a dangerous paſſage in ſtormy

ſtormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwiſe it is ſafe, and has depth of water for the largeſt ſhips. This iſland is healthy, and the ſoil is remarkable for a fine breed of cows.

SARK is a ſmall iſland depending upon Guernſey; the inhabitants are long lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniencies of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three laſt-mentioned iſlands together, are thought to be about 20,000. The religion of all the four iſlands is that of the church of England.

IRELAND.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.

THE iſland of Ireland is ſituated on the weſt ſide of England, between 6 and 10 degrees weſt longitude, and between 51 and 55 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, or between the middle parallel of the eighth clime, where the longeſt day is 16½ hours, and the 24th parallel, or the end of the 10th clime, where the longeſt day is 17¼ hours.

The extent or ſuperficial content of this kingdom, is, from the neareſt computation and ſurvey, found to be in length 285 miles from Fairhead north, to Miſſenhead ſouth; and from the eaſt part of Down, to the weſt part of Mayo, its greateſt breadth 160 miles, and to contain 11,067,712 Iriſh plantation acres, which makes 17,927,864 acres of Engliſh ſtatute meaſure, and is held to bear proportion to England and Wales as 18 to 30. Mr. Templeman, who makes the length 275, and the breadth 150 miles, gives it an area of 27,457 ſquare miles, with 127 inhabitants to each. From the eaſt part of Wexford to St. David's in Wales, it is reckoned 45 miles, but the paſſage between Donaghadee and Portpatrick in Scotland is little more than 20 miles, and the paſſage from Holyhead in North Wales about 52 miles.

NAMES AND DIVISIONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN. Many conjectures have been formed as to the Latin (Hibernia), the Iriſh, (Erin) as well as the Engliſh name of this iſland. It probably takes its riſe from a Phœnician or Gaelic term, ſignifying the fartheſt habitation weſtward.

It is pretty extraordinary, that even modern authors are not agreed as to the diviſions of Ireland; ſome dividing it into five circuits, and ſome into four provinces, thoſe of Leinſter, Ulſter, Connaught, and Munſter. I ſhall follow the laſt diviſion, as being the moſt common, and likewiſe the moſt ancient.

Counties.		Chief Towns.
Leinſter, 12 counties	Dublin	Dublin
	Louth	Drogheda
	Wicklow	Wicklow
	Wexford	Wexford
	Longford	Longford
	Eaſt Meath	Trim
	Weſt Meath	Mullingar
	King's County	Philipſtown
	Queen's county	Maryborough
	Kilkenny	Kilkenny
	Kildare	Naas and Athy
	Carlow.	Carlow.

Ulſter, 9 counties	Down	Down Patrick
	Armagh	Armagh
	Monaghan	Monaghan
	Cavan	Cavan
	Antrim	Carrickfergus
	Londonderry	Derry
	Tyrone	Omagh
	Fermanagh	Enniſkillen
	Donegall	Lifford.
Connaught, 5 counties	Leitrim	Carrick on Shannon
	Roſcommon	Roſcommon
	Mayo	Ballinrobe & Caſtlebar
	Sligo	Sligo
	Galway.	Galway
Munſter, 6 counties	Clare	Ennis
	Cork	Cork
	Kerry	Tralee
	Limerick	Limerick
	Tipperary	Clonmel
	Waterford.	Waterford.

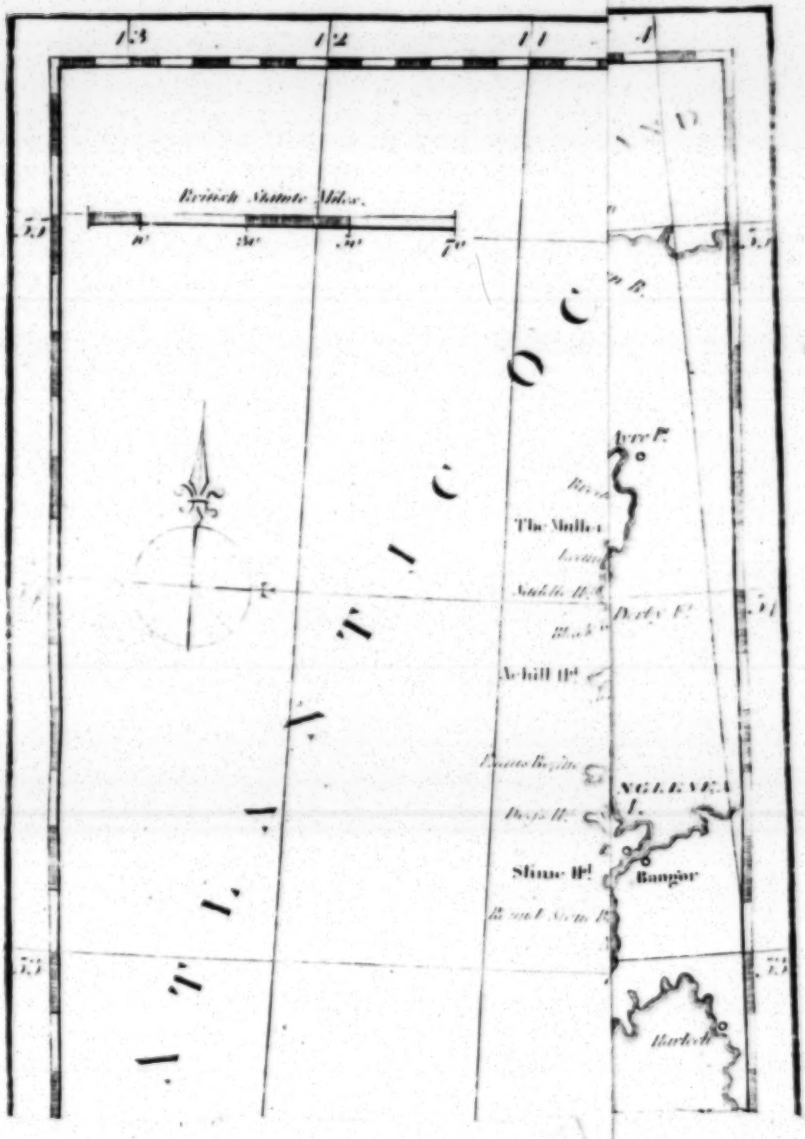
CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, excepting that it is more moiſt, the ſeaſons in general being much wetter. From the reports of various regiſters it appears, that the number of days on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the ſame years in England. But without the evidence of regiſters, it is certain, that moiſture (even without rain), is not only more characteriſtic of the climate of this iſland than that of England, but is alſo one of the worſt and moſt inconvenient circumſtances. This is accounted for in obſerving, that "the weſterly winds, ſo favourable to other regions, and ſo benign even in this, by qualifying the rigour of the northern air, are yet hurtful in the extreme. Meeting with no lands on this ſide of America to break their force, and proving in the general too powerful for the counteraction of the ſhifting winds from the eaſtern and African continents, they waft hither the vapours of an immenſe ocean. By this cauſe, the ſky in Ireland is much obſcured; and, from the nature of reſt and condenſation, theſe vapours deſcend in ſuch conſtant rains, as threaten deſtruction to the fruits of the earth in ſome ſeaſons. This unavoidable evil from natural cauſes is aggravated by the increaſe of it from others, which are either moral or political. The hand of induſtry hath been long idle in a country where almoſt every advantage muſt be obtained from its labour, and where diſcouragements on the labourer muſt neceſſarily produce a ſtate of languor. Ever ſince the neglect of agriculture in the ninth century, the rains of ſo many ages ſubſiding on the lower grounds, have converted moſt of the extenſive plains into moſſy moraſſes, and near a tenth part of this beautiful iſle is become a repoſitory for ſtagnated waters, which, in the courſe of evaporation, impregnate the air with noxious exhalations *." But, in many reſpects the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England; the

* O'Connor's Diſſertations.

ſum-


British Statute Miles
ATLANTIC OCEAN
A Correct Map of IRELAND from the best AUTHORITIES 1798.
Engraved for D. Crosbie & Son Dublin
MAYO
CLARE
LIMERICK
Cape Clear I.


9
8
7
6
5
4
SCOTLAND
IRISH SEA
ST GEORGE'S CHANNEL
BRISTOL CHANNEL
CARDIGAN BAY
WALES
ULSTER
LEINSTER
MUNSTER
CONNAUGHT
DONEGAL
LONDON DERRY
ANTRIM
TYRONE
DOWN
FERMANAGH
ARMAGH
MONAGHAN
SLIGO
CAVAN
LOUTH
MEATH
WEST MEATH
DUBLIN
KILDARE
KINGS CO
QUEENS CO
WICKLOW
WEXFORD
CARLOW
KILKENNY
TIPPERARY
LIMERICK
CLARE
WATERFORD
CORK
LONG FORD
ROSCOMMON
MAYO
ISLE of MAN
ANGLESEA
Bangor
St Davids
Cork
Limerick
Waterford
Wexford
Dublin
Belfast
Londonderry
Donegal
Sligo
Galway
Tuam
Ballina
Castlebar
Westport
Enniskillen
Omagh
Strabane
Monaghan
Armagh
Newry
Downpatrick
Carrickfergus
Antrim
Coleraine
Giant's Causeway
Portrush
Larne
Belfast
Carrickfergus
Donaghadee
Portpatrick
Stranraer
Whitehaven
Workington
Maryport
Carlisle
Longitude West from London


British Statute Miles
The Mulla
Slieve Bl
Bangor

ſummers being cooler and the winters leſs ſevere. The piercing froſts, the deep ſnows, and the dreadful effects of thunder and lightning, which are ſo frequently obſerved in the latter kingdom, are never experienced here.

The dampneſs above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the growth of graſs, has been uſed as an argument why the inhabitants ſhould confine their attention to the rearing of cattle, to the total deſertion of tillage, and injurious to the conſequent growth of population; but the ſoil is ſo infinitely various, as to be capable of almoſt every ſpecies of cultivation, ſuitable to ſuch latitudes, with a fertility equal to its variety. This is ſo conſpicuous, that it has been obſerved by a reſpectable Engliſh traveller, that "natural fertility, acre for acre, over the two kingdoms, is certainly in favour of Ireland; of this there can ſcarcely be a doubt entertained, when it is conſidered that ſome of the more beautiful, and even beſt cultivated counties in England, owe almoſt every thing to the capital, art and induſtry of its inhabitants."

We ſhall conclude this article with the further ſentiments of the ſame author (Mr. Young), whoſe knowledge of the ſubject, acquaintance with the kingdom, and candour, are unimpeachable.

"The circumſtance which ſtrikes me as the greateſt ſingularity of Ireland, is the rockineſs of the ſoil, which ſhould ſeem at firſt ſight againſt that degree of fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is ſo general that I have good reaſon to believe the whole iſland is one vaſt rock of different ſtrata and kinds riſiug out of the ſea. I have rarely heard of any great depths being ſunk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the ſurface in every part of the kingdom; the flatteſt and moſt fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almoſt as much as the more barren ones. May we not recognize in this the hand of bounteous providence, which has given, perhaps, the moſt ſtoney ſoil in Enrope to the moiſteſt climate in it? If as much rain fell upon the clays in England, (a ſoil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much ſtone) as falls upon the rocks of her ſiſter iſland, thoſe lands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure; thoſe of lime-ſtone, with only a thin covering of mould, have the ſofteſt and moſt beautiful turf imaginable.

"The rockineſs of the ſoil in Ireland is ſo univerſal, that it predominates in every ſort. One cannot uſe with propriety the terms clay, loam, ſand, &c. it muſt be a ſtoney clay, a ſtoney loam, a gravelly ſand. Clay, eſpecially the yellow, is much talked of in Ireland, but it is for want of proper diſcrimination. I have once or twice ſeen almoſt a pure clay upon the ſurface, but it is extremely rare. The true yellow clay is uſually found in a thin ſtratum, under the ſurface mould, and over a rock; harſh, tenacious, ſtoney, ſtrong loams, difficult to work, are not uncommon, but they are quite different from Engliſh clays.

"Friable ſandy loams, dry, but fertile, are very common, and they form the beſt ſoils in the kingdom for tillage and ſheep. Tipperary and Roſcommon abound particularly in them. The moſt fertile of all are the bullock-paſtures of Limerick, and the banks of the Shannon in Clare, called the Corcaſſes. Theſe are a mellow, putrid, friable loam.

"Sand, which is ſo common in England, and yet more common through France, Germany and Poland, quite from Gibraltar to Peterſburgh, is no where met with in Ireland, except in narrow ſlips of hillocks, upon the ſea-coaſt. Nor did I ever meet with or hear of a chalky ſoil.

Be-

"Beſides the great fertility of the ſoil, there are other circumſtances, which come within my ſphere to mention. Few countries can be better watered by large and beautiful rivers; and it is remarkable that by much the fineſt parts of the kingdom are on the banks of theſe rivers. Witneſs the Suir, Blackwater, the Liffey, the Boyne, the Nore, the Barrow, and part of the Shannon; they waſh a ſcenery that can hardly be exceeded. From the rockineſs of the country, however, there are few of them that have not obſtructions, which are great impediments to inland navigation.

"The mountains of Ireland give to travelling that intereſting variety, which a flat country can never abound with. And, at the ſame time, they are not in ſuch number as to confer the uſual character of poverty which uſually attend them. I was either upon or very near the moſt conſiderable in the kingdom. Mangerton, and the Reeks in Kerry; the Galties in Cork; thoſe of Mourne in Down; Crow Patrick and Nephin, in Mayo; theſe are the principal in Ireland, and they are of a character in height and ſublimity which ſhould render them the object of every traveller's attention." The ſoil, though rocky, is extremely fertile, perhaps beyond that of England itſelf, when properly cultivated. Paſturage, tillage, and meadow ground abound in this kingdom; but of late tillage was too much diſcountenanced, though the ground is excellent for the culture of all grains; and in ſome of the northern parts of the kingdom abundance of hemp and flax are raiſed, a cultivation of infinite advantage to the linen manufacture. Ireland rears vaſt numbers of black cattle and ſheep, and the Iriſh wool is excellent. The prodigious ſupplies of butter and ſalt proviſions (fiſh excepted) ſhipped at Cork, and carried to all parts of the world, afford the ſtrongeſt proofs of the natural fertility of the Iriſh ſoil.

The bogs of Ireland are very extenſive: that of Allen extends 80 miles, and is computed to contain 300,000 acres. There are others alſo which are very extenſive, and ſmaller ones ſcattered over the whole kingdom; but it has been obſerved, that theſe are not in general more than are wanted for fuel.

RIVERS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND LAKES. The numerous rivers, enchanting lakes, ſpacious bays, commodious havens, harbours, and creeks, with which Ireland abounds, greatly enrich and beautify this country. The Shannon iſſues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrem, ſerves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a courſe of 150 miles, forming in its progreſs many beautiful lakes, it falls into the Atlantic ocean, between Kerry-Point and Loop-head, where it is nine miles broad. The navigation of this river is interrupted by a ridge of rocks ſpreading quite acroſs it, ſouth of Kilalloe; but this might be remedied by a ſhort canal, at the expence of 10 or 12,000l. and communication might alſo be made with other rivers to the great benefit of the nation. The Ban falls into the ocean near Coleraine: the Boyne falls into St. George's channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a ſpacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir water the ſouth part of the kingdom, and, after uniting their ſtreams below Roſs, they fall into the Channel, at Waterford haven.

But the bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which every where indent the coaſt, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country beyond any country in Europe beſt fitted for foreign commerce. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Dundrum, Carlingford, Dundalk

Dublin

Dublin, Waterford, Dungarven, Cork, Kinſale, Baltimore, Glandore, Dunmanus, Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Shannonmouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegall, Killebegs, Lough-Swilly, and Lough-Foyle.

Ireland contains a vaſt number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulſter and Connaught. Many of them produce large quantities of fine fiſh: and the great lake Neagh, between the counties of Antrim, Down, and Armagh, is remarkable for its petrifying quality. Some of the Iriſh lakes afford the moſt beautiful and romantic proſpects, particularly that of Killarney, which takes its name from a ſmall town in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is entirely ſurrounded with mountains, rocks and precipices, the immenſe declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with evergreens, from near their tops to the lakes themſelves; among which are a number of rivulets trembling over the precipices, ſome from heights of little leſs than 300 feet. On the top of one of the ſurrounding mountains is a ſmall round lake of about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch Bowl. From the ſurface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards, and when viewed from the circular top has a moſt aſtoniſhing appearance. The depth of it is vaſtly great, but not unfathomable, as the natives pretend. The diſcharge of the ſuperfluous waters of this bowl, through a chaſm into the middle lake, forms one of the fineſt caſcades in the world, viſible for 150 yards. The echoes among the hills ſurrounding the ſouthern parts of the lake, which is moſtly incloſed, are equally delightful and aſtoniſhing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmare, has placed ſome cannon in the moſt proper places for the amuſement of travellers; and the diſcharge of theſe pieces is tremendous, reſembling moſt the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which ſeems to travel the ſurrounding ſcenery, and die away among the diſtant mountains. Here alſo muſical inſtruments, eſpecially the horn and trumpet, afford the moſt delightful entertainment, and raiſe a concert ſuperior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vaſt and craggy heights that ſurround the lake, is one ſtupendous and frightful rock, the front of which towards the water is a moſt horrid precipice, called the *eagle's neſt*, from the number of thoſe birds which have their neſts in that place.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] The inland navigation of Ireland is very improveable as appears from the canals that have lately been cut through different parts of the kidgdom; one in particular, reaching an extent of 60 miles, berween the Shannon and the Liffey at Dublin, which opens a communication from the Channel to the Atlantic ocean. In ſurveying the grounds for this canal, it was found neceſſary to carry it through a bog 24 miles over, which from the ſpungy nature of that ſoil, became a work of incredible labour and expence, in ſtrengthening the ſides, and other works, to prevent failing in.

MOUNTAINS.] The Iriſh language has been more happy in diſtinguiſhing the ſize of mountains than perhaps any other. A *knock* ſignifies a low hill, unconnected with any other eminence; *ſlieve* marks a craggy high mountain, gradually aſcending and continued in ſeveral ridges; a *bienn* or binn ſignifies a pinnacle, or mountain of the firſt magnitude, ending in a ſharp or abrupt precipice. The two laſt are often ſeen and compounded together in one and the ſame range. Ireland, however, when compared with ſome other countries, is far from being mountainous. The mountains of Mourne and Iveagh, in the county of Downe, are reckoned among ſome of the higheſt in the Kingdom; of which Slieu Denard has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 1056 yards. Many other mountains

are

are found in Ireland, but they contain little or nothing particular, if we except the fabulous hiſtories that are annexed to ſome of them. Some of theſe mountains contain in their bowels, beds of minerals, coals, ſtone, ſlate, and marble, with veins of iron, lead, and copper.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts in Ireland lie in Leinſter, the King's and Queen's counties, and thoſe of Wexford and Carlow. In Ulſter there are great foreſts, and in the county of Donegal, and in the north part of Tyrone; alſo in the country of Fermanagh, along Lough Earne, and in the north part of the county of Down, wherein is ſome good timber; and the oak is eſteemed as good as any of the Engliſh growth, and as fit for ſhip-building.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mines of Ireland are late diſcoveries. Several contain ſilver and lead, and it is ſaid that thirty pounds of their lead-ore produce a pound of ſilver; but the richeſt ſilver mine is at Wicklow. A copper and lead mine have been diſcovered at Tipperary: as likewiſe iron-ore, and excellent free-ſtone for building. In one part of the kingdom is a ſtream of water, very much impregnated with copper, which yields great quantities of that metal. The method taken to obtain it, is by putting broad plates of iron into a place where the water falls from ſome height, ſo that they may receive the whole power of the falling water. The acid, which holds the copper in ſolution, lets it fall in order to diſſolve the iron, to which it has a ſtronger affinity. On the iron the other metal appears in its proper form, incruſting the plate, and gradually penetrating it; ſo that at laſt a plate of copper is left inſtead of iron. Hence, it is ſaid by the vulgar, that this water has a power of changing iron into copper; but this is a miſtake, for the iron is all diſſolved and carried down the ſtream by the acid, which formerly held the copper in ſolution; while the latter deprived of its ſolvent, which then rendered it inviſible, only makes its appearance when the water lets it fall. Some of the Iriſh marble quarries contain a kind of porphyry, being red ſtriped with white. Quarries of fine ſlate are found in moſt of the counties. The coals that are dug at Kilkenny emit very little ſmoke; and it contains a cryſtalline ſtream which has no ſediment. Thoſe peculiarities, with the ſerenity of the air in that place, have given riſe to the well-known proverb that Kilkenny contains fire without ſmoke, water without mud, and air without fog.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] There is little that falls under this head that is peculiar to Ireland, her productions being much the ſame as thoſe of England and Scotland. Ireland affords excellent turf and moſs, which are of vaſt ſervice for firing, where wood and coals are ſcarce. A few wolves were formerly found in Ireland; but they have been long ſince exterminated by their wolf-dogs, which are much larger than maſtiffs, ſhaped like grey-hounds, yet as gentle and governable as ſpaniels. What I have already obſerved about the Iriſh exportation of ſalt proviſions, ſufficiently evinces the prodigious number of hogs and ſheep, as well as black cattle, bred in that kingdom. Rabbits are ſaid to be more plentiful there than in England. The fiſh that are caught upon the coaſts of Ireland are likewiſe in greater plenty than on thoſe of England, and ſome of them larger and more excellent in their kind.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] Ireland is ſaid to contain two millions and a half of inhabitants; but I ſuſpect that the calculation is overcharged by near half a million. As it is of great conſequence to aſcertain as near as poſſible the number

number of inhabitants of Ireland of both religions, we ſhall give them according to the beſt accounts, as they ſtood in the four provinces in 1733:

	Proteſtant Families.	Popiſh Families.
In Ulſter	62,620	38,459
Leinſter	25,238	92,424
Munſter	13,337	106,407
Connaught	4,299	44,133
	Total 105,494	Total 281,423;

which, at five to each family in the country, and ten for Dublin, and ſeven for Cork city, makes in all 2,015,229 ſouls. I am apt to think, when we conſider the waſte of war by ſea and land, and the vaſt emigrations of the Iriſh to England, the Britiſh colonies, and other nations, that the above calculation may nearly ſerve for the preſent times, though the balance of number is certainly greatly riſen on the ſide of Proteſtantiſm; and in ſome late debates in the Iriſh parliament, it has been aſſerted, that the number of inhabitants of Ireland amount to three millions, it is probable they are now conſiderably above this number.

As to the manners of the ancient Iriſh, Dr. Leland obſerves, that if we make our enqu .es on this ſubject in Engliſh writers, we find their repreſentations odious and diſguſting: if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out into the moſt animated encomiums of their great anceſtors. The one can ſcarcely allow them any virtue: the other, in their enthuſiaſtic ardour, can ſcarce ly diſcover the leaſt imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The hiſtorian of England ſometimes regards them as the moſt deteſtable and contemptible of the human race. The antiquary of Ireland raiſes them to an illuſtrious eminenee, above all other European countries. Yet, when we examine their records, without regard to legendary tales or poetic fictions, we find them, even in their moſt brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civiliſation; a ſtate which exhibits the moſt ſtriking inſtances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With reſpect to the preſent deſcendants of the old Iriſh, or as they are termed by the Proteſtants, the *mere Iriſh*, they are generally repreſented as an ignorant, uncivilized, and blundering ſort of people. Impatient of abuſe and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehenſion, courteous to ſtrangers, and patient of hardſhips. Though in theſe reſpects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their barbariſms are more eaſy to be accounted for, from accidental than natural cauſes. By far the greater number of them are Papiſts, and it is the intereſt of their prieſts, who govern them with abſolute ſway, to keep them in the moſt profound ignorance. They have alſo laboured under many diſcouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but when employed in the ſervice of foreign princes, they have been diſtinguiſhed for intrepidity, courage, and fidelity. Many of their ſurnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which ſignify grandſon and ſon; formerly the *O* was uſed by their chiefs only, or ſuch as piqued themſelves on the antiquity of their families. Their muſic is the bagpipe, but their tunes are generally of a melancholy ſtrain; though ſome of their lateſt airs are lively; and when ſung by an Iriſhman are extremely diverting. The old Iriſh is generally ſpoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where ſome of the old uncouth cuſtoms ſtill

prevail, particularly their funeral howlings; but this cuſtom may be traced in many countries of the continent. Their cuſtom of placing a dead corpſe before their doors, laid out upon tables, having a plate upon their body to excite the charity of paſſengers, is practiſed even in the ſkirts of Dublin, though one would wiſh to ſee it aboliſhed. Their convivial meeting on Sunday afternoon, with dancing to the bagpipe, and more often quarrelling among themſelves, is offenſive to every ſtranger. But, as we have already obſerved, theſe cuſtoms are chiefly confined to the more unpoliſhed provinces of the kingdom, particularly Connaught; the common people there having the leaſt ſenſe of law and government of any in Ireland, excepting their tyrannical landlords or leaſeholders, who ſqueeze the poor without mercy. The common Iriſh, in their manner of living, ſeem to reſemble the ancient Britons, as deſcribed by Roman authors, or the preſent Indian inhabitants of America. Mean huts or cabins built of clay and ſtraw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the ſame materials, ſerve the double purpoſes of accommodating the family, who live and ſleep promiſcuouſly, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or ſuch pieces of furniture as are not in immediate uſe.

Their wealth conſiſts of a cow, ſometimes a horſe, ſome poultry, and a ſpot for potatoes. Coarſe bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and ſometimes fiſh, conſtitute their food; for however plentifully the fields may be ſtocked with cattle, theſe poor natives ſeldom taſte butchers meat of any kind. Their children, plump, robuſt, and hearty ſcarcely known the uſe of cloaths, and are not aſhamed to gaze upon ſtrangers, or make their appearance upon the roads, in that primitive manner.

In this idle and deplorable ſtate, many thouſands have been loſt to the community and to themſelves, who, if they had but an equal chance with their neighbours, of being inſtructed in the real principles of Chriſtianity, and been enured and encouraged to induſtry and labour, would have added conſiderable ſtrength to government. The Spaniards and French, particularly the latter, have not failed to avail themſelves of the uncomfortable ſituation in which the Iriſh were at home, by alluring them to enter their ſervice and in this they have hitherto been aſſiſted by prieſts and jeſuits, whoſe intereſt it was to infuſe into the minds of their credulous diſciples an averſion to the Britiſh government: but we have now the pleaſing proſpect of a happy reformation among theſe people, in conſequence of the late laws paſſed by the parliament of Great Britain in favour of Ireland, as well as from the numerous Engliſh proteſtant working ſchools lately eſtabliſhed over the kingdom; which inſtitution will undoubtedly ſtrike deeper at the root of popery, than all the endeavours of the Britiſh monarchs to reduce them.

The deſcendants of the Engliſh and Scots, ſince the conqueſt of Ireland by Henry II. though not the moſt numerous, form the wealthieſt part of the nation. Of theſe are moſt of the nobility, gentry, and principal traders, who inhabit the eaſtern and northern coaſts, where moſt of the trade of Ireland is carried on; eſpecially Belfaſt, Londonderry, and other parts of the province of Ulſter, which, though the pooreſt ſoil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, by far the beſt cultivated and moſt flouriſhing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots in the reign of James I. and other Preſbyterians, who fled from perſecution in that country in the ſucceeding reigns, planted themſelves and eſtabliſhed that great ſtaple of Iriſh wealth, the linen manufactory, which they have ſince carried on and brought to the utmoſt perfection. From this ſhort review, it appears, that the preſent in-

inhabitants are compoſed of three diſtinct claſſes of people; the old Iriſh, poor, ignorant, and depreſſed, who inhabit, or rather exiſt, upon the interior and weſtern parts; the deſcendants of the Engliſh, who inhabit Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, and who gave a new appearance to whole coaſt facing England, by the introduction of arts, commerce, ſcience, and more liberal and cultivated ideas of the true God and primitive Chriſtianity; thirdly, emigrants from Scotland in the northern provinces, who, like the others, are ſo zealouſly attached to their own religion and manner of living, that it will require ſome ages before the inhabitants of Ireland are ſo thoroughly conſolidated and blended as to become one people. The gentry, and better ſort of the Iriſh nation, in general differ little in language dreſs, manners, and cuſtoms, from thoſe of the ſame rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hoſpitality is well known; but in this they are ſometimes ſuſpected of more oſtentation than real friendſhip.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion and eccleſiaſtical diſcipline of Ireland is the ſame with that of England. Among the bulk of the people in the moſt uncultivated parts, popery, and that too of the moſt abſurd, illiberal kind, is prevalent. The Iriſh papiſts ſtill retain their nominal biſhops and dignitaries, who ſubſiſt on the voluntary contributions of their votaries. But even the blind ſubmiſſion of the latter to their clergy, does not prevent Proteſtantiſm from making a very rapid progreſs in the towns and communities. How far it may be the intereſt of England, that ſome kind of balance between the two religions ſhould be kept up, I ſhall not here enquire.

Ireland contains at leaſt as many ſectaries as England, particularly Preſbyterians, Baptiſts, Quakers, and Methodiſts, who are all of them connived at or tolerated. Great efforts have been made, ever ſince the days of James I. in erecting free-ſchools for civilizing and converting the Iriſh Papiſts to Proteſtantiſm. The inſtitution of the incorporated ſociety for promoting Engliſh Proteſtant working-ſchools, though of no older date than 1717, has been amazingly ſucceſsful, as have many inſtitutions of the ſame kind, in introducing induſtry and knowledge among the Iriſh; and no country in the world can ſhew greater public ſpirited efforts than have been made by the government of Ireland, ſince that time, for theſe purpoſes; but many of the parliamentary grants of this kind have been trifled with and perverted.

ARCHBISHOPRICKS AND BISHOPRICKS.] The archbiſhopricks are four; Armagh, Dublin, Caſhel, and Tuam.

The biſhopricks are eighteen, viz. Clogher, Clonfert, Cloyne, Cork, Derry, Down, Dromore, Elphin, Kildare, Killala, Kilmore, Killaloe, Leighlin, Limerick, Meath, Oſſory, Raphoe, and Waterford.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the Iriſh is fundamentally the ſame with the Britiſh and Welch, and a dialect of the Celtic, which is made uſe of by the Scotch Highlanders, oppoſite the Iriſh coaſts. It is, however, in a great meaſure defaced by provincial alterations, but not ſo altered as to render the Iriſh, Welch, and Highlanders, unintelligible to each other. The uſage of the Iriſh language, occaſions among the common people, who ſpeak both that and the Engliſh, a diſagreeable tone in ſpeaking, which diffuſes itſelf among the vulgar in general, and even among the better ſort, who do not underſtand Iriſh. It is probable, however, that a few ages hence the latter will be accounted among the dead languages.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Learning ſeems to have been culti-

vated in Ireland at a very early period. Mr. O'Halloran ſays, that the Iriſh 'appear to have been, from the moſt remote antiquity, a poliſhed people, and that with propriety they may be called, the Fathers of Letters.' We are even told, that Egypt received arts and letters from Niulus the Phœnician, who is repreſented as the great anceſtor of the Iriſh nation. But theſe accounts are conſidered by many as fabulous: and it has been obſerved that no literary monuments have yet been diſcovered in Ireland earlier than the introduction of Chriſtianity into this country; and that the evidence of any tranſaction previous to this period, reſts entirely on the credit of Chriſtian writers, and their collections from old poets, or their tranſcripts of records deemed to have been made in the times of Paganiſm.

It is ſaid, that when St. Patrick * landed in Ireland, he found many holy and learned Chriſtian preachers there, whoſe votaries were pious and obedient. Camden obſerves, that, 'the Iriſh ſcholars of St. Patrick profited ſo notably in Chriſtianity, that, in the ſucceeding age, Ireland was termed *Sanctorum Patria*. Their monks ſo greatly excelled in learning and piety, that they ſent whole flocks of moſt learned men into all parts of Europe, who were the firſt founders of Lieuxeu abbey, in Burgundy; of the abbey Bobie, in Italy; of Wirtzburgh, in Franconia; St. Gall, in Switzerland: and of Malmſbury, Lindisfarran, and many other monaſteries, in Britain.' We have alſo the teſtimony of venerable Bede, that about the middle of the ſeventh century, many nobles, and other orders of the Anglo-Saxons, retired from their own country into Ireland, either for inſtruction, or for an opportunity of living in monaſteries of ſtricter diſcipline: and that the Scots (as he ſtyles the Iriſh) maintained them, taught them, and furniſhed them with books, without fee or reward: 'a moſt honourable teſtimony,' ſays lord Lyttleton, 'not only to the learning, but likewiſe to the hoſpitality and bounty of that nation.' Dr. Leland remarks, that a conflux of foreigners to a retired iſland, at a time when Europe was in ignorance and confuſion, gave peculiar luſtre to this ſeat of learning: nor is it improbable or ſurpriſing, that ſeven thouſand ſtudents ſtudied at Armagh, agreeable to the accounts of Iriſh writers, though the ſeminary of Armagh was but one of thoſe numerous colleges erected in Ireland.

In modern times, the Iriſh have alſo diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the republic of letters. Archbiſhop Uſher does honour to literature itſelf. Dean Swift, who was a native of Ireland, has perhaps never been equalled in the walks of wit, humour, and ſatire. The ſprightlineſs of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama. And among the men of diſtinguiſhed genius whom Ireland has lately produced, may alſo be particularly mentioned Sir Richard Steele, biſhop Berkely, Parnel, Sterne, and Goldſmith.

UNIVERSITY.] Ireland contains but one univerſity, which is denominated Trinity college. It conſiſts of two ſquares, in the whole of which are thirty-three buildings, of eight rooms each. Three ſides of one of the ſquares are of brick, and the fourth is a very ſuperb library, but being built of bad ſtone, it is unfortunately mouldering away. The inſide is beautiful and commodious, and embelliſhed with the buſts of ſeveral ancient and modern worthies. A great part of the books on one ſide were collected by archbiſhop Uſher, who was one of the original members of this body, and the moſt learned man it ever produced. The new ſquare, three ſides of which have been built

* It has been affirmed, that St. Patrick was a Scotchman; but Mr. O'Halloran denies this, and ſays, that 'it appears from the moſt authentic records, that Patrick was from Wales.'

within

within about twenty years, by parliamentary bounty, and from thence called Parliament Square, is of hewn ſtone; and the front of it next the city of Dublin, is ornamented with pilaſtres, feſtoons, &c. The provoſt's houſe has an elegant little front, entirely of Portland ſtone. The chapel is a very mean ſtructure, as is alſo the old hall, wherein college exerciſes are performed; but the new hall in which the members of the college dine, is a fair and large room In their muſeum, is a ſet of figures in wax, repreſenting females in every ſtate of pregnancy. They are done upon real ſkeletons, and are the labours of almoſt a whole life of a French artiſt.

This ſeminary was founded and endowed by queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation conſiſted only of a provoſt, three fellows, and three ſcholars which has from time to time been augmented to twenty-two fellows, ſeventy ſcholars, and thirty ſizers. However, the whole number of ſtudents is at preſent about four hundred; who are of three claſſes, fellow-commoners, penſioners, and ſizers or ſervitors. Of the fellows, ſeven are called ſeniors; and the annual income of each of theſe is about ſeven hundred pounds. The provoſtſhip is ſuppoſed to be worth three thouſand pounds a year. Trinity-college has a power of conferring degrees of bachelors, maſters, and doctors, in all the arts and faculties. The viſitors are, the chancellor or vice-chancellor, and the archbiſhop of Dublin.

ANTIQTITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. I have already mentioned the wolf-dogs in Ireland. The Iriſh goſhawks and gerfalcons are celebrated for their ſhape and beauty. The mooſe-deer is thought to have been formerly a native of this iſland, their horns being ſometimes dug up of ſo great a ſize, that one part has been found near eleven feet from the tip of the right horn to the tip of the left; but the greateſt natural curioſity in Ireland is the Giant's Cauſeway in the county of Antrim, about eight miles from Colerain, which is thus deſcribed by Dr. Pocoke, late biſhop of Oſſory, a celebrated traveller and antiquary. He ſays, "that he meaſured the moſt weſterly point at high water, to the diſtance of 360 feet from the cliff; but was told, that at low water it extended 60 feet farther upou a deſcent, till it was loſt in the ſea. Upon meaſuring the eaſtern point, he found it 540 feet from the cliff; and ſaw as much more of it as of the other, where it winds to the eaſt, and is, like that, loſt in the water.

The cauſeway is compoſed of pillars all of angular ſhapes, from three ſides to eight. The eaſtern point, where it joins the rock, terminates in a perpendicular cliff, formed by the upright ſides of the pillars, ſome of which are thirty-three feet four inches high. Each pillar conſiſts of ſeveral joints or ſtones, lying one upon another, from ſix inches to about one foot in thickneſs; and what is very ſurpriſing, ſome of theſe joints are ſo convex, that their prominences are nearly quarters of ſpheres, round each of which is a ledge, which holds them together with the greateſt firmneſs, every ſtone being concave on the other ſide, and fitting in the exacteſt manner the convexity of the upper part of that beneath it. The pillars are from one to two feet in diameter, and generally conſiſt of about forty joints, moſt of which ſeparate very eaſily and one may walk along upon the tops of the pillars as far as to the edge of the water.

"But this is not the moſt ſingular part of this extraordinary curioſity, the cliffs themſelves being ſtill more ſurpriſing. From the bottom, which is of black ſtone, to the height of about ſixty feet, they are divided at equal diſtances by ſtripes of a reddiſh ſtone, that reſembles a cement, about four inches in thickneſs; upon this there is another ſtratum of the ſame black ſtone, with a ſtratum of five inches thick of the red. Over this is another

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ſtratum ten feet thick, divided in the ſame manner; then a ſtratum of the red ſtone twenty-feet deep, and above that a ſtratum of upright pillars; above theſe pillars lies another ſtratum of black ſtone, twenty feet high; and, above this again, another ſtratum of upright pillars, riſing in ſome places to the tops of the cliffs, in others not ſo high, and in others again above it, where they are called the chimneys. The face of theſe cliffs extends about three Engliſh miles.

The cavities, the romantic proſpects, cataracts, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects to be met with in Ireland, are too numerous to be called rarities, and ſeveral pamphlets have been employed in deſcribing them.

As to the artificial rarities in Ireland, the chief are the round Pharos, or ſtone-towers, found upon the coaſts, and ſuppoſed to be built by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical incurſions, who made uſe of them as ſpy-towers or barbicans, light houſes or beacons.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is in magnitude and the number of inhabitants, the ſecond city in the Britiſh dominions; much about the ſize of Stockholm, Copenhagen, Berlin, and Marſeilles, and is ſuppoſed to contain near 200,000 inhabitants. It is ſituated 270 miles northweſt of London, and near ſixty miles weſt from Holyhead in North Wales, the uſual ſtation of the paſſage veſſels between Great Britain and Ireland. Dublin ſtands about ſeven miles from the ſea, at the bottom of a large and ſpacious bay, to which it gives name, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almoſt into two equal parts, and is banked in through the whole length of the city, on both ſides, which form ſpacious and noble quays, where veſſels below the firſt bridge load and unload before the merchants' doors and warehouſes. A ſtranger upon entering the bay of Dublin, which is about ſeven miles broad, and in ſtormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably ſurpriſed with the beautiful proſpect on each ſide, and the diſtant view of Wicklow mountains; but Dublin, from its low ſituation, makes no great appearance. The increaſe of Dublin, within theſe laſt twenty years, is incredible, and it is generally ſuppoſed that 7000 houſes have been added to the city and ſuburbs ſince the reign of queen Anne. The number of houſes in the year 1777, was 17,151, and there have been many new buildings erected ſince. This city, in its appearance, bears a near reſemblance to London. The houſes are of brick; the old ſtreets are narrow and mean, but the new ſtreets are as elegant as thoſe of the metropolis of Great Britain. Sackville-ſtreet, which is ſometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houſes are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole, at an equal diſtance from the ſides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for the ſea veſſels, as far as the cuſtom-houſe, or centre of the city, is but ſmall when compared with the Thames of London. Over it are two handſome bridges, lately built of ſtone, in imitation of that at Weſtminſter, and there are three others that have little to recommend them. Formerly the centre of Dublin, towards the cuſtomhouſe, was crowded and inconvenient for commercial purpoſes; but of late, a new ſtreet has been opened, leading from Eſſex-bridge to the caſtle, where the lord lieutenant reſides. A new Exchange has been lately erected, an elegant ſtructure of white ſtone, richly embelliſhed with ſemi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments.

The barracks are pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence near the river. They conſiſt of four large courts, in which are generally quartered four battallions of foot, and one regiment of horſe; from hence the caſtle and city guards

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are relieved daily. They are ſaid to be the largeſt and completeſt building of the kind in Europe, being capable of containing 3000 foot and 100 horſe.

The linen hall was erected at the public expence, and opened in the year 1728, for the reception of ſuch linen cloths as were brought to Dublin for ſale, for which there are convenient apartments. It is entirely under the direction of the truſtees for the encouragement of the linen manufactory of Ireland, who are compoſed of the lord chancellor, the primate, the archbiſhop of Dublin, and the principal part of the nobility and gentry. This national inſtitution is productive of great advantages, by preventing many frauds which otherwiſe would be committed in a capital branch of trade, by which many thouſands are employed, and the kingdom greatly enriched.

Stephen's Green is a moſt extenſive ſquare, round which is a gravel walk of near a mile. Here genteel company walk in the evenings, and on Sundays after two o'clock, and in fine weather make a very gay appearance. Many of the houſes round the Green are very ſtately, but a want of uniformity is obſervable throughout the whole. Ample amends will be made for this defect by another ſpacious ſquare near Stephen's Green, now laid out and partly built. The houſes being lofty, uniform, and carried on with ſtone as far as the firſt floor, will give the whole an air of magnificence, not exceeded by any thing of the kind in Britain, if we except Bath. The front of Trinity-college, extending above 3000 feet, is built of Portland ſtone in the fineſt taſte.

The parliament houſe was begun in 1729, and finiſhed in 1739, at the expence of 40,000l. This ſuperb pile was in general of the Ionic order, and was juſtly accounted one of the foremoſt architectural beauties. The portico in particular was, perhaps, without parallel; the internal parts had alſo many beauties, and the manner in which the building was lighted, has been much admired. This ſuperb building, on the 27th of February 1792 was obſerved to be in flames, about 5 o'clock in the afternoon, when the houſe of Lords, as well as the Commons was ſitting, and in full debate. When the alarm was given, one of the members made his way to the roof, and looking down into the houſe from one of the ventilators, confirmed the apprehenſions of thoſe within, by ſaying the dome was ſurrounded by fire, and would tumble into the houſe in five minutes. The volume of fire, by which the dome was ſurrounded, ſoon made apertures on all ſides, by melting the copper from the woodwork, and thus exhibiting the cavity of the dome filled with flames like a large furnace, which at about half paſt ſix tumbled into the houſe with one great craſh. The valuable library, and all the papers of importance, were ſaved.

But one of the greateſt and moſt laudable undertakings that this age can boaſt of, is the building a ſtone wall about the breadth of a moderate ſtreet, and of a proportionable height, and three miles in length, to confine the channel of the bay, and to ſhelter veſſels in ſtormy weather.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord-mayor, &c. the ſame as in London. Every third year, the lord mayor, and the twenty-four companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city, and its liberties, which they call riding the Franchiſes. Upon this occaſion the citizens vie with each other, in ſhew and oſtentation, which is ſometimes productive of diſagreeable conſequences to many of their families. In Dublin there are two large theatres, that are generally well filled, and which ſerve as a kind of nurſery to thoſe in London. In this city are 18 pariſh churches,

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8 chapels, 3 churches for French, and 1 for Dutch proteſtantss, 7 preſbyterian meeting houſes, 1 for methodiſts, 2 for quakers, and 16 Roman catholic chapels. A royal hoſpital, like that at Chelſea, for invalids; a lying-in-hoſpital, with gardens, built and laid out in the fineſt taſte; an hoſpital for lunatics, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who himſelf died a lunatick; and ſundry other hoſpitals for patients of every kind. Some of the churches have been lately rebuilt; and others are rebuilding in a more elegant manner. And, indeed, whatever way a ſtranger turns himſelf in this city, he will perceive a ſpirit of elegance and magnificence; and if he extends his view over the whole kingdom, he will conclude that works of ornament and public utility in Ireland, almoſt keep pace with thoſe erecting, great as they are, over the different parts of Great Britain. For it muſt be acknowledged that no nation in Europe, comparatively ſpeaking, has expended ſuch ſums as the grants of the Iriſh parliament, which has been, and continues to be, the life and ſoul of whatever is carried on; witneſs the many noble erections, churches hoſpitals, bridges; the forming of harbours, public roads, canals, and other public and private undertakings.

It has, however, been matter of ſurpriſe, that with all this ſpirit of national improvement, few or no good inns are to be met with in Ireland. In the capital, which may be claſſed among the ſecond order of cities of Europe, there is not one inn which deſerves that name. This may, in ſome meaſure, be accounted for, by the long, and ſometimes dangerous paſſage from Cheſter and Hollyhead to Ireland, which prevents the gentry of England, with their families, from viſiting that iſland; but as it is now propoſed to make turnpike roads to Portpatrick in Scotland, from whence the paſſage is ſhort and ſafe, the roads of Ireland, may by this means, become more frequented, eſpecially when the rural beauties of that kingdom are more generally known. For though in England, France, and Italy, a traveller meets with views the moſt luxuriant and rich, he is ſometimes cloyed with a ſameneſs that runs through the whole: but in thoſe countries of North Britain and Ireland, the rugged mountains, whoſe tops look down upon the clouds, and extenſive lakes, enriched with buſhy iſlands, the cavities, glens, cataracts, the numerous feathered creation, hopping from cliff to cliff, and other pleaſing and uncommon natural objects, that frequently preſent themſelves in various forms and ſhapes, have a wonderful effect upon the imagination, and are pleaſing to the fancy of every admirer of nature, however rough and unadorned with artificial beauties.

Cork is deſervedly reckoned the ſecond city in Ireland, in magnitude, riches, and commerce. It lies 129 miles ſouth-weſt of Dublin, and contains above 8500 houſes. Its haven is deep, and well ſheltered from all winds; but ſmall veſſels only can come up to the city, which ſtands about ſeven miles up the river Lee. This is the chief port of merchants in the kingdom; and there is, perhaps, more beef, tallow, and butter ſhipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland put together. Hence there is a great reſort of ſhips to this port, particularly of thoſe bound from Great Britain to Jamaica, Barbadoes, and all the Caribbee iſlands, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. It appears, that in the reign of Edward IV. there were 11 churches in Cork, though there are now only ſeven, and yet it has ever ſince that time been eſteemed a thriving city; but it muſt be obſerved, that beſides the churches, there are at this time ſix maſs-houſes, two diſſenting meeting-houſes, another for quakers, and a chapel for French proteſtants. Kinſale is a populous and ſtrong town, with an excellent harbour, and conſiderable commerce and ſhipping; and it is, moreover, occaſionally a ſtation for the navy royal; for which end this port is furniſhed with proper naval officers

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and ſtorekeepers. Waterford is reckoned next to Cork for riches and ſhipping, and contains 2561 houſes. It is commanded by Duncannon Fort, and on the weſt ſide of the town is a citadel. Limerick is a handſome, populous, commercial, ſtrong city; it lies on both ſides the Shannon, and contains 5257 houſes.

Belfaſt is a large ſea-port and trading town at the mouth of the Lagen water, where it falls into Carrickfergus Bay. Downpatrick has a flouriſhing linen manufacture, Carrickfergus (or Knoekfergus) by ſome deemed the capital town of the province, has a good harbour and caſtle, but little commerce. Derry (or Londonderry, as it is moſt uſually called) ſtands on Lough-Foyl, is a ſtrong little city, having linen manufactures, with ſome ſhipping. All this extreme north part of Ireland is ſituated ſo near to Scotland, that they are in ſight of each others coaſts. Donegal, the county-town of the ſame name (otherwiſe called the county of Tyrconnel), is a place of ſome trade; as is likewiſe Enniſkilling. All which laſt mentioned places, and many more (though leſs conſiderable ones), are chiefly and moſt induſtriouſly employed in the manufacturing of linen and linen thread, to the benefit of the whole kingdom, which, by its vaſt annual exportations of linen into England, is enabled to pay for the great annual importations from England into Ireland; and likewiſe to render the money conſtantly drawn from Ireland into England, by her abſentees, leſs grievous to her.

Though Ireland contains no ſtrong places, according to the modern improvements in fortification, yet it has ſeveral forts and garriſons, that ſerve as comfortable ſinecures to military officers. The chief are Londonderry and Culmore Fort, Cork, Limerick, Kinſale, Duncannon, Roſs-Caſtle, Dublin, Charlemont, Galway, Carrickfergus, Maryborough, and Athlone. Each of theſe forts are furniſhed with deputy governors, under various denominations, who have pecuniary proviſions from the government.

It cannot be pretended, that Ireland is as yet furniſhed with any public edifices, to compare with thoſe to be found in countries where ſovereigns and their courts reſide; but it has ſome elegant public buildings, which do honour to the taſte and public ſpirit of the inhabitants. The caſtle, Eſſex-bridge, and ſeveral edifices about Dublin, already mentioned, are magnificent; and elegant pieces of architecture, and many noble Gothic churches and other buildings, are to be ſeen in Ireland.

The Iriſh nobility, and gentry of fortune, now vie with thoſe of England in the magnificent ſtructure of their houſes, and the elegance of their ornaments; but it would be unjuſt, where there are ſo many equal in taſte and magnificence, to particularize any. In ſpeaking of the public buildings of this kingdom, I muſt not forget the numerous barracks where the ſoldiers are lodged, equally to the eaſe and conveniency of the inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] What I have ſaid of England under this head, is in a great meaſure applicable to Ireland. Her exports are linen-cloth, yarn, lawns, and cambrics, horſes, and black cattle, beef, pork, green hides, tanned leather, calf ſkins dried, tallow, butter, candles, cheeſe, ox and cow-horns, ox-hair, horſe-hair, lead, copper-ore, herrings, dried fiſh, rabbit-ſkins, and fur, otter-ſkins, goat-ſkins, ſalmon, and ſome other particulars; but it is probable that the exports of Ireland will be greatly increaſed by the late laws paſſed in favour of the trade of that kingdom. It is certain that the Iriſh have carried their inland manufactures, even thoſe of luxury, to a conſiderable height, and that their lord lieutenants, and their courts have of late encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, make uſe of no other.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe I know none in Ireland, as the bankers cannot be admitted as ſuch: neither can the Dublin Society for the encouragement of manufactures and commerce, which was incorporated in 1750. The linen-hall, however, that is erected at Dublin, is under as juſt and nice regulations, as any commercial houſe in Europe.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Ireland formerly was only entitled, the dominion or lordſhip of Ireland, and the king's ſtyle was no other than Dominus Hiberniæ, lord of Ireland, till the 33d. year of king Henry VIII. when he aſſumed the title of king, which is recogniſed by act of parliament in the ſame reign. But as England and Scotland are now one and the ſame kingdom, and yet differ in their municipal laws; ſo England and Ireland are diſtinct kingdoms, and yet in general agree in their laws. For after the conqueſt of Ireland by king Henry II. the laws of England were received and ſworn to by the Iriſh nation, aſſembled at the council of Liſmore. And as Ireland, thus conquered, planted, and governed, continued in a ſtate of dependence, it was thought neceſſary that it ſhould conform to, and be obliged by, ſuch laws as the ſuperior ſtate thought proper to preſcribe.

But this ſtate of dependence being almoſt forgotten, and ready to be diſputed by the Iriſh nation, it was thought neceſſary, ſome years ago, to declare how that matter ſtood; and therefore, by ſtatute 6th of George I. it is declared, "that the kingdom of Ireland ought to be ſubordinate to, and dependent upon the imperial crown of Great Britain, as being inſeparably united thereto; and that the king's majeſty, with the conſent of the lords and commons of Great Britain, in parliament, hath power to make laws to bind the people of Ireland." This determination of the Britiſh parliament, was, however, far from giving general ſatisfaction to the Iriſh nation, many of whom diſputed the dependency of Ireland upon the parliament of Great Britain more than ever. After many ſtruggles, feeling their own ſtrength by means of their volunteer aſſociations, and encouraged and favoured by the ſeveral parties contending for the adminiſtration in England, the Iriſh obtained, in the year 1782, a formal repeal of the above galling ſtatute, which was conſidered as a renunciation on the part of the parliament of Great Britain of every claim of legiſlation over Ireland.

The conſtitution of the Iriſh government, as it ſtands at preſent, with regard to diſtributive juſtice, is nearly the ſame with that of England. A chief governor, who generally goes by the name of lord lieutenant, is ſent over from England by the king, whom he repreſents; but his power is in ſome meaſure reſtrained, and in others enlarged, according to the king's pleaſure, or the exigency of the times. On his entering upon this honourable office, his letters patent are publickly read in the council-chamber; and having taken the uſual oaths before the lord chancellor, the ſword, which is to be carried before him, is delivered into his hands, and he is ſeated in the chair of ſtate, attended by the lord chancellor, the members of the privy council, the peers and nobles, the king at arms, a ſerjeant at mace, and other officers of ſtate; and he never appears publicly without being attended by a body of horſe-guards. Hence, with reſpect to his authority, his train and ſplendor, there is no viceroy in Chriſtendom that comes nearer to the grandeur and majeſty of a king. He has a council compoſed of the great officers of the crown; namely, the chancellor, treaſurer, and ſuch of the archbiſhops, biſhops, earls, barons, judges, and gentlemen, as his majeſty is pleaſed to appoint. The parliament here, as well as in England, is the

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ſupreme court, which is convened by the king's writ, and generally ſits once every year. It conſiſts, as in England, of a houſe of lords and commons. Of the former, many are Engliſh or Britiſh peers, or commons of Great Britain; a few are papiſts, who cannot ſit without being properly qualified; and the number of commons amount to about three hundred. Since the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty, Iriſh parliaments have been rendered octennial. The repreſentation of the people in the ſenate of Ireland, is in many inſtances like that of England, partial and inadequate. As long as a majority of the commons is compoſed of members for inſignificant boroughs, and where a few individuals are devoted to the ſelfiſh or imperious will of a ſtill ſmaller number of lords or abſolute grandees, a ſpirit of venality muſt pervade the political ſyſtem through all the departments of ſtate, corrupt the repreſentatives, and deſtroy the freedom of the legiſlative body. If parliaments were ſtill more limited in their duration, it would be better for the public, and greatly promote national proſperity. The laws are made by the houſe of lords and commons, after which they are ſent to England for the royal approbation; when, if approved of by his majeſty and council, they paſs the great ſeal of England, and are returned.

For the regular diſtribution of juſtice, there are alſo in Ireland four terms held annually for the deciſion of cauſes; and four courts of juſtice, the chancery, king's bench, common-pleas, and exchequer. The high ſheriffs of the ſeveral counties were formerly choſen by the people, but are now nominated by the lord lieutenant. From this general view it appears, that the civil and eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions are almoſt the ſame in Ireland as in England.

Revenues.] In Ireland the public revenue ariſes from hereditary and temporary duties, of which the king is the truſtee, for applying it to particular purpoſes; but there is beſides this, a private revenue ariſing from the ancient demeſne lands, from forfeitures for treaſon and felony, priſage of wines, light-houſe duties, and a ſmall part of the caſual revenue, not granted by parliament; and in this the crown has the ſame unlimited property that a ſubject has in his own freehold. The extent of that revenue is perhaps a ſecret to the public.

The revenue of Ireland is ſuppoſed at preſent to exceed half a million ſterling, of which the Iriſh complain greatly and juſtly, that about 70,000l. is granted in penſions, and a great part to abſentees. Very large ſums are alſo granted by their own parliament for more valuable purpoſes, the improvement of their country and civilizing the people; ſuch as the inland navigation, bridges, highways, churches, premiums, proteſtant ſchools, and other particulars, which do honour to the wiſdom and patriotiſm of that parliament.

Coins.] The coins of Ireland are at preſent of the ſame denominations and the like fabric with thoſe of England, only an Engliſh ſhilling paſſes in Ireland for thirteen pence. What the ancient coins of the Iriſh were, is at preſent a matter of mere curioſity and great uncertainty.

Military strength.] Ireland now maintains and pays a conſiderable body of troops who have been often of ſingular ſervice to England; and the military force of Ireland has been greatly increaſed by the many volunteer aſſociated companies of yeomanry, which have been lately formed in that kingdom; theſe have been highly beneficial in quelling the late rebellion which was raiſed there. Thoſe parts of Ireland that are moſt uncultivated, contain numbers of inhabitants that have very little ſenſe either of divine or human laws, and regular forces are abſolutely neceſſary for keeping them in order;

witneſs the inſurrections of the Whiteboys, and other banditti, who were inſtigated by their prieſts; and the late atrocious rebellion, marked with ſuch circumſtances of unprincipled and diabolical cruelty, as are a diſgrace to humanity; though it muſt be confeſſed that many of the common people in Ireland have laboured under ſuch oppreſſions as afforded them juſt grounds for diſcontent. It does not however, appear, that the bulk of the Iriſh Catholics are fond of a revolution in government.

Order of St. Patrick. This order was inſtituted February 5, and the inſtallation of the firſt knights was performed on the 17th of March, 1783. It conſiſts of the ſovereign and fifteen other knights companions. The lord lieutenants of Ireland for the time being officiate as grand maſters of the order, and the archbiſhop of Armagh is the prelate, the archbiſhop of Dublin the chancellor, and the dean of St. Patrick the regiſter of the order. The knights are inſtalled in the cathedral of St. Patrick, Dublin. Their robes are ſplendid, and the badge is three crowns united together on a croſs, with the motto round *Quis ſeparabit*, 1783, faſtened by an Iriſh harp, to the crown imperial. A ſtar of eight points encircles it on the coat.

History.] The hiſtory of Ireland has been carried to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater juſtice than that of any other country, be diſtinguiſhed into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulſter prince boaſted to the pope of an uninterrupted ſucceſſion of one hundred and ninety ſeven kings of Ireland, to the year 1170. Even the more moderate Iriſh antiquaries carry their hiſtory up to 500 years before the Chriſtian æra, at which time they aſſert, that a colony of Scythians, immediately from Spain, ſettled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into this country; and that however it might have been peopled ſtill earlier from Gaul or Britain, yet Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the ſons of Mileſius, gave a race of kings to the Iriſh, diſtinguiſhed from their days by the name of Gadelians and Scuits, or Scots. But as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and conteſted parts of the Iriſh hiſtory, we ſhall only obſerve, that it was about the middle of the fifth century that the great apoſtle of Ireland, St. Patrick, was employed in the propagation of Chriſtianity in this country, though there had been Chriſtian miſſionaries here long before, by whoſe means it had made a conſiderable progreſs among the inhabitants of Ireland. After this period, Ireland was occaſionally invaded by the Saxon Kings of England; but in the year 795 and 798 the Danes and Norwegians, or, as they were called Eaſterlings, invaded the coaſts of Ireland, and were the firſt who erected ſtone edifices in that kingdom. The common habitations of the Iriſh till that time, were hurdles covered with ſtraw and ruſhes, and but very few of ſolid timber. The natives defended themſelves bravely againſt the Eaſterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork: but they reſided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Iriſh was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The natives, about the year 962, ſeemed to have called to their aſſiſtance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a conſiderable maritime power; and this might have given occaſion for his clergy to call him king of great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was about that time a flouriſhing city, and that the native Iriſh gave the Eaſterlings ſeveral defeats, though ſupported by their countrymen from the continent, the Iſle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the twelfth century, Henry the Second of England formed a deſign of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is ſaid to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from ſome of the Iriſh chieftains, who had af-

afforded conſiderable aſſiſtance to his enemies. His deſign was patronized by the pope, and a fair pretext of attacking Ireland offered about the year 1168. Dermot Mac Murrough, king of Leinſter, and an oppreſſive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince O'Roirk. A confederacy being formed againſt him, under Roderick O'Connor (who it ſeems was the paramount king of Ireland) he was driven from his country, and took refuge in the court of king Henry II. who promiſed to reſtore him, upon taking an oath of fidelity to the crown of England, for himſelf, and all the petty kings depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Mac Dermot's cauſe to the Engliſh barons, and particularly to Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald. Thoſe noblemen undertook the expedition upon much the ſame principles as the Norman and Breton lords did the conqueſt of England under William I. and Strongbow was to marry Mac Dermot's daughter Eva. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year Strongbow arriving with a ſtrong reinforcement, his marriage was celebrated.

The deſcendants of the Danes continued ſtill poſſeſſed of Dublin, which after ſome ineffectual oppoſition made by king O'Connor, was taken and plundered by the Engliſh ſoldiers; but Mac Turkil the Daniſh king, eſcaped to his ſhipping. Upon the death of Dermot Henry II. became jealous of earl Strongbow, ſeized upon his eſtate in England and Wales, and recalled his ſubjects from Ireland. The Iriſh about the ſame time, to the amount of above 60,000, beſieged Dublin, under king O'Connor; but though all Strongbow's Iriſh friends and allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to great extremity, he forced the Iriſh to raiſe the ſiege with great loſs; and going over to England, he appeaſed Henry by ſwearing fealty to him and his heirs, and reſigning into his hands all the Iriſh cities and forts he held. During Strongbow's abſence, Mac Turkil returned with a great fleet, attempted to retake the city of Dublin, but was killed at the ſiege; and in him ended the race of the Eaſterling princes in Ireland.

In 1172, Henry II. attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran ſoldiers, and the flower of his Engliſh nobility, landed near Waterford; and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, excepting the king of Ulſter, but the great king Roderick O'Connor, ſubmitted to Henry, who pretended that O'Connor's ſubmiſſion included that of Ulſter, and that conſequently he was the paramount ſovereign of Ireland. Be that as it will, he affected to keep a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he parcelled out the eſtates of Ireland, as William the Conqueror had done in England, to his Engliſh nobility. He then ſettled a civil adminiſtration at Dublin, as nearly as poſſible to that of England, to which he returned in 1173, having firſt ſettled an Engliſh colony from Briſtol in Dublin, with all the liberties and free cuſtoms, ſay their charters, which the citizens of Briſtol enjoyed. From that time Dublin began to flouriſh—Thus the conqueſt of Ireland was effected by the Engliſh, almoſt with as much eaſe as that of Mexico was by the Spaniards; and for much the ſame reaſons, the rude and unarmed ſtate of the natives, and the differences that prevailed among their princes or leaders.

Henry gave the title of lord of Ireland to his ſon John, who, in 1185, went over in perſon to Ireland; but John and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill uſe of their power, and rendered themſelves hateful to the Iriſh, who were otherwiſe very well diſpoſed towards the Engliſh. Richard I.

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was too much taken up with the cruſades to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland; but king John, after his acceſſion, made amends for his former behaviour towards the Iriſh. He enlarged his father's plan of introducing into Ireland Engliſh laws and officers, and he erected that part of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter, which was within the Engliſh pale, into twelve counties. I find, however, that the deſcendants of the ancient princes in other places paid him no more than a nominal ſubjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exerciſed all acts of ſovereignty within their own ſtates; and indeed this was pretty much the caſe ſo late as the reign of James I. The unſettled reign of Henry III. his wars and captivity gave the Iriſh a very mean opinion of the Engliſh government during his reign; but they ſeem to have continued quiet under his ſon Edward I. Gaveſton, the famous favourite of Edward II. acquired great credit while he acted as lieutenant of Ireland; but the ſucceſſes of the Scotch king, Robert Bruce, had almoſt proved fatal to the Engliſh intereſt in Ireland, and ſuggeſted to the Iriſh the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England to Edward Bruce, king Robert's brother. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the Engliſh governors and armies; and being ſupported by his brother in perſon, he was actually crowned king at Dundalk, and narrowly miſſed being maſter of Dublin. The younger Bruce ſeems to have been violent in the exerciſe of his ſovereignty, and he was at laſt defeated and killed by Bermingham, the Engliſh general. After this Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and paſſed ſeveral excellent acts with regard to that country.

But during the minority of Edward III. the commotions were again renewed in Ireland, and not ſuppreſſed without great loſs and diſgrace on the ſide of the Engliſh. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the Engliſh inhabitants had no inconſiderable ſhare. A ſucceſſion of vigorous, brave governors, at laſt quieted the inſurgents; and about the year 1361, prince Lionel, ſon to Edward III. having married the heireſs of Ulſter, was ſent over to govern Ireland, and, if poſſible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. In this he made a great progreſs but did not entirely accompliſh it. It appears, at this time, that the Iriſh were in a very flouriſhing condition, and that one of the greateſt grievances they complained of, was, that the Engliſh ſent over men of mean birth to govern them. In 1394, Richard II. finding that the execution of his deſpotic ſchemes in England muſt be abortive without farther ſupport, paſſed over to Ireland with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no uſe of force, the Iriſh looked upon his preſence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. Richard, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and beſtowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In ſhort, he behaved, ſo as entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very deſpotic manner in England, he undertook a freſh expedition to Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Iriſh. His army again ſtruck the natives with conſternation, and they threw themſelves upon his mercy. It was during this expedition, that the duke of Lancaſter landed in England; and Richard upon his return, finding himſelf deſerted by his Engliſh ſubjects, on account of his tyranny, and that he could not depend upon the Iriſh, ſurrendered his crown to his rival.

The Iriſh, after Richard's death, ſtill retiained a warm affection for the houſe of York; and upon the revival of that family's claim to the crown, embraced

braced its cauſe. Edward IV. made the earl of Deſmond lord lieutenant of Ireland for his ſervices againſt the Ormond party and other adherents of the houſe of Lancaſter, and he was the *firſt Iriſh chieftain* that obtained this honour. Even the acceſſion of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Iriſh to his title as duke of Lancaſter; they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, who pretended to be the eldeſt ſon of Edward IV. but for this they paid dear, being defeated in, their attempt to invade England. This made them ſomewhat cautious at firſt of joinimg Perkin Warbeck, notwithſtanding his plauſible pretences to be the duke of York, ſecond ſon of Edward IV. He was, however, at laſt recognized as king by the Iriſh; and in the preceding pages, under the hiſtory of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretenſions. Henry behaved with moderation towards his favourers, and was contented with requiring the Iriſh nobility to take a freſh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the deſired effects during the adminiſtration of the two earls of Kildare, the earl of Surry, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by ſupporting its chiefs againſt each other, but they were tampered with by the emperor Charles V. upon which Henry made his natural ſon, the duke of Richmond, his lord lieutenant. This did not prevent the Iriſh from breaking out into rebellion in the year 1540, under Fitz Gerald, who had been lord deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at laſt hanged at Tyburn. After this the houſe of Auſtria found their account in their quarrels with England, to form a ſtrong party among the Iriſh.

About the year 1542, James V. king of Scotland, formed ſome pretenſions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a ſtrong party among the Iriſh themſelves. It is hard to ſay, had he lived, what the conſequence of his claim might have been. Henry underſtood that the Iriſh had a mean opinion of his dignity, as the kings of England had hitherto aſſumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland. He therefore took that of king of Ireland, which had a great effect with the native Iriſh, who thought that allegiance was not due to a lord; and, to ſpeak the truth, it was ſomewhat ſurpriſing that this expedient was not thought of before. It produced a more perfect ſubmiſſion of the native Iriſh to Henry's government than ever had been known; and even O'Neil, who pretended to be ſucceſſor to the laſt paramount king of Ireland, ſwore allegiance to Henry who created him earl of Tyrone.

The pope, however, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria, by remitting money, and ſometimes ſending over troops to the Iriſh, ſtill kept up their intereſt in that kingdom, and drew from them vaſt numbers of men to their armies, where they proved as good ſoldiers as any in Europe. This created inexpreſſible difficulties to the Engliſh government, even in the reign of Edward VI. but it is remarkable, that the Reformation took place in the Engliſh part of Ireland with little or no oppoſition. The Iriſh ſeem to have been very quiet during the reign of queen Mary; but they proved thorns in the ſide of queen Elizabeth. The perpetual diſputes ſhe had with the Roman catholicks, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneaſineſs; and the pope and the houſe of Auſtria always found new reſources againſt her in Ireland. The Spaniards poſſeſſed themſelves of Kinſale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Eſſex, are well known in Engliſh hiſtory.

The lord deputy Mountjoy, who ſucceeded Eſſex, was the firſt Engliſhman who gave a moral blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Iriſh before Kinſale, and bringing Tyrone priſoner

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to England; where he was pardoned by queen Elizabeth in 1602. This lenity, ſhewn to ſuch an offender, is a proof of the dreadful apprehenſions Elizabeth had from the popiſh intereſt in Ireland. James I. confirmed the poſſeſſions of the Iriſh; but ſuch was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attemped to ſeize the caſtle of Dublin; but their plot being diſcovered, their chiefs fled beyond ſeas. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they inſtigated Sir Calim O'Dogharty to a freſh rebellion, by promiſing him ſpeedy ſupplies of men and money from Spain. Sir Calim was killed in the diſpute, and his adherents were taken and executed. The attainders of the Iriſh rebels, which paſſed in the reigns of James and Elizabeth, veſted in the crown 511,465 acres, in the ſeveral counties of Donegal, Tyrone, Coleraine, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh: and enabled the king to make that proteſtant plantation in the North of Ireland, which now, from the moſt rebellious province of the kingdom, is the moſt quiet and reformed.

Thoſe prodigious attainders, however juſt and neceſſary they might be, operated fatally for the Engliſh in the reign of Charles I. The Iriſh Roman Catholics in general, were influenced by their prieſts to hope not only to repoſſeſs the lands of their forefathers, but to reſtore the popiſh religion in Ireland. They therefore entered into a deep and deteſtable conſpiracy for maſſacring all the Engliſh proteſtants in that kingdom. In this they were encouraged by the unhappy diſſentions that broke out between the king and his parliaments in England and Scotland. Their bloody plan being diſcovered by the Engliſh government at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed in 1641 their horrid ſcheme of maſſacre; but authors have not agreed as to the numbers who were murdered; perhaps they have been exaggerated by warm proteſtant writers, ſome of whom have mounted the number of the ſufferers to 40,000; other accounts ſpeak of 10,000 or 12,000 and ſome have even diminiſhed that number *. What followed in conſequence of this rebellion, and the reduction of Ireland by Cromwell, who retaliated the cruelties of the Iriſh Papiſts upon themſelves, belongs to the Hiſtory of England. It is certain that they ſmarted ſo ſeverely, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popiſh ſucceſſor and brother James II. even after the Revolution took place, found an aſylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the aſſiſtance of the natives there, he might remount his throne: but he was deceived, and his own puſillanimity co-operated with his diſappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his ſon-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only victory that king William ever gained in perſon; a victory, however, on which depended the ſafety of the proteſtant religion, and the liberties of the Britiſh empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been reinſtated on the throne, and nothing elſe could have been expected than that being irritated by oppoſition, victorious over his enemies, and free from every reſtraint, he would have trampled upon all rights, civil and religious, and purſued more arbitrary deſigns than before. The army of William conſiſted of 36,000 men, that of James of 33,000, but advantageouſly ſituated. James, it is true, fought at the head of an undiſciplined rabble: but his French auxiliaries were far from

* Mr. Guthrie's account of the numbers killed in the Iriſh maſſacre is much below that generally given. Mr. Hume, after enumerating the various barbarities practiſed by the Papiſts upon the Proteſtants, ſays, "by ſome computations, thoſe, who periſhed by all "thoſe cruelties, are made to amount to an hundred and fifty, or two hundred thouſand; "by the moſt moderate, and probably the moſt reaſonable account, they muſt have been "near 40,000." Hiſt. of England, vol. vi. p. 377. edit. 8vo. 1763.

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behaving as heroes. It muſt be acknowledged, however, that he left both the field and the kingdom too ſoon for a brave man.

Many political reaſons occurred for not driving the Iriſh to deſpair. The friends of the Revolution and the proteſtant religion were ſufficiently gratified out of the forfeited eſtates. It was therefore thought prudent to relax the reins of government, and not to put the forfeitures too rigorouſly into execution. The experience of half a century has confirmed the wiſdom of the above conſiderations. The ſpirit of induſtry has enabled the Iriſh to know their own ſtrength and importance; to which ſome accidental circumſtances have concurred. All her ports were opened for the exportation of wool and woollen yarn to any part of Great Britain; and of late years, acts of parliament have been made for permitting the importation of ſalt beef, pork, butter, cattle, and tallow, from Ireland to Great Britain. But though ſome laws and regulations had occaſionally taken place favourable to Ireland, it muſt be acknowledged, that the inhabitants of that country laboured under conſiderable grievances, in conſequence of ſundry unjuſt and injudicious reſtraints of the parliament of England reſpecting their trade.

The war between Great Britain and her American colonies was attended with very important conſequences in Ireland. By this conteſt, her attention was excited to the reſtrictions on her own manufactures and commerce. In 1779, therefore, the parliament of Ireland, in their addreſſes to the throne, demanded in ſtrong language, the reſtoration of their commercial freedom; hopes were repeatedly held out to them of ſome partial compliance with their requiſition; but when the people of Ireland ſaw that nothing effectual was likely to be done, and that an oppoſition to any relaxation of the commercial laws was pretty general in England, reſolutions were entered into by the inhabitants of the trading towns to prevent the importation of Britiſh manufactures, and aſſociations were entered into of a more effective, but more dangerous nature. The dread of an invaſion from France, added to the circumſtance of the military force of Ireland being continually drained for the ſupport of the American war, furniſhed a plauſible plea for forming military aſſociations, avowedly for the defence of the country againſt foreign enemies; this ſpirit ſoon became univerſal throughout the kingdom; the numbers thus aſſociated and armed are ſaid at laſt to have amounted to upwards of 60,000 men.

Government ſaw theſe proceedings with aſtoniſhment and alarm, to offer the leaſt reſiſtance was vain, and a propoſal to bring them to act under the authority of the government, was rejected with ſcorn. Having provided for the defence of the country, they ſoon began to extend their views. A free and unlimited commerce with all the world was the firſt and great object for which no compenſation could be admitted. This ſtate of things joined to the alarming and perilous ſituation of Great Britain, left to her miniſters no alternative; they were under the neceſſity of yielding to that ſpirit, which they were unable to repreſs: accordingly on the 13th of Decr. the miniſter laid before the houſe, three propoſitions for granting relief to Ireland, they were unanimouſly agreed to, and bills founded upon them, immediately brought in and paſſed.

Theſe conciliatory meaſures produced but a momentary quiet among the people; they ſoon began to proceed farther, and to declare all authority aſſumed by the Britiſh parliament over them in any caſe whatſoever to be a groſs uſurpation. The parliament of Ireland not being ſo forward in acceding to theſe views, as they had expected, a meeting of the volunteer

corps took place on the 15th of February 1783, when the moſt violent reſolutions were adopted, and they declared that in every ſituation, they would maintain with their lives and fortunes the conſtitutional right of the kingdom to be governed only by the king and parliament of Ireland. The ſame ſentiments ſoon became univerſally avowed throughout the kingdom; the plan of conceſſion was again reſorted to. A change having taken place in the Britiſh miniſtry in the ſpring of 1782, the duke of Portland came over as lieutenant, and in April of that year, the declaratory act aſſerting and ſecuring the ſovereignty of the parliament of Great Britain over Ireland, was repealed; and that all doubts and jealouſies might be effectually removed, a bill was paſſed in the following year by the Britiſh legiſlature, containing in the fulleſt and moſt expreſs terms, a relinquiſhment on the part of Great Britain, of all right to interfere with the judgment of the Iriſh courts, or to make laws to bind Ireland in time to come.

Theſe conceſſions great and important as they were to Ireland, diſhonourable and dangerous to Great Britain as ſtriking at the root of the connection between the two countries, did not produce either general or laſting tranquillity. When the government of a country, either through weakneſs or imprudence, is reduced to the neceſſity of yielding to the demands of popular clamour, its conceſſions only prove ſources of new and perhaps more unreaſonable demands; ſuch was the caſe at preſent in Ireland. Agitated by the ſpirit of political innovation, and fluſhed by their late ſucceſſes, the minds of the people were not eaſily tranquillized; during their apparent inaction, they ſeem only to have been in ſearch of an object ſuited to their perturbed and reſtleſs imaginations; and ſuch was the ſubject of parliamentary reform. The volunteers perceiving, on the part of government, ſome indications of a deſign to get rid of them altogether, eagerly fixed upon this popular topic as a centre of union. A grand national convention of delegates from the whole volunteer army was aſſembled at Dublin on the tenth of November 1783; the earl of Charlemont was elected preſident, and on the following day, a committee was appointed to prepare a ſpecific plan of parliamentary reform; by them a number of reſolutions were digeſted, which were ſubmitted to the convention at large, on the twenty eighth of November.

Mr. Flood on the following day, in the houſe of commons, moved for leave to bring in a bill for the more equal repreſentation of the people in parliament. The motion was received by a great majority of the houſe, with the ſtrongeſt marks of diſapprobation. Mr. Yelverton the attorney general inſiſted, that the houſe could not, without yielding to a diſgraceful puſillanimity, conſent to receive propoſitions tendered to them at the point of the bayonet, by a body of armed men; the motion was rejected by a great majority. The houſe then came to a reſolution, that they will ſupport the rights and privileges of parliament againſt all encroachments. An addreſs was alſo ordered to be preſented to the king, expreſſing the happineſs they enjoyed under the eſtabliſhed government, and aſſuring him of their determination to ſupport the preſent conſtitution with their lives and fortunes. This addreſs being ſent up to the Lords received their concurrence.

Thus by the firmneſs of the legiſlature, the farther purſuit of an object, which had very much agitated the minds of the people, and which in its farther progreſs threatened the moſt ſerious miſchief to the country, was for the preſent repreſſed. The ſubject of parliamentary reform made ſome noiſe in Great Britain about this period and for ſometime before, but in Ireland

Ireland the ſpeeches and reſolutions of the reformers were diſtinguiſhed by the particular indecency of their expreſſion and the virulence of their reflections againſt the laws and conſtitution of their country. In theſe violent proceedings the eye may now trace the ſecret fermentation of that mighty miſchief, which hath lately burſt forth in all the horrors of treaſon and rebellion, transforming the ignorant and miſguided populace into demons, and rendering the country a dreadful ſcene of aſſaſſination and murder.

About this period the minds of the people in that country were in a ſtate of extreme agitation; their paſſions had been ſo long ſtimulated by theſe objects, which are of all others moſt calculated to inflame, that they ſeem to have acquired a morbid degree of irritability; thoſe grievances whether real or imaginary, which in other nations would ſcarcely have ruffled the calm of domeſtic tranquillity, threatened, in that country, to produce all the horrors of the moſt violent tempeſt.

During the courſe of their proceedings, relative to parliamentary reform, intereſts of a more preſſing nature frequently divided the attention of the people, and were purſued with a moſt intemperate degree of zeal and violence. They ſeem to have expected, that by the reſtitution of commercial freedom, they were immediately to arrive at the poſſeſſion of that proſperity and opulence, which can only be obtained by ſlow progreſs, and is the reward of patient and perſevering induſtry. Diſappointed in theſe viſionary hopes, their ſituation was rendered more calamitous by the idleneſs of the lower claſs of people, and the neglect of their proper occupations by the better ſort, both of which were to be attributed to the general diſpoſition to political ſpeculations. In order to relieve the diſtreſſes of their own manufacturers, it was propoſed to lay heavy duties on the manufactures of other countries, imported into Ireland; a meaſure dictated by a narrow and ſhort-ſighted policy, but for which the people had become extremely clamorous. The legiſlature, however, with no leſs wiſdom than firmneſs, rejected the motion. In conſequence of this diſappointment of their hopes, the people were thrown into the moſt violent fermentation, and as there was reaſon to believe that theſe commotions were either excited or continued by the ſeditious and inflammatory libels, which were daily circulated in the public papers, proſecutions were commenced againſt ſeveral of the printers, and a bill was brought into parliament by Mr. Foſter for ſecuring the liberty of the preſs, by preventing the publication of libels, which after a conſiderable oppoſition, and receiving ſeveral modifications, paſſed with a general concurrence.

Soon after this a plan for regulating and finally adjuſting the commercial intercourſe between the two nations, excited a very general intereſt both in Great Britain and Ireland, but after having exerciſed the attention of the legiſlatures of both kingdoms for upwards of ſeven months, was fruſtrated by the violence of that miſguided zeal which then pervaded the whole nation. Indeed ſo inſolent had the people of that country now become, in conſequence of the conceſſions extorted from Great Britain; their minds ſo agitated with groundleſs doubts and jealouſies; ſo diſtracted with political ſpeculations, that a calm and temperate diſcuſſion of a ſubject of ſuch magnitude was not to be hoped for. The unfortunate indiſpoſition of his majeſty happened ſoon after their rejection of the commercial propoſitions. This event was no ſooner known in Ireland, than the rage of theoretical innovation and all the angry paſſions which had agitated the minds of parties were rekindled; as if on the watch for an object of ſufficient force to ſet them in motion, they eagerly laid hold of the opportunity afforded them by the queſtion of the regency to exhibit a practical proof of their newly acquired inde-

pendence, and perhaps indirectly to point at other aims, which at that period were not ripe for developement.

Our limits do not permit us to enter into a detail of the meaſures adopted on this occaſion; but we may ſhortly obſerve, that the conduct of the Iriſh parliament in the whole of this buſineſs is ſtrongly marked by precipitation and violence, and that the arguments by which the leaders in both houſes ſupported their views were ſuch as in their ultimate application evidently tended to break the connection betwixt the two kingdoms; that this project had been already conceived is by no means improbable. Mr. Fitzgibbon the attorney general firmly and ſtrenuouſly oppoſed the meaſures of the majority in parliament, contending for the conſtitutional connection betwixt the two kingdoms, and concluded his ſpeech by this ſolemn and almoſt prophetic warning, that if the two houſes of parliament ſhould in a moment of phrenzy, ſacrifice their connection with the crown in purſuit of paradoxical phantoms, they might perhaps live to ſee Ireland once more indebted for the reſtoration of her civil and religious liberties, to a Britiſh army. But while theſe matters were drawing to a concluſion their neceſſity was ſuperſeded by the ſudden and unexpected recovery of the King, and thus the immediate cauſe of the diſcontents and diviſions being removed, a temporary calm was produced.

But the diſcontented and turbulent ſpirits of the people of Ireland were now and had been for ſome time paſt in ſuch a ſtate of continual agitation and ferment, that no tranquillity was laſting; the fire of political diſcord ſometimes ceaſed to blaze, but the ſmoking embers were ever ready to burſt forth into a flame, upon the ſmalleſt communication with any inflammable matter. Such was the ſtate of the Iriſh nation at the breaking out of the French revolution. It is not therefore ſurpriſing that the dreadful exploſion which nearly ſet Europe on fire, ſhould have almoſt deſtroyed that country. The principles of thoſe who overturned the old government of France, have been juſtly conſidered as the ſignal for revolt to the diſcontented, to the unprincipled, and to the profligate of all nations. In Britain they ſpread with rapidity, and their progreſs at one time was ſo conſiderable, and the evident intentions of the faction ſo alarming, as to excite no ſmall degree of apprehenſion and terror; but the firmneſs of the executive government, ſupported by the good ſenſe and energy of the Britiſh nation, carried us nobly thro' the ſtorm. In Ireland theſe principles took an immediate and firm hold of the minds of the people; enflamed by political ſpeculation and irritated by groundleſs jealouſies and diſcontents, they were urged into the very laſt ſtage of crime with a precipitation, which, but among that people whoſe example they deſigned to copy, has no parallel.

It appears that ſoon after the French revolution a conſpiracy was formed in Ireland, whoſe aim was to overthrow the conſtitution and government of the country, to ſeparate Ireland from Great Britain, and to eſtabliſh a republic after the example of France on the deſtruction of all religious eſtabliſhments, the abolition of ranks, and the confiſcation of property. The moſt efficient engine of this treaſonable combination was the ſociety of united Iriſhmen. This ſociety was eſtabliſhed in the year 1791; for ſometime their attention was entirely directed to the engaging into their ſociety perſons of activity and talents; and the ſubject of parliamentary reform, either as a ſtep to the attainment of their ultimate object, or as a cover to their real deſigns, was again revived and proſecuted with redoubled energy and vigour; affiliated clubs and ſocieties were ſpread over the whole country, writings of the moſt flagitious and treaſonable tendency were circulated with indefatigable perſeverance, and the lower claſſes, who in that country are ſunk in the moſt deplorable

plorable ignorance, were in this manner trained to be inſtruments of the moſt diabolical barbarity. No efforts were left untried for bringing their deſigns to maturity and for giving to the ſocieties the ſtrength and conſiſtency of a revolutionary army; every mean was employed, which malignant cunning could deviſe, for eradicating from the minds of the people all the principles either of public or private duty; they incited the ſoldier to betray his king, they armed the tenant againſt his landlord, and they taught the ſervant to conſpire with the aſſaſſin of his maſter, thus blaſting the repoſe and ſecurity of private life in its very ſanctuary, and effacing every law of truth, juſtice, and gratitude. Nor was any artifice omitted, which could either weaken or embarraſs the government; the well affected were intimidated from joining the yeomanry corps; magiſtrates, witneſſes, jurors, in a word every claſs and deſcription of people, who ventured to ſupport the laws, were immediately marked for deſtruction, and the barbarous aſſaſſinations perpetrated by murderers, who iſſued from their dens during the darkneſs of midnight, ſparing neither ſex nor age, ſpread terror and diſmay over the whole face of this miſerable and diſtracted country.

In the ſummer 1796 great numbers had enrolled themſelves; and about this period a direct communication with the enemy was opened by the heads of the party, and French aſſiſtance was ſolicited and promiſed to be ſpeedily ſent to aid the diſſaffected in that kingdom; directions were in conſequence iſſued by the leaders of the ſocieties, to form themſelves into military bodies, and to be provided with arms and ammunition; theſe directions were ſpeedily obeyed; the ſocieties aſſumed a military form, and it appears by the original papers ſeized at Belfaſt on April 1797, that their numbers at that period, in the province of Ulſter alone, amounted to nearly 100,000.

An agent was ſoon after ſent to the French directory, acquainting them with their preparations; this agent from various channels of information appears to have been the late Lord Fitzgerald, who, accompanied by Mr. O'Connor, proceeded to Switzerland, and had an interview near the French frontier with general Hoche, on which occaſion every thing was ſettled with a view to the invaſion.

About October 1796 an accredited meſſenger arrived from the French republic, who came to communicate to the leaders of the Iriſh union the intention of the French, ſpeedily to invade Ireland with fifteen thouſand men and a great quantity of arms and ammunition; this attempt was accordingly made in December following, when the French fleet took the advantage of a thick fog and eſcaped from Breſt unobſerved by admiral Colpoys, who had been blocking them up for ſeveral months; meeting with violent ſtorms in their paſſage, the fleet was diſperſed, and on the 24th part of them conſiſting of eight two deckers and nine of different claſſes, anchored in Bantry bay; the fury of the tempeſt rendering any attempt to land impoſſible, they quitted their ſtation on the 27th in the evening; an officer and ſeven men were driven on ſhore in a boat belonging to one of the French ſhips; this gentleman upon examination, ſtated that the fleet upon its leaving Breſt conſiſted of about fifty ſail, having on board 25,000 men commanded by general Hoche, and that it was deſtined to attack Ireland. The appearance of this armament excited a conſiderable degree of alarm in Ireland, but the greateſt loyalty manifeſted itſelf throughout this part of the kingdom, and every demonſtration was given of their zeal and ardour to oppoſe the enemy wherever it could be ſuppoſed a deſcent would be attempted. The effects of the union had not ſo fully extended themſelves at that time to this part of the kingdom, a defect which the leaders afterwards took care to ſupply. During the ſummer of 1797 very extenſive preparations were made

made both at the Texel and at Breſt for a ſecond attempt; and in the autumn, intelligence was received by the executive of the union, that the troops were actually embarked in the Texel and only waited the wind; their deſigns were again fruſtrated by the glorious and ever memorable victory of lord Duncan over the Dutch fleet on the 11th October 1797. The communication betwixt the directory of France and the Iriſh executive was ſtill kept up, and aſſurances were ſtill given that ſuccours might be expected. In the mean time the moſt active and vigorous meaſures were purſued againſt the conſpirators; a bill was paſſed prohibiting ſeditious meetings; another commonly called the inſurrection act, by which the Lord Lieutenant and council were enabled upon the requiſition of ſeven magiſtrates of any county, to proclaim the whole or any part thereof to be in a ſtate of diſturbance, and within theſe limits this law was to operate; and by another the habeas corpus act was ſuſpended and the yeomanry eſtabliſhed.

But ſuch was the boldneſs of the conſpirators that in defiance of the additional energy of the executive government, the ſame ſyſtem of outrage and oppoſition to the laws which had been ſo ſucceſsfully made uſe of the former year in Ulſter, was now very generally extended over all the ſouthern and midland counties, and every exertion was made to give ſtrength to the conſpiracy, and by an active ſyſtem of terror to compel the people to look for protection to the union rather than to the laws. Our limits do not permit us to enter into a detail of the enormities committed on the peaceable and well affected inhabitants, nor could we ſhock the feelings of the humane reader by a recital of barbarities attended with ſuch circumſtances of unrelenting cruelty as muſt entail everlaſting diſgrace upon the Iriſh name and nation. It will be ſufficient to ſay that in the months of February and March, many parts of the provinces of Leinſter and Munſter were actually in poſſeſſion of a murderous banditti, and no night paſſed without the commiſſion of numerous murders, ſeveral diſtricts in theſe provinces had been proclaimed, but this meaſure proved ineffectual, and great numbers of the loyal inhabitants of the counties of Cork, Limerick, Tipperary, Kilkenny, Carlow, King's county, Queen's county, Kildare, and Wicklow were in the courſe of one month ſtript of their arms, and obliged to fly for ſhelter into the garriſon towns. Under thoſe alarming circumſtances, on the 30th. March the Lord Lieutenant iſſued a proclamation, ſtating that the traiterous conſpiracy, which had long exiſted within this kingdom had broken out into acts of open rebellion, and giving notice that the moſt direct and poſitive orders were given to the officers commanding his majeſty's forces, to employ them with the utmoſt vigour and deciſion for its ſuppreſſion, and for diſarming the rebels, and all perſons diſſaffected to his majeſty's government by the moſt ſummary and effectual methods; the promptitude and energy with which theſe orders was executed, were attended with ſuch effects in diſſolving the union and diſconcerting the views of the conſpiracy, that it became evident to the generality of the leaders, they had now no other alternative than to riſe at once or abandon their deſigns. The arreſt of the Leinſter committee on the 12 March with ſeveral other leading members of the union on the ſame day, had likewiſe ſo much expoſed the traitors in all their unhallowed labyrinths of iniquity, and tended ſo much to weaken their organization, that they were precipitated into a deſperate effort before their deſigns were fully ripe for execution. A plan was accordingly digeſted by the military committee for a general riſing, which was to take place on the 23 of May. Government were perfectly informed of the intentions of the conſpirators, and cauſed ſeveral of the leaders to be apprehended on the 19th and 21ſt. and late in the evening of that day the approaching inſurrection was announced to the Lord Mayor, and on the following

ing day a meſſage to the ſame effect was ſent by the Lord Lieutenant to both houſes of parliament.

Notwithſtanding the military precautions that were adopted to counteract the inſurrection, it took place in the neighbourhood of Dublin on the night appointed; the meaſures taken in the metropolis prevented any diſturbance there. They attacked the town of Naas in conſiderable force, but were repulſed by the Armagh militia and ancient Britiſh light dragoons with great ſlaughter; ſeveral other engagements took place in that part of the country, in all of which the rebels were defeated and put to flight, and great numbers killed. On the 28 intelligence was received that the inſurrection was ſpreading ſouthward, and had broke out in great force in the county of Wexford; their numbers were then ſtated to amount to 4000 at leaſt, and a great number of them mounted. Here their principal ſtrength ſeemed to be collected, after they were broken and diſperſed in every other quarter; their numbers at laſt amounting by the beſt accounts to near 15,000.

Our limits do not permit us to enter into a detail of the military operations againſt this formidable force, it is ſufficient for us to ſay, that the rebels after having been defeated at Enniſcorthy by general Lake, and in the neighbourhood of Wexford by brigadier-general More, evacuated the town, which was immediately entered by the king's troops without oppoſition. The rebels who eſcaped from Wexford, in different places, attempted to make a ſtand, and collect the ſcattered remains of their adherents, but ſuch was the activity and energy of the officers and ſoldiers, that all their endeavours were fruſtrated; they were attacked, defeated, and diſperſed in all quarters, and tranquillity began gradually to be reſtored.

About the end of Auguſt, ſome frigates and tranſports from France, appeared in Killala-bay, and landed about 1000 men, with a conſiderable quantity of arms and ammunition. As the ſtrength of the rebellion was now broken, the numbers who joined them were not conſiderable, and on the eighth of Septr. being attacked by general Lake, they ſurrendered at diſcretion; the rebels who had joined them were diſperſed, and a great proportion of them killed or taken. Another effort was made by the French to ſupport, or rather to rekindle the flames of rebellion in Ireland. On the 17th of September, a fleet ſailed from France, deſtined for that country, conſiſting of a ſhip of eighty guns, eight heavy frigates, a ſchooner, and a brig; theſe ſhips were all entirely new, full of troops and ſtores, with every thing neceſſary for the eſtabliſhment of their views; on the 11th of October, this fleet was diſcovered by the ſquadron under Sir J. B. Warren, who immediately gave chaſe; next morning he came up with them, attacked and defeated them; the whole fleet except one or two frigates, was captured. This blow, it is to be preſumed, has put a period to all the hopes entertained by the French directory, of making themſelves maſters of Ireland by a co-operation with the traitors of that kingdom. Bands of banditti continued for ſome time after this, to infeſt the country, particularly the county of Wexford; property to a great amount was in a ſhort time deſtroyed, in the plunder of houſes and houghing of cattle; ſcarce a night paſſed in which groupes of 50 or 60 of theſe miſcreants did not aſſemble in the horrible occupation of burning, murdering, and plundering the induſtrious and well affected inhabitants; but by the vigilance and activity of the troops, they were purſued to their lurking holes, and either diſperſed, taken or deſtroyed.

Such has been the termination, as we ſincerely hope it will turn out to be, of a conſpiracy no leſs atrocious than alarming; whether we conſider the diabolical deſigns of the traitors, the ſecrecy with which they conducted their infernal

infernal operations, or the wide diffuſion of thoſe wicked principles by which they effected the corruption of the maſs of the people, ſetting them looſe from every political and moral reſtraint, and rendering them the active inſtruments of an unprincipled and deſperate band, in a ſyſtem of wickedneſs without a parallel.

That men of weak underſtanding or ſuch as had not properly attended to the principles upon which the French revolution was conducted, ſhould at firſt be led away with the ſpecious theories of the philoſophiſts may admit of ſome excuſe; but when during the ſpace of ten years, ruin and deſtruction have continued to overwhelm and deſolate that unfortunate and devoted country; when their mild and gracious ſovereign has been ſacrilegiouſly murdered; his royal conſort and family, the heroic partners of his cruel and protracted ſufferings, put to an ignominious death; the clergy and nobility, with almoſt every gentleman of landed property, either maſſacred, robbed, or baniſhed; the citizens of her moſt flouriſhing and proſperous cities fallen victims to the unfeeling and diabolical barbarity of ſyſtematic aſſaſſins; their wives and daughters ſacrificed to the brutal luſt of their deſtroyers; themſelves either periſhing by the hand of the executioner or collected in the public ſquares without diſtinction of ſex or age, and ſlaughtered by thouſands, or doomed to languiſh in hopeleſs miſery, in noiſome and peſtilential dungeons; in ſhort, after ſuch a long, unbroken, melancholy train of woes following one upon another in France; we cannot too ſtrongly execrate the deſigns of thoſe wretches who had conſpired to reduce their principles to practice in this happy country, and to pollute theſe ſacred abodes of peace, and of proſperity, with blood and maſſacre; our warmeſt gratitude is due to the ſupreme diſpoſer of all things, whoſe protecting care hath defended us from the machinations of our enemies, and averted the dreadful calamity which was impending over us: and after him to the vigilance of the executive government, to the activity of the army, and to the zealous co-operation of his majeſty's loyal and affectionate ſubjects.

The conſolidation of the empire by the union of Ireland with Great Britain, ſeems now to be the only thing ſtill wanting to complete our ſecurity. This ſubject was laid before the Britiſh houſe of commons by Mr. Pitt; his ſpeech on this occaſion was eloquent, perſpicuous and argumentative; with his uſual firmneſs and accuracy he completely refuted all the calumnies, the miſrepreſentations and falſe aſſertions of its opponents, both as to the principle of the meaſure, the terms to be propoſed for adoption, and the means of carrying it into execution; by the oppoſition it was combated with their uſual candour, but after undergoing an ample diſcuſſion it received the approbation of a great majority in both houſes. When the ſubject came to be conſidered in the Iriſh parliament, its reception was ſuch as was unworthy of a deliberative body; adverſity, it appeared, had not yet calmed their furious ſpirits, and on this occaſion they diſtinguiſhed themſelves by a renewal of the ſame intemperate violence, which had characterized their debates on former occaſions; dazzled and bewildered by a phantom, they were incapable of truly perceiving and appreciating a ſubject of ſuch magnitude, in all its bearings and relations; but when paſſion ſhall have ſubſided and ſound judgement reſumed the reins, there is every reaſon to hope that they will cheerfully agree to a meaſure ſo evidently conducive to their true intereſt. England, Scotland and Ireland will then form a triple cord which no man can break, the firm guarantees of each others being and each others rights;

Dum domus Æneæ Capitoli immobile ſaxum
Accolet; et imperium Pater Romanus habebit.

FRANCE.


ENGLAND
ENGLISH CHANNEL
BAY OF BISCAY
SPAIN
Dover
Torbay
Plymouth
Beachy Hd
Lizard Pt
start Pt
Guernsey
Sark
Jersey
Alderney
Cde la Hague
Ushant I
Brest
St Malo
Cancale
Granville
Cherbourg
le Havre
Seine R.
Somme R.
Dieppe
Amiens
Rouen
Beauvais
Caen
Bayeux
Falaise
Argentan
Mortagne
Pontorson
Dol
Lamballe
Quimper
L'Orient
Vannes
Belle I.
Clisson
Nantes
Loire R.
Angers
Saumur
Tours
Blois
Orleans
Chartres
Versailles
Paris
Meaux
Rheims
Soissons
Amiens
Arras
Ostend
Dunkirk
Calais
Boulogne
Metropolitan Circles.
1 Circle of Paris
2 the N.East
3 the Coasts of the Channel
4 the East
5 the S.th East
6 the Coasts of the Mediterranean
7 the South
8 the S.t West
9 the N.t West
10 the Centre
A Correct & Accurate Map of FRANCE, divided into DEPARTMENTS with the NETHERLANDS Part of GERMANY &c.) Comprehending the PRESENT SEAT of WAR Engraved for
PLAN of TOULON &c.
ROAD


Explanation.
Boundaries of Marquisates &c.
Do of Departments
Ostend
Ghent
Dunkirk
Brussels
Louvain
Tirlemont
Juliers
Cologne
Maestrich
Liege
Aix la Chapelle
Bonn
Coblentz
Giessen
Frankfort
Hanau
Limbourg
Spa
Reipfels
Ringen
Mayence
Worms
Manheim
Arras
Douay
Cambray
Namur
Dinant
Givet
S. Hubert
Bouillon
Luxemburg
Thionville
Metz
Verdun
Toul
Nancy
Epinal
Landau
Spire
Philisbourg
Baden
Rastadt
Strasburgh
Brisac
Friburgh
Basle
Constance
Zurich
Appenzell
Berne
Geneva
Sion
Aosta
Turin
Nice
Genoa
Monaco
Antibes
Frejus
Toulon
Marseilles
Arles
Montpellier
Nismes
Avignon
Thoulouse
Bayonne
Bourdeaux
Rochelle
Nantes
Rennes
Brest
Amiens
Beauvais
Paris
Versailles
Orleans
Tours
Poitiers
Limoges
Clermont
Moulins
Bourges
Dijon
Auxerre
Troyes
Rheims
Chalons
Sedan
Mezieres
Charleville
Rethel
Laon
St Quentin
Peronne
Abbeville
Calais
Boulogne
Dunkirk
Ypres
Lisle
Tournay
Valenciennes
Mons
Charleroy
Namur
Liege
Aix la Chapelle
Juliers
Cologne
Coblentz
Frankfort
Hanau
Mayence
Worms
Manheim
Spire
Philisbourg
Landau


ENGLAND
ENGLISH CHANNEL
Torbay
Start Pt
Lizard Pt
Guernsey
Sark
Jersey
Alderney
Cde la Hogue
St Malo
Brest
D. of the NORTH COAST
D. of MORBIHAN
D. of the LOWER
Quimper
L'Orient
Vannes
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8 the S.th West
9 the N.th West
10 the Centre
A New and Accurate Map of FRANCE, divided into DEPARTMENTS with the NETHERLANDS Part of GERMANY &c.)
Constructed from the

FRANCE.

HAVING gone over the Britiſh Iſles, we ſhall now return to the continent, beginning with the extenſive and mighty kingdom of France, being the neareſt to England though part of Germany, and Poland lies to the northward of France.

Situation and Extent.

Miles		Degrees.
Length 600	between	5 Weſt and 8 Eaſt longitude.
Breadth 500		42 and 51 North latitude.

Containing 160,374 ſquare miles, with 155 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries.] It is bounded by the Engliſh Channel and the Netherlands, on the North; by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, Eaſt; by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain, South; and by the Bay of Biſcay, Weſt.

Divisions.] The ancient provinces of this kingdom have been divided by the national aſſembly into 83 departments *, as follows.

	Departments.	Chief Towns.		Inland Departments.	Chief Towns.
Iſle of France.	Paris	Paris {N. L. 48° 50' E. L. 2° 25'	Lorraine.	Moſelle	Mentz
	Seine and Ouſe	Verſailles		Vosges	Epiana
	Seine and Marne	Melun		Meurte	Nanci
	Oiſe	Beauvais		Meuſe	Barleduc
	Aiſne	Laon	Alſace.	Lower Rhine	Straſbourg
	Somme, *Piccardy*	Amiens		Upper Rhine	Colmar
	Cal. Streights, *Artois*	Arras	Champagne.	Aube	Troyes
	North, *Flanders*	Liſle		Marne	Chalons
Picou. Britany. Normandy.	Lower Seine	Rouen		Upper Marne	Chaumont
	Calvados	Caen		Ardennes	Mezieres
	Orne	Alençon	Fr. Comte.	Doubs	Beſancon
	Eure	Evreux		Jura	Dole
	Channel	Coutance		Upper Soanne	Veſoul
	Iſle and Vilhaine	Rennes	Burgundy.	Cote D'Or	Dijon
	Lower Loire	Nantes		Soanne and Loir	Macon
	Finiſterre	Breſt		Yonne	Auxerre
	North Coaſt	St. Brieuc	Dauphine.	Iſere	Grenoble
	Morbihan	Vannes		Drome	Romans
Guienne.	Vienne	Poitiers		Upper Alps	Gap
	Vendee	Fontenai compte		Ardeche	Privas
	Two Sevres	Niort	Auver.	Rhone and Loir	Lyons
	Lower Charente	Xantes		Puy de Dome	Clermont
	Gironde	Bourdeaux		Cantal	St. Fleur
	Upper vienne	Limoges		Upper Loire *Vel.*	Le puy
	Lot and Garonne	Agen		Coreze, *Limoſin.*	Tulle
	Avieron	Rodez		Crauze, *Marche.*	Gueret
	Dordogne	Perigeux		Charente, *Ang.*	Angouleme
	Lot	Cahors		Allier, *Bourbon.*	Moulines
			Berry.	Cher	Bourges
				Ain	Bourg
				Indre	Chateauroux

* France, nearly a ſquare, is divided into 83 DEPARTMENTS, including Corſica. Every department is ſubdivided into DISTRICTS, in all 547; and each diſtrict into CANTONS. The above are the chief towns of each department, and alſo the diſtricts. The new department of Savoy, which forms the 84th, is not added it being at preſent uncertain what part of the conqueſts of France will remain in her poſſeſſion.

	Departments.	Chief Towns.		Inland Departments.	Chief Towns.
Gascony.	Gers	Auch	Or. Marne.	Indre & Loir	Tours
	Upper Pyrenees	Tarbe		Sarte	Le Mans
	Lower Pyrennes	Pau		Mayenne	Laval
	Landes	Marſan		Mair and Loire	Angers
	East Pyrenees	Perpignan	leans.	Loiret	Orleans
Languedoc.	Upper Garonne	Toulouſe		Eure and Loire	Chartres
	Gard	Nimes		Loir and Cher	Blois
	Herault	Montpelier		Nievre, *Nivernois*	Nevers
	Arriege	Foix		Corſica iſland	Baſtia
	Tarne	Caſtres		*Avignon and Venaiſſin are in this department.*	
	Aude	Carcaſſone			
	Lozere	Mende			
Provence.	Mouths of Rhone	Aix			
	Var	Toulon			
	Lower Alps	Digne			

NAME AND CLIMATE.] France took its name from the Francs, or *Freemen*, a German nation, reſtleſs and enterprizing, who conquered the Gauls, the ancient inhabitants: and the Roman force not being able to repreſs them, they were permitted to ſettle in the country by treaty. By its ſituation, it is the moſt compact kingdom perhaps in the world, and well fitted for every purpoſe both of power and commerce; and ſince the beginning of the 12th century the inhabitants have availed themſelves of many of their natural advantages. The air, particularly that of the interior parts of the kingdom, is in general mild and wholeſome; but ſome late authors think it is not nearly ſo ſalubrious as is pretended; and it muſt be acknowledged, that the French have been but too ſucceſsful in giving the inhabitants of Great Britain falſe prepoſſeſſions in favour of their own country. It muſt indeed be owned, that their weather is more clear and ſettled than in England. In the northern provinces, however, the winters are more intenſly cold, and the inhabitants not ſo well ſupplied with firing, which in France is chiefly of wood.

SOIL AND WATER.] France is happy in an excellent ſoil, which produces corn, wine, oil, and almoſt every luxury of life. Some of their fruits have a higher flavour than thoſe of England; but neither the paſturage nor tillage are comparable to ours. The heats in many parts burn up the ground, ſo that it has no verdure, and the ſoil barely produces as much rye and cheſnuts as ſerve to ſubſiſt the poor inhabitants; but the chief misfortune attending the French ſoil is, that the inhabitants having bnt a precarious ſecurity in their own property, do not apply themſelves ſufficiently to cultivation and agriculture. But nature has done wonders for them, and both animal and vegetable productions are found there in vaſt plenty.

Notwithſtanding great efforts made in agriculture, much of the land remains uncultivated; and though ſome provinces, as Alſace and Languedoc, yield an exuberance of corn, it is frequently imported. Indeed all Europe, one year with another, does not produce ſufficient corn for its own conſumption, and it is neceſſary to have ſupplies from the luxuriant harveſt of America.

The French have of late endeavoured to ſupply the loſs ariſing from their precarious title to their lands, by inſtituting academies of agriculture, and propoſing premiums for its improvement, as in England; but thoſe expedients, however ſucceſsful they may be in particular inſtances, can never become of national utility in any but a free country, where the huſbandman is ſure of enjoying the fruit of his labour, which is far from being the caſe in the pre-

ſent diſtracted ſtate of the country. No nation is better ſupplied than France is with wholeſome ſprings and water; of which the inhabitants make excellent uſe by the help of art and engines, for all the conveniencies of life. Of their canals and mineral waters, diſtinct notice will be hereafter taken.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains in France, or its borders, are the Alps, which divide France from Italy; the Pyrenees, which divide France from Spain; Vauge, which divides Lorrain from Burgundy and Alſace; Mount Jura, which divides Franche Compté from Switzerland; the Cevennes, in the province of Languedoc; and Mount Dor in the province of Auvergne.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its courſe north and north weſt, being, with all its windings, from its ſource to the ſea, computed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on the ſouth-weſt to Lyons, and then runs on due ſouth till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne riſes in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its courſe, firſt north-eaſt, and has a communication with the Mediterranean by means of a canal, the work of Lewis XIV. The Seine, ſoon after its riſe, runs to the north-weſt, viſiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the Engliſh Channel at Havre. To theſe we may add the Soanne which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which riſes near Havre de Grace, and diſcharges itſelf into the Bay of Biſcay at Rochfort. The Rhine, which riſes in Switzerland, is the eaſtern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moſelle and the Sarte in its paſſage. The Somme, which runs north-weſt through Picardy, and falls into the Engliſh channel below Abbeville. The Var, which riſes in the Alps, and runs ſouth, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, weſt of Nice. The Adour runs from eaſt to weſt, through Gaſcoigne, and falls into the Bay of Biſcay, below the Bayonne.

The vaſt advantage, both in commerce and conveniency, which ariſes to France from thoſe rivers, is wonderfully improved by the artificial rivers and canals which form the chief glory of the reign of Lewis XIV. That of Languedoc was begun in the year 1666, and compleated in 1680; it was intended for a communication between the ocean and the Mediterranean, for the ſpeedier paſſage of the French fleet: but though it was carried on at an immenſe expence, for 100 miles, over hills and vallies, and even through a mountain in one place, it has not anſwered that purpoſe. By the canal of Calais, travellers eaſily paſs by water from thence to St. Omer, Graveline, Dunkirk, Ypres, and other places. The canal of Orleans is another noble work, and runs a courſe of eighteen leagues, to the immenſe benefit of the public and the royal revenue. France abounds with other canals of the like kind, which render her inland navigation inexpreſſibly commodious and beneficial.

Few lakes are found in this country. There is one at the top of a hill near Alegre, which the vulgar report to be bottomleſs. There is another at Iſſoire, in Auvergne; and one at La Beſſe, in which if you throw a ſtone, it cauſes a noiſe like thunder.

MINERAL WATERS, AND REMARKABLE SPRINGS.] The waters of Bareges which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have of late been preferred to all the others of France, for the recovery of health. The beſt judges think, however, that the cures performed by them are more owing to their accidental ſucceſs, with ſome great perſons,

and the ſalubrity of the air and ſoil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach in Alſace are ſaid to cure the palſy, weak nerves, and the ſtone. At Bagueiis, not far from Bareges, are ſeveral wholeſome minerals and baths, to which people reſort as to the Engliſh baths, at ſpring and autumn. Forges in Normandy is celebrated for its mineral waters; and thoſe of St. Amand cure the gravel and obſtructions. It would be endleſs to enumerate all the other real or pretended mineral wells in France, as well as many remarkable ſprings; but there is one near Aigne, in Auvergne, which boils violently, and makes a noiſe like water thrown upon lime; it has little or no taſte, but has a poiſonous quality, and the birds that drink of it die inſtantly.

METALS AND MINERALS.] France has many unworked *mines*, which would be very productive, if duly attended to, but at preſent do not yield minerals ſufficient for conſumption; ſteel alone is imported, to the annual value of 125,000l. Languedoc is ſaid to contain veins of gold and ſilver. Alſace has mines of ſilver and copper, but they are too expenſive to be wrought. Alabaſter, black marble, jaſper, and coal, are found in many parts of the kingdom. Bretagne abounds in mines of iron, copper, tin, and lead. Salt-petre is made in every part of the kingdom, and *ſea-ſalt* is now procured free from oppreſſive duty, but not remarkable for its purity. At Laverdau, in Cominges, there is a mine of chalk. At Berry there is a mine of oker, which ſerves for melting of metals, and for dying, particularly the beſt drab cloth; and in the province of Anjou are ſeveral quarries of fine white ſtone. Some excellent turquoiſes (the only gem that France produces) are found in Languedoc; and great care is taken to keep the mines of marble and free-ſtone open all over the kingdom.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] France abounds in excellent roots, which are more proper for ſoups than thoſe of England. As to all kinds of ſeaſoning and ſallads they are more plentiful, and in ſome places better than in England; they being next to their vines, the chief object of their culture.

France produces excellent *fruits* of all kinds, particularly grapes, figs, prunes, cheſnuts, cyder in the northern provinces, and capers in the ſouthern. It produces annually, though not enough for conſumption, above twelve million pounds of tobacco, beſides hemp, flax, manna, ſaffron, and many drugs. Alſace, Burgundy, Lorraine, and eſpecially the Pyrenee mountains, ſupply it plentifully with timber and other wood. Silk is ſo plentifully produced, beſides what is imported, as to afford a conſiderable trade. The cattle and horſes are neither very numerous nor very good, but it has many flocks of fine *ſheep*; yet ſo great is the conſumption, that both ſheep and wool are imported. The province of Gaſtenois produces great quantities of ſaffron. The wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Gaſcony, and other provinces of France, are ſo well known, that they need only be mentioned. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that though they differ very ſenſibly in their taſte and properties, yet all of them are excellent, particularly thoſe of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Pontacke, Hermitage, and Frontiniac: and there are few conſtitutions, be they ever ſo valetudinary, to which ſome one or other of them is not adapted.

Wine, the ſtaple, is made to the value of 15,000,000l. annually, more than an eight part of which, beſides brandy and vinegar, is exported. Olive oil is made in large quantities, particularly in the provinces next the Mediterranean; but the conſumption is ſo great, that much of it is imported from Italy: the

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inferior ſort ſupplies the ſoap manufactories, of which, there are thirty ſix at Marſeilles.

Oak, elm, aſh, and other timber, common in England, is found in France; but it is ſaid, that the internal parts of the kingdom begin to feel the want of fuel. A great deal of ſalt is made at Rhée, and about Rochfort on the coaſt of Santoign. Languedoc produces an herb called kali, which when burnt, makes excellent barilla, or pot-aſhes. The French formerly were famous for horticulture, but they are at preſent far inferior to the Engliſh both in the management and diſpoſitions of their gardens. Prunes and capers are produced at Bourdeaux and near Toulon.

France contains few animals, either wild or tame, that are not to be found in England, excepting wolves. Their horſes, black cattle, and ſheep, are far inferior to the Engliſh; nor is the wool of their ſheep ſo fine. The hair and ſkin of the chamois, or mountain goats, are more valuable than thoſe of England. We know of no difference between the marine productions of France and thoſe of England, but that the former is not ſo well ſerved, even on the ſea coaſts, with ſalt water fiſh. There is a conſiderable herring fiſhery and one for anchovies to the annual amount of 83,000l. beſides more important fiſheries upon the coaſt of America and Newfoundland.

FORESTS.] The chief foreſts of France are thoſe of Orleans, which contains 14,000 acres of wood of various kinds, oak, elm, aſh, &c. and the foreſt of Fontainblean near as large; and near Morchiſmoir is a foreſt of tall, ſtraight timber, of 4000 trees. Beſides theſe, large numbers of woods, ſome of them deſerving the name of foreſts, lie in different provinces; but too remote from ſea carriage to be of much national utility.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the moſt authentic calculations, it is not probable that France before the revolution contained above 24,000,000 of inhabitants; at preſent, its population muſt be reduced greatly below that number. It was formerly ſuppoſed, by ſome ſpeculative men, that the population of France had for many years been upon the decline; but, upon an accurate inveſtigation, the reverſe appeared to be fact; though this country certainly loſt a great number of valuable inhabitants, by the revocation of the edict of Nantes *.

The French, in their perſons, are rather lower than their neighbours: but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than other nations, in general, from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their ſprightly wit than perſonal beauty; the peaſantry in general, are remarkably ordinary, and are beſt deſcribed by being contraſted with women of the ſame ranks in England. The nobility and gentry accompliſh themſelves in the academical exerciſes of dancing, fencing, and riding; in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in ſkill and gracefulneſs. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry have now left off their heavy jack boots, their hnge war-ſaddle, and monſtrous curb bridle in that exerciſe, and accommodate themſelves to the Engliſh manners.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the ſubject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant character; and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have de-

* In the year 1598. Henry IV. who was a proteſtant, and juſtly ſtyled the Great after fighting his way to the crown of France, paſſed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured the Proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; but his edict was revoked by Lewis XIV. which, with the ſucceeding perſecutions, drove the people to England, Holland, and other Proteſtant countries, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufacture, to the great prejudice of the country that perſecuted them.

rived great utility from a national weakneſs. It ſupports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage inſpires others nations. This character, however, is conſpicuous only in the higher and middling ranks, where it produces excellent officers; for the common ſoldiers of France have few or no ideas of heroiſm. Hence it has been obſerved, with great juſtice, of the French and Engliſh, that the French officers will lead, if their ſoldiers will follow, and the Engliſh ſoldiers will follow, if their officers will lead.

The French affect freedom and wit; but faſhionable dreſſes and diverſions engroſs too much of their converſation. Their diverſions are much the ſame with thoſe of the Engliſh, but their gallantry is of a very different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into groſs foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting of indecent freedoms; but the ſeeming levities of both ſexes are ſeldom attended with that criminality which, to people not uſed to their manners, they ſeem to indicate; nor are the huſbands ſo indifferent, as we are apt to imagine, about the conduct of their wives. The French are exceſſively credulous and litigious; but of all people in the world they bear adverſity and reduction of circumſtances with the beſt grace; though in proſperity many of them are apt to be inſolent, vain, arbitrary, and imperious. An old French officer is an entertaining and inſtructive companion, and indeed the moſt rational ſpecies of all the French gentry.

The French have been much cenſured for inſincerity; but this charge has been carried too far, and the imputation is generally owing to their exceſs of civility, which throws a ſuſpicious light upon their candour. The French, in private life, have certainly many amiable characters, and a great number of inſtances of generoſity and diſintereſtedneſs may be found amongſt them.

It is doing the French no more than juſtice to acknowledge, that, as they are themſelves polite, ſo they have given a poliſh to the ferocious manners, and even virtues of other nations. They have long poſſeſſed the lead in taſte, faſhion, and dreſs; but it ſeems now to be in the wane, and they themſelves think very favourably of the Engliſh. This alteration of opinion has not, however, entirely taken its riſe from their wits and learned men, and ſtill leſs from their courtiers, or the middle ranks of life. The ſuperior orders of men in France are of a very different caſt from thoſe below them. Independent by their rank and fortunes, they think and act for themſelves. They are open to conviction, and examine things to the bottom. They ſaw during the war before the laſt, the management of their armies, their finances, and fleets, with ſilent indignation, and their reaſearches were favourable to the Engliſh. The concluſion of the peace of Fontainbleau, and the viſits which they have ſince paid to England, have improved that good opinion; the courtiers themſelves have fallen in with it; and, what ſome years ago would have been thought incredible, people of faſhion in France now ſtudy the Engliſh language, and imitate them in their cuſtoms, amuſements, dreſs, and buildings. They both imitate and admire our writers; the names of Bacon, Locke, Newton, Milton, Pope, Addiſon, Hume, Robertſon, Richardſon, and many others of the laſt and preſent century, are ſacred among the French of any education; and, to ſay the truth, the writings of ſuch men have equally contributed, with our military reputation, to raiſe the name of Great Britain to that degree in which it has been held of late by foreign nations, and to render our language more univerſal, and even a neceſſary ſtudy among foreign nobility. But we cannot quit this article of

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the manners and cuſtoms of the French, without giving a more minute view of ſome peculiarities obſervable among that whimſical people in private life, and this from the remarks of a late ingenious traveller, Smollet, who was alſo diſtinguiſhed by various other productions in polite literature.

"The natural levity of the French, ſays he, is reinforced by the moſt prepoſterous education, and the example of a giddy people, engaged in the moſt frivolous purſuits. A Frenchman is by ſome prieſt or monk taught to read his mother tongue, and to ſay his prayers in a language he does not underſtand. He learns to dance and to fence by the maſters of thoſe ſciences. He becomes a complete connoiſſieur in dreſſing hair, and in adorning his own perſon, under the hands and inſtructions of his valet-de-chambre. If he learns to play upon the flute or fiddle, he is altogether irreſiſtible. But he piques himſelf upon being poliſhed above the natives of any other country, by his converſation with the fair ſex. In the courſe of this communication, with which he is indulged from his tender years, he learns like a parrot, by rote, the whole circle of French compliments, which are a ſet of phraſes, ridiculous even to a proverb; and thoſe he throws out indiſcriminately to all women without diſtinction, in the exerciſe of that kind of addreſs which is here diſtinguiſhed by the name of gallantry. It is an exerciſe, by the repetition of which he becomes very pert, very familiar, and very impertinent. A Frenchman, in conſequence of his mingling with the females from his infancy, not only becomes acquainted with all their cuſtoms and humours, but grows wonderfully alert in performing a thouſand little offices, which are overlooked by other men, whoſe time hath been ſpent in making more valuable acquiſitions. He enters, without ceremony, a lady's bed-chamber, while ſhe is in bed, reaches her whatever ſhe wants, airs, her ſhift, and helps to put it on. He attends at her toilette, regulates the diſtribution of her patches, and adviſes where to lay on the paint. If he viſits her when ſhe is dreſſed, and perceives the leaſt impropriety in her coiffure, he inſiſts upon adjuſting it with his own hands. If he ſees a curl, or even a ſingle hair amiſs, he produces his comb, his ſciſſars, and pomatum, and ſets it to rights with the dexterity of a profeſſed frizeur. He ſquires her to every place ſhe viſits, either on buſineſs or pleaſure; and, by dedicating his whole time to her renders himſelf neceſſary to her occaſions. In ſhort, of all the coxcombs on the face of the earth, a French *petitmaitre* is the moſt impertinent; and they are all *petits maitres*, from the marquis who glitters in lace and embroidery, to the *garcon bar biere* (barber's boy) covered with meal, who ſtruts with his hair in a long queue, and his hat under his arm.

"A Frenchman will ſooner part with his religion than his hair. Even the ſoldiers in France wear a long queue, and this ridiculous foppery has deſcended to the loweſt claſs of people. The boy who cleans ſhoes at the corner of a ſtreet, has a tail of this kind hanging down to his rump: and the beggar who drives an aſs, wears his hair *en queue*, though, perhaps, he has neither ſhirt nor breeches.

"I ſhall only mention one cuſtom more, which ſeems to carry human affectation to the very fartheſt verge of folly and extravagance; that is the manner in which the faces of the ladies are primed and painted. It is generally ſuppoſed, that part of the fair ſex in other countries, make uſe of *fard* and vermillion for very different purpoſes; namely, to help a bad or faded complexion, to heighten the graces, or conceal the defects of nature, as well as the ravages of time. I ſhall not enquire whether it is juſt and honeſt to

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impoſe in this manner on mankind; if it is not honeſt, it may be allowed to be artful and politic, and ſhews, at leaſt, a deſire of being agreeable. But to lay it on, as the faſhion in France preſcribes to all the ladies of condition, who cannot appear without this badge of diſtinction, is to diſguiſe themſelves in ſuch a manner, as to render them odious and deteſtable to every ſpectator, who has the leaſt reliſh left for nature and propriety. As for the *ſard* or *white*, with which their necks and ſhoulders are plaiſtered, it may be in ſome meaſure excuſeable, as their ſkins are naturally brown, or ſallow but the *rouge*, which is daubed on their faces, from the chin up to the eyes, without the leaſt art or dexterity, not only deſtroys all diſtinction of features, but renders the aſpect really frightful, or at leaſt conveys nothing but ideas of diſguſt and averſion. Without this horrible maſk, no married lady is admitted at court, or in any polite aſſembly; and it is a mark of diſtinction which none of the lower claſſes dare aſſume."

The above picture of the manners of the French nation is drawn with wit and ſpirit; and is in ſome reſpects highly characteriſtic; but it is certainly not a flattering portrait; and the faults and failings of this vivacious people are, perhaps, by the author whom we have tranſcribed, too much magnified. With all their defects the French have many good qualities, and are undoubtedly a very agreeable people to reſide among, at leaſt for a time; on account of the politeneſs of their manners, the great attention they pay to ſtrangers, and the general taſte for literature which prevails among thoſe in the better ranks of life. The French literati have great influence even in the gay and diſſipated city of Paris. Their opinions not only determine the merit of works of taſte and ſcience, but they have conſiderable weight with reſpect to the manners and ſentiments of people of rank, and of the public in general, and conſequently are not without effect in the meaſures of government.

Dress.] The French dreſs of both ſexes is ſo well known, that it is needleſs to expatiate upon them here; but, indeed, their dreſs in cities and towns is ſo variable, that it is next to impoſſible to deſcribe it. They certainly have more invention in that particular than any of their neighbours, and their conſtantly changing their faſhions is of infinite ſervice to their manufactures. With regard to the Engliſh, they poſſeſs one capital ſuperiority, which is, that the clothes of both ſexes, and their ornaments, are at leaſt one third cheaper.

When a ſtranger arrives in Parris, he finds it neceſſary to ſend for the taylor perruquier, hatter, ſhoe-maker, and every other tradeſman concerned in the equipment of the human body. He muſt even change his buckles, and the form of his ruffles; and, though at the riſk of his life, ſuit his clothes to the mode of the ſeaſon. For example, though the weather ſhould be ever ſo cold, he muſt wear his *habit d'été*, or *demi-ſaiſon*, without preſuming to put on a warm dreſs before the day which faſhion has fixed for that purpoſe; and neither old age nor infirmity will excuſe a man for wearing his hat upon his head, either at home or abroad. Females are, if poſſible, ſtill more ſubject to the caprices of faſhion. All their ſacks and negligees muſt be altered and new trimmed. They muſt have new caps, new laces, new ſhoes, and their hair new cut. They muſt have their taffeties for the ſummer, their flowered ſilks for the ſpring and autumn, their ſattins and damaſks for winter. The men too muſt provide themſelves with a camblet ſuit, trimmed with ſilver for ſpring and autumn, with ſilk clothes for ſummer, and cloth laced with gold, or velvet for winter; and he muſt wear his bag-wig *à la pigeon*. This variety of dreſs is abſolutely indiſpenſable for all thoſe

thoſe who pretend to any rank above the mere vulgar; all ranks, from the higheſt downwards, uſe powder; and even the rabble, according to their abilities, imitate their ſuperiors in the fopperies of faſhion. The common people of the country, however, ſtill retain, without any material deviation, the old-faſhioned modes of dreſs, the large hat, and moſt enormous jack-boots, with ſuitable ſpurs; and this contraſt is even perceivable a few miles from Paris. In large cities, the clergy, lawyers, phyſicians, and merchants, generally dreſs in black; and it has been obſerved, that the French nation, in their modes of dreſs, are in ſome meaſure governed by commercial circumſtances.

The firſt national aſſembly in their new conſtitution retained the Roman Catholic religion in France, allowing religious liberty to all other ſects. By the laws of that conſtitution, no man was to be moleſted for his opinions, nor interrupted in the exerciſe of his religion. The territorial poſſeſſions of the Gallican church were claimed as national property, and diſpoſed of through the medium of a paper money called aſſignats, for the creditors of the ſtate; and the clergy made dependent upon penſionary eſtabliſhments paid out of the national treaſury; out of which alſo were paid the expences of worſhip, the religious, and the poor. All monaſtic eſtabliſhments were ſuppreſſed; but the friars and nuns were allowed to obſerve their vows, and nuns optionally to remain in their convents, or retire upon penſions.

The clergy were elective by the people, and took an oath to obſerve the laws of the new conſtitution *. They notified to the biſhop of Rome their union in doctrine, paid him no fees, nor acknowledged any ſubordination to his authority. They were ſupplied with lodgings upon their livings, whereon they were obliged to reſide and perform the duties of their office. They voted as active citizens, and were eligible to ſome lay-offices in the diſtricts, but to no principal ones.

The whole country was divided into nine metropolitan circles, had a Metropolitan Biſhop with a ſynod in each, beſides one for Paris. The metropolitan biſhop was confirmed by the eldeſt biſhop in his circle. Appeals were made from the biſhops to theſe ſynods.

A biſhop was appointed to each of the eighty-three *departments*, which formed ſo many dioceſes. They were appointed by the electoral aſſembly of the department, and confirmed by the metropolitan biſhop, but muſt have held an eccleſiaſtical office fifteen years. The ſalaries was from 500l. to 840l. per annum. Each dioceſe had alſo a *ſeminary*, with three vicars, and a vicar general to prepare ſtudents for holy orders, and theſe vicars formed a council for the biſhop.

But this new conſtitution of the church was of ſhort duration, it ſeems to have been only a preparatory ſtep to what ſoon after followed, the abſolute proſcription of the Chriſtian religion. There is no doubt but the party which has been ultimately victorious in France, had this in view from the beginning of the revolution, as well as the deſtruction of the monarchy; at preſent therefore there is no eſtabliſhed religion in that country. In their public ſhews and feſtivals the people have been accuſtomed to witneſs the moſt ſhocking indignities committed both againſt natural and revealed religion; and if the ſucceſs of their rulers is proportionate to the ardour of their zeal, all regard to either will be baniſhed from the minds of that people.

* Many of the clergy, called refractory prieſts, from a conſcientious refuſal of this oath, have been ejected from their benifices, and many the of popular curates made biſhops.

France contains more than two millions of non-catholics; and the *proteſtants*, who are greatly increaſing, are in proportion to the catholics, as one to twelve. There are already many regular congregations; viz. German Lutherans, French and Swiſs Calviniſts, Bohemian Anabaptiſts, and Walloon or Flemiſh Diſſidents, beſides many chapels for the ambaſſadors. It alſo contains many Jews.

LANGUAGE.] One of the wiſeſt meaſures of Lewis XIV. was his encouragement of every propoſal that tended to the purity and perfection of the French language. He ſucceeded ſo far as to render it the moſt univerſal of all the living tongues; a circumſtance that tended equally to his greatneſs and his glory, for his court and nation thereby became the ſchool of arts, ſciences, and politeneſs. The French language, at preſent, is chiefly compoſed of words radically derived from the Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay: its corner ſtones, fixed under Lewis XIV. are as it were looſened; and in the preſent mode of writing and expreſſing themſelves, the modern French abandon that grammatical ſtandard, which alone can render a language claſſical and permanent.

As to the properties of the language, they are undoubtedly greatly inferior to the Engliſh: but they are well adapted to ſubjects void of elevation or paſſion. It is well accommodated to dalliance, compliments, and common converſation.

The Lord's Prayer in French is as follows: *Nôtre Pére qui es aux cieux, ton nom ſoit ſanctifié. Ton regne vienne. Ta volonté ſoit faite en la terre comme au ciel. Donne nous anjourd'hui notre pain quotidien. Pardonne nous nos offences, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensez. Et ne nous indui point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal: car à toi eſt le regne, la puiſſance, & la gloire aux ſiécles des ſiécles.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The French, like the other nations of Europe, were for many centuries immerſed in barbarity. The firſt learning they began to acquire, was not of that kind which improves the underſtanding, corrects the taſte, or regulates the affections. It conſiſted in a ſubtile and quibbling logic which was more adapted to prevert than improve the faculties. But the ſtudy of the Greek and Roman writers, which firſt aroſe in Italy, diffuſed itſelf among the French, and gave a new turn to their literary purſuits. This, together with the encouragement which the polite and learned Francis I. gave to all men of merit, was extremely beneficial to French literature. During this reign, many learned men appeared in France, who greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their writings; among whom were Budeus, Clement Marot, Peter du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter Ramus. The names of Henry and Robert Stephens, are alſo mentioned by every real ſcholar with reſpect. It was not, however, till the ſeventeenth century, that the French began to write with elegance in their own language. The Academie Francoiſe was formed for this purpoſe: and though their labours, conſidered as a body, were not ſo ſucceſsful as might have been expected, ſome particular academicians have done great ſervice to letters. In fact, literary copartnerſhips are ſeldom very ſucceſsful. Of this we have a remarkable example in the preſent caſe. The Academy publiſhed a dictionary for improving the French language: it was univerſally deſpiſed. Furetieres, a ſingle academician, publiſhes another: it meets with univerſal approbation.

Lewis XIV. was the Auguſtus of France. The protection he gave to letters

letters, and the penſions he beſtowed on learned men, both at home and abroad, which, by calculation, did not amount to above 12,000l. per annum, have gained him more glory than all the military enterpriſes, upon which he expended ſo many millions. The learned men who appeared in France during this reign, are too numerous to be mentioned. Their tragic poets, Racine and Corneille, have deſervedly obtained a very high reputation; the firſt was diſtinguiſhed for ſkill in moving the paſſions; the ſecond for majeſty; and both, for the ſtrength and juſtneſs of their painting, the elegance of their taſte, and their ſtrict adherence to the rules of the drama. Moliere would have exhauſted the ſubjects of comedy, were they not every where inexhauſtible, and particularly in France. In the works of ſatire and criticiſm, Boileau, who was a cloſe imitator of the ancients, poſſeſſed uncommon merit. But France has not yet produced an epic poem that can be mentioned with Milton's; nor a genius of the ſame extenſive and univerſal kind with Shakeſpeare, equally fitted for the gay and the ſerious, the humorous and the ſublime. In the eloquence of the pulpit and of the bar, the French are greatly our ſuperiors: Boſſuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Maſſillon, have carried pulpit eloquence to a degree of perfection which we may approach to, but can hardly be expected ever to ſurpaſs The genius, however, of their religion and government is extremely unfavourable to all improvements in the moſt uſeful branches of philoſophy. All the eſtabliſhments of Lewis XIV. for the advancement of ſcience, were not able to counterbalance the influence of the clergy, whoſe intereſt is to keep mankind ignorant in matters of religion and morality; and the influence of the court and miniſtry, who have an equal intereſt in concealing the natural rights of Mankind, and every ſound principle of government. The French have not therefore ſo many good writers on moral, religious, or political ſubjects, as have appeared in Great Britain. But France has produced ſome great men who do honour to humanity; whoſe career no obſtacle could ſtop, whoſe freedom no government however deſpotic, no religion however ſuperſtitious, could curb or reſtrain. As an hiſtorian, De Thou is entitled to the higheſt praiſe: and who is ignorant of Paſcal, or of the archbiſhop of Cambray? Few men have done more ſervice to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Monteſquieu, he is an honour to human nature: he is the legiſlator of nations; his works are read in every country and language, and wherever they go they enlighten and invigorate the human mind. And, indeed, ſeveral writers have lately appeared in France, whoſe writings breathe ſuch ſentiments of liberty, as did but ill accord with an arbitrary government; ſentiments which have made rapid progreſs among men of letters, and perſons in the higher ranks of life, and which there can be no doubt, have been one conſiderable cauſe in producing the late important revolution.

In the Belles Lettres and miſcellaneous way, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers: among whom we may place Montaigne, D'Argens, and Voltaire, as the moſt conſiderable.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Deſcartes was the greateſt philoſopher in modern times. He was the firſt who applied algebra to the ſolution of geometrical problems, which naturally paved the way to the analytical diſcoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians have flouriſhed in the preſent age, particularly Clairaut, Bezout, and D'Alembert, the latter of whom, to the preciſion of a geometer, has united the talents of a fine writer.

Since the beginning of the preſent century, the French have almoſt vied with

with the Engliſh in natural philoſophy. Buffon would deſerve to be reckoned among men of ſcience, were he ſtill not more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philoſophy. He is to be regarded as a philoſophical painter of nature; and, under this view, his Natural Hiſtory is the firſt work of its kind.

Their painters, Pouſſin, Le Brun, and above all Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Lewis XIV. They have none at preſent to compare with them in the more noble kinds of painting; but Mr. Greuſe, for potraits and converſation pieces, never perhaps was excelled.

Sculpture is in general better underſtood in France than in moſt other countries of Europe. Their engravings on copper plates have been univerſally and juſtly celebrated; but ſuch a liberal patronage has been afforded to Engliſh artiſts, that they are now thought to excel their ingenious neighbours, and have rivalled them alſo in the manufacture of paper proper for ſuch impreſſions. Their treatiſes on ſhip-building and engineering ſtand unrivalled; but in the practice of both they are outdone by the Engliſh. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification. The French were long our ſuperiors in architecture; though we now bid fair for ſurpaſſing them in this art.

We ſhall conclude this head with obſerving, that the French have now finiſhed the Encyclopedie, or general dictionary of arts and ſciences, which was drawn up by the moſt able maſters in each branch of literature, in 28 volumes in folio (ſix of which are copper plates) under the direction of Meſſieurs D'Alembert and Diderot, and is the moſt complete collection of human knowledge we are acquainted with.

UNIVERSITIES AND PUBLIC COLLEGES.] Theſe literary inſtitutions have received a loſs for the preſent by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, who made the languages, arts, and ſciences, their particular ſtudy, and taught them all over France; but as the extinction of this body of men will probably leſſen the influence of ſuperſtition in France, there is reaſon to believe that the intereſts of real learning and ſcience will, upon the whole, be promoted by that event. It is not within my plan to deſcribe the different governments and conſtitutions of every univerſity or public college in France; but they are in number twenty-eight, as follow: Aix, Angiers, Arles, Avignon, Beſancon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Dol, Douay, Fleche, Montauban, Montpelier, Nantes, Orange, Orleans, Paris, Perpignan, Poitiers, Point Mouſon, Richlieu, Rheims, Soiſſons, Straſbourg, Toulouſe, Tournoiſe, and Valence. Among theſe, the Sorbonne at Paris is moſt celebrated.

ACADEMIES.] The following literary eſtabliſhments are ſupported out of the national treaſury: the French Academy, Academy of Belles Letters, Academy of Sciences, Royal Society of Medicine, King's Library, Obſervatory, and the Free School of Deſign.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Few countries, if we except Italy, can boaſt of more valuable remains of antiquity than France. Some of the French antiquities belong to the time of the Celts, and conſequently, compared to them, thoſe of Rome are modern. Father Mabillon has given us a moſt curious account of the ſepulchres of their kings, which have been diſcovered ſo far back as Pharamond; and ſome of them, when broke open, were found to contain ornaments and jewels of value. At Rheims, and other parts of France, are to be ſeen triumphal arches; but the moſt entire is at Orange, erected on account of the victory obtained over the Cimbri and Teutones, by Caius Marius and Luctatius Catulus. After Gaul was reduced to a Roman province, the Romans took vaſt de-

delight in adorning it with magnificent edifices, both civil and ſacred; ſome of which are more entire than any to be met with in Italy itſelf. The ruins of an amphitheatre are to be found in Chalons, and likewiſe at Vienne. Niſmes, however, exhibits the moſt valuable remains of ancient architecture of any place in France. The famous Pont du Garde was raiſed in the Auguſtan age by the Roman colony of Niſmes, to convey a ſtream of water between two mountains for the uſe of that city, and is as freſh to this day as Weſtminſter bridge: it conſiſts of three bridges, or tiers of arches one above another; the height is 174 feet, and the length extends to 723. The moderns are indebted for this, and many other ſtupendous aqueducts, to the ignorance of the ancients, that all ſtreams will riſe as high as their heads. Many other ruins of antiquity are found at Niſmes; but the chief, are the temple of Diana, whoſe veſtiges are ſtill remaining; the amphitheatre, which is thought to be the fineſt and moſt entire of the kind of any in Europe; but above all, the houſe erected by the emperor Adrian, called the Maiſon Carrie. The architecture and ſculpture of this building are ſo exquiſitely beautiful, that it enchants even the moſt ignorant, aud it is ſtill entire, being very little affected either by the ravages of time, or the havoc of war. At Paris, in La Rue de la Harpe, may be ſeen the remains of a palace, or Thermæ, ſuppoſed to have been built by the emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, about the year 356, after the ſame model as the baths of Diocleſian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large ſaloon. It is fabricated of a kind of maſtic, the compoſition of which is not now known, intermixed with ſmall ſquare pieces of free ſtone and bricks. But the moſt extraordinary of all artificial curioſities, is the ſubterraneous cavern at Paris: For the firſt building of that city, it was neceſſary to get the ſtone in the environs; as Paris was enlarged, the ſtreets and ſuburbs extended to and were built on the ancient quarries from which the ſtone had been taken, and hence proceed the caverns or frightful cavities which are found under the houſes in ſeveral quarters of the city. Eight perſons lately periſhed in one of them, a gulf of 150 feet deep, which excited the police and government to cauſe the buildings of ſeveral quarters to be privately propped up. All the ſuburbs of St. James's, Harp-ſtreet, and even the ſtreet of Tournon, ſtand upon the ancient quarries, and pillars have been erected to ſupport the weight of the houſes; but as the lofty buildings, towers, and ſteeples, now tell the eye what is ſeen in the air, is wanting under the feet, ſo it would not require a very violent ſhock to throw back the ſtones to the places from whence they have been raiſed.

At Arles in Provence is to be ſeen an obeliſk of oriental granite, which is 52 feet high, and ſeven feet diameter at the baſe, and all but one ſtone. Roman temples are frequent in France. The moſt particular are in Burgundy and Guienne; and other places, beſides the neighbourhood of Niſmes, contains magnificent ruins of aqueducts. The paſſage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon in Dauphiney, is thought to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of maſſy ſilver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being twenty inches in diameter, and weighing twenty-one pounds, containing the ſtory of Scipio's continence, is thought to be coeval with that great general. It would be endleſs to recount the different monuments of antiquity to be found in France, particularly in the cabinets of the curious.

I have already mentioned ſeveral remarkable ſprings and mountains, which may be conſidered as natural curioſities. Some of the modern works of art, particularly the canals, have been alſo before noticed. There are ſome ſubter-

terraneous paſſages and holes, eſpecially at St. Aubin in Brittany, and Nionf in Dauphiny, really ſtupendous.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Theſe are numerous in France; of which we ſhall mention only Paris, Liſle, and their principal ſea-ports, Breſt and Toulon.

Liſle, in French Flanders, is thought to be the moſt regular and ſtrongeſt fortification in Europe, and was the maſter-piece of the famous Vauban. It is generally garriſoned with above ten thouſand regulars; and for its magnificence and elegance, it is called Little Paris. Its manufactures of ſilk, cambric, and camblets, are very conſiderable; and its inhabitants amount to about one hundred thouſand. Every reader is acquainted with the hiſtory of Dunkirk, which the French were obliged by the treaty of Utrecht to demoliſh, but it is ſtill a thorn in the ſide of the Engliſh, by being a harbour for their ſmugglers, and may now, by an article in the laſt treaty of peace, be put into what condition the French miniſtry may pleaſe. The reſt of French Flanders, and its Netherlands, abound with fortified towns, which carry on very gainful manufactures.

Moving ſouthward, we come to the Iſle of France; the capital of which and of the whole kingdom, is Paris. This city has been ſo often deſcribed, it may appear ſuperfluous to mention it more particularly, were it not that the vanity of the French has given it a preference, which it by no means deſerves, to all the capitals in the world, in every reſpect, not excepting even population. Many of the Engliſh have been impoſed upon in this point; particularly by the computing from the births and burials within the bills of morality, which exclude the moſt populous pariſhes about London. Another miſtake lies in computing from births and marriages. The number of diſſenters of all kinds in and about London, who do not regiſter the births of their children, is amazing; the regiſters of others are not known by the public; and many of the poorer ſort will not afford the ſmall expence of ſuch regiſtering. Another peculiarity exiſting in London, is that moſt of the Londoners, who will afford the expence, when they find themſelves conſumptive, or otherwiſe indiſpoſed, retire into the country, where they are buried, and thereby excluded from the bills of mortality. The population of Paris, therefore, where the regiſters are more exact and acceſſible to the poor, and where the religion and the police are more uniform and ſtrict, is far more eaſily aſcertained than that of London; and by the beſt accounts, it does not exceed ſeven or eight hundred thouſand, which is far ſhort of the inhabitants of London and the contiguous pariſhes.

Paris is divided into three parts; the city, the univerſity and that which was formerly called the Town. The city is old Paris; the univerſity and the town are the new. Paris contains more works of public munificence than utility. Its palaces are ſhewy, and ſome of its ſtreets, ſquares, hotels, hoſpitals, and churches, ſuperbly decorated with a profuſion of paintings, tapeſtry, images, and ſtatues; but Paris, notwithſtanding its boaſted police, is greatly inferior to London in many of the conveniencies of life, and the ſolid enjoyments of ſociety. Without entering into more minute diſquiſitions, Paris, it muſt be owned, is the paradiſe of ſplendor and diſſipation. The tapeſtry of the Gobelines * is unequalled for beauty and riches. The Louvre is a building that does honour to architecture itſelf; and the inſtitution of the French academy far exceeds any thing of the kind in England, or elſe-

* One *Gobler*, a noted dyer at Rheims, was the firſt who ſettled in this place, in the reign of Francis I. and the houſe has retained his name ever ſince: and here the great Colbert, about the year 1667, eſtabliſhed that valuable manufactory.

where,

where. The Thuilleries, the palace of Orleans, or as it is called Luxembourg, where a valuable collection of paintings are ſhewn, the royal palace, the king's library, the guild hall, and the hoſpital for the invalids, are ſuperb to the higheſt degree. The city of Paris is ſaid to be fifteen miles in circumference. The hotels of the French nobleſſe at Paris take up a great deal of room with their court-yards and gardens; and ſo do their convents and churches. The ſtreets are very narrow, and the houſes very high, many of them ſeven ſtories. The houſes are built of ſtone, and are generally mean, even to wretchedneſs, owing partly to their containing a different family on every floor. The river Seine, which runs through the centre of the city, is not half ſo large as the Thames at London; it is too far diſtant from the ſea for the purpoſes of navigation, and is not furniſhed, as the Thames, with veſſels or boats of any ſort; over it are many ſtone and wooden bridges, which have nothing to recommend them. The ſtreets of Paris are generally crowded, particularly with coaches, which gives that capital the appearance of wealth and grandeur; though in reality, there is more ſhew than ſubſtance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of ſtrangers are moſtly common hacks, hired by the day or week to the numerous foreigners who viſit that city; and in truth, the greateſt part of the trade of Paris ariſes from the conſtant ſucceſſion of ſtrangers that arrive daily, from every nation and quarter of the globe. This aſcendency is undoubtedly owing to the reputation of their language, their public buildings the Gobelines, or manufacture of tapeſtry, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are open to the public; the cheapneſs of proviſions, excellency of the French wines, and above all the purity of the air and climate in France. With all theſe advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a compariſon with London, in the more eſſential circumſtances of a thriving foreign and domeſtic trade, the cleanneſs of their ſtreets, elegance of their houſes, eſpecially within; the plenty of water, and that of a better quality than the Seine, which it is ſaid diſagrees with ſtrangers, as do likewiſe their ſmall wines. In the houſes of Paris moſt of the floors are of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being ſprinkled with water, and ſwept once a day. Theſe brick floors, the ſtone ſtairs, the want of wainſcotting in the rooms, and the thick party walls of ſtone, are however, good preſervatives againſt fire, which ſeldom does any damage in this city. Inſtead of wainſcotting, the walls are covered with tapeſtry or damaſk. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with teſter and curtains; but bugs are here a moſt intolerable nuiſance, which frequently oblige ſtrangers to ſleep on the floor during the exceſſive heat in the ſummer. Their ſhops are but poorly ſtored with goods; and the ſhopkeepers and tradeſmen, an indolent, loitering people, ſeldom, make their appearance before dinner in any other than a morning dreſs, of velvet cap, ſilk night gown, and Morocco ſlippers; but when they intend a viſit, or going abroad, all the punctilios of a courtier are attended to, and hardly the reſemblance of a man remains. There is a remarkable contraſt between this claſs of people and thoſe of the ſame rank in London. In Paris, the women pack up parcels, enter the orders, and do moſt of the drudgery buſineſs of the ſhop, while the huſband loiters about, talks of the great, of faſhions and diverſions, and the invincible force of their armies. The ſplendour of the grand Monarque uſed to be alſo with them a favourite topic of converſation, previous to the change in their political ſyſtem. The Pariſians however, as well as the natives of France in general, are remarkably temperate in their living; and to be intoxicated with liquor is conſidered as infamous.

Bread,

Bread, and all manner of butcher's meat and poultry, are extremely good in Paris; the beef is excellent; the wine they generally drink, is a very thin kind of Burgundy. The common people, in the ſummer ſeaſon, live chiefly on bread, butter, grapes and ſmall wine. The Pariſians ſcarcely knnw the uſe of tea, but they have coffee in plenty. The police of Paris uſed to be ſo well attended to, that quarrels, accidents, or felonies, ſeldom happened, and ſtrangers from all quarters of the globe, let their appearance be ever ſo uncommon, met with the moſt polite treatment. The ſtreets are patrolled at night by horſe and foot; ſo judiciouſly ſtationed, that no offender can eſcape their vigilance. They likewiſe viſit the publicans preciſely at the hour of twelve at night, to ſee that the company are gone; for in Paris no liquor can be had after that time. The public roads in France are under the ſame excellent regulation, which, with the torture of the rack, prevents robberies in that kingdom; but for the ſame reaſon, when robberies do happen, they are always attended with the death of the unfortunate traveller; and indeed this is the general practice in every country of Europe, Great Britain excepted.

The environs of Paris are very pleaſant, and contain a number of fine ſeats, ſmall towns, and villages; ſome of them, being ſcattered on the edges of lofty mountains riſing from the Seine, are remarkably delightful.

The palace of Verſailles, which ſtands twelve miles from Paris, though magnificent and expenſive beyond conception, and adorned with all that art can furniſh, is properly a connection of buildings, each of exquiſite architecture, but not forming a whole, agreeable to the grand and ſublime of that art. The gardens, and water works, (which are ſupplied by means of prodigious engines, acroſs the Seine at Marli, about three miles diſtance), are aſtoniſhing proofs of the fertile genius of man, and highly worthy of a ſtranger's attention. Trianon, Marli, St. Germain en Laye, Meudon, and other royal palaces, are laid out with taſte and judgment; each has its peculiar beauties for the entertainment and amuſement of that luxurious court which lately occupied them: but ſome of them are in a ſhameful condition, both as to repairs and cleanlineſs.

Breſt is a ſmall, but very ſtrong town, upon the Engliſh channel, with a moſt ſpacious and finely fortified road and harbour, the beſt and ſafeſt in all the kingdom: yet its entrance is difficult, by reaſon of many rocks lying under water. At Breſt is a court of admiralty, and academy for ſea affairs, docks and magazines for all kinds of naval ſtores, rope-yards, ſtore-houſes, &c. inſomuch that it may now be termed the capital receptacle for the navy of France and is admirably well adapted for that end.

Lewis XIV. rendered Toulon, from a pitiful village, a ſea-port of great importance. He fortified both the town and harbour for the reception and protection of the navy. Its old and its new harbour lie contiguous; and by means of a canal, ſhips paſs from the one to the other, both of them having an outlet into the ſpacious outer harbour. Its arſenal, eſtabliſhed alſo by that king has a particular ſtore-houſe for each ſhip of war, its guns cordage, &c. being ſeparately laid up. Here are ſpacious workſhops, for blackſmiths, joiners, carpenters, lockſmiths, carvers, &c. Its rope-walk, of ſtone, is 320 toiſes or fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Its general magazine ſupplies whatever may be wanting in the particular ſtore-houſes, and contains an immenſe quantity of all kinds of ſtores, diſpoſed in the greateſt order.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Next to Henry IV. juſtly ſtyled the Great, the famous Colbert, miniſter to Lewis XIV. may be called the father

ther of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illuſtrious a figure as a trading as ſhe did then as a warlike people; but the truth is, the French do not naturally poſſeſs that undaunted perſeverance which is neceſſary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, underſtood them better. It is to be conſidered at the ſame time, that France, by her ſituation, by the turn of her inhabitans for certain manufactures, and the happineſs of her ſoil, muſt be always poſſeſſed of great inland and neighbouring trade.

The ſilk manufacture was introduced into France ſo late as the reign of Henry IV. and in the age of his grandſon Lewis XIV. the city of Tours alone employed 8000 looms, and 800 mills. The city of Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but after the impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulſion of the Proteſtants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreaſed to 4000; and their ſilk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Proteſtants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. Next to Tours and Lyons, Pairs, Chatillion, and Niſmes, are moſt celebrated for ſilk manufactures. France contains 1,500 ſilk mills, 21,000 looms for ſtuffs, 12,000 for ribbons and lace, 20,000 for ſilk ſtockings, all of which employ two millions of people. They alſo manufacture gloves and ſtockings from ſpider-ſilk. On the other hand, the French woollen cloths and ſtuffs, more eſpeeially at Abbevile, Amiens, and Paris are ſaid to be now little inferior to thoſe of England, and have greatly injured them, particularly in the Turkiſh market, aſſiſted by the clandeſtine importation of Engliſh and Iriſh wool, and workmen from this country.

In manufactures the French have always been diſtinguiſhed for their invention, and the Engliſh for their ſuperior improvement. Abbeville is famous for cloth, linen, ſail-cloth, and ſoap; Auvergue for fine thread, lace, ſtuffs, and paper; Niſmes for fine ſerges; Cambray for cambries; St Quintin for lawns; and Picardy for plate glaſs.

The diſtricts adjoining the Britiſh channel, contain many ſheep of the Engliſh breed, which are ſaid to degenerate by removal from their native ſoil.

Beſides the infinite advantage ariſing to her inland commerce, from her rivers, navigable canals, and a connexion with two ſeas, her foreign trade may be ſaid to extend itſelf all over the globe. It is a doubtful point whether France was a loſer by its ceſſion of Canada and part of Louiſiana at the late peace. But the moſt valuable part of Hiſpaniola in the Weſt Indies, which ſhe poſſeſſes by the partiality and indolence of Spain, is a moſt improveable acquiſition, and the moſt valuable of all her foreign colonies. In the Weſt Indies, ſhe likewiſe poſſeſſes the moſt important ſugar iſlands of Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, St. Bartholomow, Deſeada, and Marigalante. Her poſſeſſions in North America are only a ſmall tract upon the Miſſiſſippi.

The Freneh poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies are not very conſiderable; though had their genius been more turned for commerce than war, they might have engroſſed more territory and revenues than are now in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh; but they over-rated both their own power and their courage, and their Eaſt India company never did much. At preſent (ſays Mr. Anderſon,) 'her land trade to Switzerland and Italy is by way of Lyons—To Germany, though Metz and Straſburg—To the Netherlands, through Liſle—To Spain (a moſt profitable one), though Bayonne and Perpignan. As for her naval commerce, her ports in the channel, and on the weſtern ocean, are frequented by all the trading nations in Europe, to the great

advantage of France, more eſpecially reſpecting what is carried on with England, Holland, and Italy. The trade from her Mediterranean ports (more particularly from Marſeilles) with Turkey and Africa has long been very conſiderable. The negro trade from Guinea ſupplies her ſugar colonies, beſides the gold, ivory, and drugs got from thence.'

The commercial treaty between France and England appears to have ſerved both countries, by opening an extenſive market for Engliſh woollens, cottons, pottery, and hardware, and for French wines, linens, and cambrics, beſides having nearly deſtroyed the great ſmuggling trade on their coaſts, and promoted a friendly intercourſe between the two nations; but it has alſo been the means of glutting the French market with Engliſh goods, and affording the French an opportunity to rival the Engliſh in their manufactures, as appears from new ones, particularly one in imitation of Wedgewood's ware, already eſtabliſhed at Paris.

The exports are wine, vinegar, brandy, oil, ſilks, ſatins, linens, woollen cloth, tapeſtries, laces, gold and ſilver embroideries, toys, trinkets, perfumery, paper, prints, books, drugs, dies, &c. The imports are hardware, earthenware, cottons, metals, hemp, flax, ſilk, wool, horſes, Eaſt and Weſt Indian goods, &c. It employs one million tons of ſhipping, with near 50,000 ſeamen, ; and before the revolution, the imports were valued at 9,583,333l. the exports at 12,500,000l. and it had a *balance* of trade of more than two millions in its favour; but its trade and manufactures have ſince declined.

One great diſadvantage to the commerce of France is, that the profeſſion of a merchant is not ſo honourable as in England and ſome other countries. A great number of the cities of France have the privilege of coinage, and each of them a particular mark to diſtinguiſh their reſpective pieces; which muſt be very embarraſſing, eſpecially to ſtrangers.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] It has no trading companies (having aboliſhed all monopoly) but a bank or caiſſe d'eſcompte, and a bank of extraordinaries.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] France, by the revolution in 1789, founded a *new conſtitution*, upon the principles that all men are free and equal in their rights, and that ſovereignty reſides in the nation. It would be trifling with our readers to give them any detail of this conſtitution, as it has been virtually overthrown, by the abolition of the monarchical part of it, and by the ſubſequent condemnation, and execution of the king; a deed of moſt ſingular atrocity, by which the national convention have ſtamped eternal infamy upon their characters.———A committee was appointed by the convention to draw up a new conſtitution, which was approved of by the repreſentatives of the people, but this was ſoon overthrown to make way for another; how long this may continue, or upon what order of things France may ultimately ſettle, it is impoſſible at preſent even to form a conjecture and to attempt in a work of this kind, a deſcription of a ſtate of things, which at the very moment may be haſtening to its fall, would anſwer no uſeful purpoſe.

After the reader has been told of the excellency of the climate, and fertility of the ſoil in France; her numerous manufactures and extenſive commerce; her great cities, her numerous towns, ſea-ports, rivers and canals; the cheapneſs of proviſions, wines and liquors; the formidable armies, and fleets ſhe has ſent forth, to the terror of Europe; and the natural character of her inhabitants, their ſprightlineſs and gaiety; he will undoubtedly conclude, that France is the moſt powerful nation, and her people the moſt opulent and happy in Europe. The reverſe, however, appears to be the ſtate of

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that nation at preſent; and we do not find that in any former period they were more rich or more happy.

The moſt obvious cauſes of this national poverty took their riſe from the ambition and vanity of their kings and courtiers, which led them into ſchemes of univerſal dominion, the aggrandizement of their name, and the enſlaving of Chriſtendom. Their wars, which they ſometimes carried on againſt one half of Europe, and in which they were generally unfortunate, led them into difficulties to which the ordinary revenues were inadequate; and hence proceeded the arbitrary demands upon the ſubject, under various pretences, in the name of loans, free-gifts, &c. When theſe failed, other methods, more deſpotic and unwarrantable, ſuch as raiſing and reducing the value of money as it ſuited their own purpoſes, national bankruptcies, and other grievous oppreſſions, were adopted, which gave the finiſhing blow to public credit, and ſhook the foundations of trade, commerce, and induſtry, the fruits of which no man could call his own.

When we conſider the motives of theſe wars, a deſire to enſlave and render miſerable the nations around them, that man muſt be devoid of humanity whoſe breaſt is not raiſed with indignation upon the bare mention of the blood that has been ſpilt, the miſeries and deſolations that have happened, and the numerous places that have fallen a ſacrifice to their ambition. It appears too plain, that while they thus graſp after foreign conqueſt, their country exhibits a picture of miſery and beggary. Their towns, a very few excepted, make a moſt diſmal and ſolitary appearance. The ſhops are mean beyond deſcription; and the paſſengers, who ſaunter through a labyrinth of narrow dirty ſtreets, appear to be chiefly compoſed of prieſts and devotees paſſing to or from maſs, hair dreſſers, and beggars. That this is the appearance of their towns, and many of their cities, we may appeal to the obſervation of any one who has been in that kingdom. Were it poſſible to mention a people more indigent than theſe citizens, we might deſcribe the farmers and peaſantry. We have in another place, mentioned the natural advantages of France, where the hills are covered with grapes, and moſt extenſive plains produce excellent crops of corn, rye, and barley. Amidſt this profuſion of plenty, the farmer and his family barely exiſt upon the gleanings, and his cattle, which are ſeldom numerous, pick a ſubſiſtence, in the ſummer months, from the ſkirts of his fields. Here the farmer, meagre, diſpirited, and depreſſed, exhibits a ſpectacle of indigence hardly credible; and to ſee him ploughing the ground with a lean cow, aſs, and a goat yoked together, excites in an Engliſh traveller that pity to which human nature is entitled. He forgets the country while he feels for the man.

Revenues.] Mr. Lafond preſented to the aſſembly, December 30, 1791, the following general eſtimate from the particular eſtimate of the miniſters for the year 1792:

	Livres.
Appanage of princes	5,000,000
Foreign affairs	6,000,000
Marine and colonies	43,000,000
General adminiſtration	5,000,000
Public worſhip	81,000,000
Penſions to eccleſiaſtics	68,000,000
National aſſembly	5,000,000
Civil liſt	25,000,000
Bridges and roads	4,000,000

	Livres.
High national court and court of appeal	450,000
Schools and academies	1,000,000
Intereſt of debts	20,000,000
Life annuities	100,000,000
Perpetual annuities	300,000,000

Beſides the expences of the army.

The WAYS *and* MEANS.

By land tax, a tax on perſonal property, patents, ſtamps, &c. valued at 530,000,000 livres; the remaining ſum to be provided for from the fund of extraordinaries

The extraordinary expences of the army, colonies and public worſhip, would ſoon ceaſe, and bring the expenditure on a level with the revenue.

Some authors make the amount of the aſſeſſed taxes for the years 1792, only 300,000,000 livres equal to 12,500,000l. ſterling, and with the incidental taxes in all 15,500,000l. ſterling; near nine million leſs than before the revolution, when the nobleſſe and clergy were exempted.

All exciſes and exciſemen, tythes, and game laws, are now aboliſhed, and the roads maintained at public expence.

The Revenue in the year 1788, before the revolution, was 20 millions and a half ſterling; and its ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue five millions and a half.

The public debt, 1784, was —— —— £. 141,666,000

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] There is no nation in Europe where the art of war, particulary that part of it relating to gunnery and fortification, is better underſtood than in France. Beſides other methods for cultivating it, there is a royal military academy eſtabliſhed purpoſely for training up 500 young gentleman at a time, in the ſeveral branches of this great art.

ARMY. The peace eſtabliſhment of the *army*, for the year 1792, was

Infantry	111,000
Cavalry	30,000
Artillery	11,000
Total	152,000

Theſe are called *troops of the line*, and, along with the volunteer national guards, form an army, at preſent on the frontiers, of 224,000 men.

The *municipal army* or national guards, are a kind of embodied militia for the interior defence of the kingdom, and amount to between 3 and 4 million.

The *gens d'armerie* are an auxiliary body of troops, for the protection of laws and police.

NAVY. The report of the miniſter towards the cloſe of the year 1791, ſtates the ſhips in good condition to be 86 of the line, and, including thoſe building, as follows:

Large firſt rates	8
100 guns	5
80 guns	10

24 guns

74 guns	67
64 guns	1
Total	91
Frigates	78

beſides fireſhips, corvettes, gallies, and cutters.

There are 28 of the line and 5 frigates in commiſſion, and 80,000 ſeamen, with officers regiſtered to man the fleet; But the ſignal victories obtained by the fleets of Great Britain over thoſe of France during the preſent war have almoſt totally annihilated its naval power.

ROYAL TITLES, ARMS, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS. The NATIONAL ASSEMBLY, deſirous of eſtabliſhing the French conſtitution on the principles it has declared, aboliſhed, irrevocably, thoſe inſtitutions which are injurious to liberty and equality of rights.

There is no longer any *nobility*, nor *peerage*, nor *hereditary diſtinctions*, nor *difference of orders*, nor *feudal government*, nor *patrimonial juriſdiction* nor any of the *titles*, *denominations and prerogatives*, which are derived from them; or any of the orders of *chivalry*, *corporations or decorations*, for which proofs of nobility were required: nor any kind of ſuperiority but that of public functioners in the exerciſe of their functions.

Royalty, which was one branch of the firſt conſtitution, is now aboliſhed, the unfortunate monarch decapitated, and five tyrants have uſurped his throne who are called the directory.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of no country is better authenticated than that of France, and it is particularly intereſting to an Engliſh reader. This kingdom, which was by the Romans called Tranſalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to diſtinguiſh it from Ciſalpine Gaul, on the Italian ſide of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy, to which it lies contiguous. Like other European nations, it ſoon became a deſirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave reſiſtance, was annexed to their empire by the invincible arms of Julius Cæſar, about forty-eight years before Chriſt. Gaul continued in the poſſeſſion of the Romans till the downfall of that empire in the fifth century, when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who ſubdued but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themſelves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of ſeveral people inhabiting Germany, and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Sale, and who cultivated the principles of juriſprudence better than their neighbours. Theſe Salii had a rule, which the reſt of the Franks are ſaid to have adopted, and has been by the modern Franks applied to the ſucceſſion of the throne, excluding all females from the inheritance of ſovereignty, and is well known by the name of the *Salic law*.

The Franks and Burgundians, after eſtabliſhing their power, and reducing the original natives to a ſtate of ſlavery, parcelled out the lands among their principal leaders; and ſucceeding kings found it neceſſary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exerciſe ſovereign authority in their reſpective governments, until they at length aſſumed an independency, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave riſe to thoſe numerous principalities that were formerly in France, and to the ſeveral parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom; and no laws were made, or taxes raiſed, without the concurrence of the grand council, conſiſting of the clergy and of the nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, immediately after the diſſolution of the Roman empire, the firſt government in France ſeems to have been a kind

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of mixed monarchy, and the power of their kings extremely circumſcribed and limited by the feudal barons.

The firſt chriſtian monarch of the Franks (according to Daniel, one of the beſt French hiſtorians) was Clovis, who began his reign anno 481, and was baptized, and introduced Chriſtianity in the year 496: The mind of Clovis had been affected by the pathetic tale of the paſſion and the death of Chriſt; and inſenſible of the beneficial conſequences of the myſterious ſacrifice, he exclaimed with religious fervour, "Had I been preſent with my valiant Franks, "I would have revenged his injuries." But though he publicly profeſſed to acknowledge the truth of the goſpel, its divine precepts were but little reſpected. From this period the French hiſtory exhibits a ſeries of great events; and we find them generally engaged in domeſtic broils or in foreign wars. The firſt race of their kings prior to Charlemagne, found a cruel enemy in the Saracens, who then over-ran Europe, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity. In the year 800, Charlemagne, king of France, whom we have often mentioned as the glory of thoſe dark ages, became maſter of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope; he divided his empire by will, among his ſons, which proved fatal to his family and poſterity. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce warlike people from Norway, Denmark, and other parts of Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France, and about the year 900 obliged the French to yield Bretagne to Rollo their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was perſuaded to profeſs himſelf a Chriſtian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France; which afterwards gave a king to England, in the perſon of William duke of Normandy, who ſubdued Harold, the laſt Saxon king, in the year 1066. This event proved unfortunate and ruinous to France, as it engaged that nation in almoſt perpetual wars with England, for whom they were not an equal match, notwithſtanding their numbers, and the aſſiſtance they received from Scotland.

The rage of cruſading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite ſervice to the French crown in two reſpects: in the firſt place, it carried off hundreds of thouſands of its turbulent ſubjects, and their leaders, who were almoſt independent of the king: in the next, the king ſucceeded to the eſtates of numbers of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

But paſſing over the dark ages of the cruſades, their expedition to the Holy Land, and wars with England, which have already been mentioned, we ſhall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe; and this brings us to the reign of Francis I. contemporary with Henry VIII. of England. This prince, though he was brave to exceſs in his own perſon, and had defeated the Swiſs, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and great defects He was a candidate for the empire of Germany, but loſt the imperial crown: Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and king of Spain being choſen. In the year 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two kings met in an open plain near Calais, where they and their attendants diſplayed their magnificence with ſuch emulation and profuſe expence as produced it the name of the *Field of the Cloth of Gold*. Feats of chivalry, parties of gallantry, together with ſuch exerciſes and paſtimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than ſerious buſineſs, occupied both courts during eighteen days that they continued together *. Francis made

* The French and Engliſh hiſtorians deſcribe the pomp of this interview, and the various ſpectacles, with great minuteneſs. One circumſtance mentioned by the mareſchal de

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ſome dazzling expeditions againſt Spain, but ſuffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuſe his power: by which he diſobliged the conſtable of Bourbon, the greateſt of his ſubjects, who joined in a confederacy againſt him with the emperor and Henry VIII. of England. In a capital expedition he undertook into Italy, he was taken priſoner at the battle of Pavia, in the year 1524, and obliged to agree to diſhonourable terms, which he never meant to perform, to regain his liberty. His non-performance of thoſe conditions was afterwards the ſource of many wars between him and the emperor; and he died in 1547.

France, at the time of his death, notwithſtanding the variety of diſagreeable events during the late reign, was in a flouriſhing condition. Francis I. was ſucceeded by his ſon Henry II. who upon the whole was an excellent and fortunate prince. He continued the war with the emperor of Germany to great advantage for his own dominions; and was ſo well ſerved by the duke of Guiſe, that though he loſt the battle of St. Quintin, againſt the Spaniards and the Engliſh, he retook Calais from the latter, who never ſince had any footing in France. He married his ſon, the Dauphin, to Mary queen of Scots, in hopes of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this ſcheme, he, or rather his country, was unfortunate, as may be ſeen in the hiſtory of Scotland. He was killed in the year 1559, at an unhappy tilting-match, by the count of Montgomeri.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Francis II. a weak, ſickly, inactive prince, and only thirteen years of age, whoſe power was entirely engroſſed by a prince of the houſe of Guiſe, uncle to his wife, the beautiful queen of Scotland. This engroſſment of power encouraged the Bourbon, the Montmorenci, and other great families, to form a ſtrong oppoſition againſt the government. Anthony, king of Navarre, was at the head of the Bourbon family; but the queen-mother, the famous Catherine of Medicis, being obliged to take part with the Guiſes, the confederacy, who had adopted the cauſe of Hugonotiſm, was broken in pieces, when the ſudden death of Francis happened, in the year 1560.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under ſentence of death for a conſpiracy againſt the court; but the queen-mother ſaved him, to balance the intereſt of the Guiſes; ſo that the ſole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her ſecond ſon, Charles IX. Her regency was a continued ſeries of diſſimulation, treachery and murder. The duke of Guiſe, who was the ſcourge of the Proteſtants, was aſſaſſinated by one Poltrot, at the ſiege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjuſtly thought to have been inſtigated by the famous Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the Proteſtant party. Three civil wars ſucceeded each other. At laſt the court pretended to grant the Hugonots a very advantageous peace, and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a Proteſtant, and

Fleuranges, who was preſent, and which appears ſingular in the preſent age, is commonly omitted. "After the tournament," ſays he "the French and Engliſh wreſtlers made their appearance, and wreſtled in preſence of the kings and the ladies; and as there were many ſtout wreſtlers there, it afforded excellent paſtime; but as the king of France had neglected to bring any wreſtlers out of Bretagne, the Engliſh gained the prize.—After this, the kings of France and England retired to a tent, where they drank together, and the king of England ſeizing the king of France by the collar, ſaid, "*My brother, I muſt wreſtle with you*," and endeavoured once or twice to trip up his heels; but the king of France, who was a dextrous wreſtler, twiſted him round, and threw him on the earth with prodigious violence. The king of England wanted to renew the combat, but was prevented." *Memoires de Fleuranges*, 12mo. Paris, 1753, p. 329.

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the French king's ſiſter. The heads of the Proteſtants were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of butchering them all if poſſible in one night. This project proved but too ſucceſsful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himſelf aſſiſted in the maſſacre, in which the admiral Coligni fell. The ſignal for the inhuman ſlaughter of ſo many thouſands, was to be made by ſtriking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work of death was begun, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect amidſt the general carnage that ſome few moments ſhould be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to reſt, when he was arouſed by the noiſe of the aſſaſſins, who had ſurrounded his houſe. A German, named Beſme, entered his chamber, and the admiral, apprehending his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever diſtinguiſhed him. Incapable of reſiſtance from the wounds he had received by two balls in a late attempt to aſſaſſinate him, with an undiſmayed countenance, he had ſcarce uttered the words, "young man, reſpect theſe grey hairs, nor ſtain them with blood," when Beſme plunged his ſword into his boſom, and with his barbarous aſſociates threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guiſe contemplated it in ſilence, but Henry couut d'Angouleſme, natural brother to Charles, ſpurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friends, we have begun well, let us finiſh in the ſame manner." It is ſaid that about 30,000 Proteſtants were murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France, and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a freſh peace was concluded in 1573 with the Proteſtants, yet a fifth civil war broke out the next year, when the bloody Charles IX. died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had ſome time before been choſen king of Poland; and hearing of his brother's death, he with ſome difficulty eſcaped to France, where he took quiet poſſeſſion of that crown, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time ſupplied to the reformed nobility of France, the feudal powers they had loſt. The heads of the Proteſtants could raiſe armies of Hugonots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent of the crown; and the parties were ſo equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the ſcale. A *holy league* was formed for the defence of the catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guiſe. The proteſtants under the prince of Condé, and the duke of Alençon, the king's brother, called the German princes to their aſſiſtance, and a ſixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, in revenge of the duke Alençon declaring himſelf lord of the Netherlands. The civil war was finiſhed within the year, by another ſham peace. The king, ever ſince his acceſſion to the crown, had plunged himſelf into a courſe of infamous debauchery and religious extravagancies. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites, but he poſſeſſed natural good ſenſe. He began to ſuſpect that the proſcriptions of the proteſtants, and the ſetting aſide from the ſucceſſion the king of Navarre, on account of his religion, which was aimed at by the holy league, was with a view to place the duke of Guiſe, the idol of the Roman Catholics, on the throne, to which that duke had ſome diſtant pretenſions. To ſecure himſelf on the throne, a ſeventh civil war broke out in 1579, and another in the year 1585, both of them to the diſadvantage of the Proteſtants, through the abilities of the duke of Guiſe. The king thought him now ſo dangerous, that after inviting him in a friendly manner to court, both he

he and his brother the cardinal, were, by his majeſty's orders, and in a manner under his eyes, baſely aſſaſſinated in 1588. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himſelf into the arms of the Proteſtants; bnt while he was beſieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greateſt foree, he was in his turn aſſaſſinated by one Clement, a young enthuſiaſtic monk, in 1589. In Henry III. ended the line of Valois.

The readers of hiſtory are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry IV. king ot Navarre *, head of the houſe of Bourbon, and the next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne. The leaguers were headed by the duke of Main, brother to the late duke of Guiſe; and they drew from his cell the decrepit popiſh cardinal of Bourbon, uncle to the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Being ſtrongly ſupported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnaminity, ſeemed only to make him more illuſtriouſly unfortunate; for he and his little court were ſometimes without common neceſſaries. He was, however, perſonally beloved; and no objection lay againſt him but that of religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, ſplit among themſelves; and the French nation in general, being jealous of the Spaniards, who availed themſelves of the public diſtractions, Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, came ſecretly to a reſolution of declaring himſelf a Roman Catholic. This was called a meaſure of prudence, if not of neceſſity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Iſabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France and would have married her to the young duke of Guiſe.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to maſs, as a mark of his converſion. This complaiſance wrought wonders in his favour; and having with great difficulty obtained abſolution from the pope, all France ſubmitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with, which he did for ſeveral years with various fortune. In 1598 he publiſhed the famous edict of Nantes, which ſecured to his old friends the Proteſtants the free exerciſe of their religion; and next year the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry next chaſtiſed the duke of Savoy who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himſelf with wonderful attention and ſucceſs (aſſiſted in all his undertakings by his miniſter, the great Sully), to cultivate the happineſs of his people, by encouraging manufactures, particularly that of ſilk, the benefit of which France feels at this day. Having re-eſtabliſhed the tranquillity, and in a great meaſure, ſecured the happineſs of his people, he formed connexions with the neighbouring powers for reducing the ambition of the houſe of Auſtria; for which purpoſe, it is ſaid, he had formed great ſchemes, and collected a formidable army; others ſay (for his intention does not clearly appear), that he deſigned to have formed Chriſtendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while others attribute his preparations to more ignoble motives, that of a criminal paſſion for a favourite princeſs, whoſe huſband had carried her for protection into the Auſtrian dominions. Whatever may be in theſe conjectures, it is certain, that while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and

* A ſmall kingdom lying upon the Pyrenean mountains, of the greatest part of which, Upper Navarre, Henry's predeceſſors had been unjuſtly diſpoſſeſſed, by Ferdinand, king of Spain, about the year 1512.

was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was aſſaſſinated in his coach in the ſtreets of Paris, by one Ravilliac, like Clement, another young enthuſiaſt, in 1610.

Lewis XIII. ſon to Henry IV. deſervedly named the Great, was but nine years of age at the time of his father's death. As he grew up, he diſcarded his mother and her favourites, and choſe for his miniſter the famous cardinal Richlieu, who put a period, by his reſolute and bloody meaſures, to the remaining liberties of France and to the religious eſtabliſhment of the proteſtants there, by taking from them Rochelle, though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's ſiſter, made ſome weak efforts by his fleet and arms, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars, on account of religion in France. Hiſtorians ſay, that in theſe wars above a million of men loſt their lives; that 150,000,000 livres was ſpent in carrying them on; and thnt nine cities, four hundred villages, two thouſand churches, two thouſand monaſteries, and ten thouſand houſes, were burnt, or otherwiſe deſtroyed during their continuance.

Richlieu, by a maſterly train of politics, though himſelf was next to an enthuſiaſt for popery, ſupported the proteſtants of Germany, and Guſtavus Adolphus, againſt the houſe of Auſtria: and after quelling all the rebellions and conſpiracies which had been formed againſt him in France, he died ſome months before Lewis XIII. who in 1643, left his ſon, afterwards the famous Lewis XIV. to inherit his kingdom.

During that prince's non-age, the kingdom was torn in pieces under the adminiſtration of his mother Anne of Auſtria, by the factions of the great, and the diviſions between the court and parliament, for the moſt trifling cauſes, and upon the moſt deſpicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing ſtar; ſometimes a patriot, ſometimes a courtier, and ſometimes a rebel. He was oppoſed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a proteſtant, had turned papiſt. The nation of France was involved at once in civil and domeſtic wars; but the queen mother having made choice of cardinal Mazarine for her firſt miniſter, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell againſt the Spaniards, and to divide the domeſtic enemies of the court ſo effectually among themſelves, that when Lewis aſſumed the reins of government in his own hands, he found himſelf the moſt abſolute monarch that ever ſat upon the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarine, to put the domeſtic adminiſtration of his affairs into the hands of Colbert, whom I have more than once mentioned, who formed new ſyſtems for the glory, commerce, and manufactures of France, all which he carried to a ſurpriſing height.

To write the hiſtory of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Lewis: through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the intereſts of his ſubjects only that they might the better anſwer the purpoſes of his greatneſs; by the latter he embroiled himſelf with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a diſmal ſcene of devaſtation. By his impolitic and unjuſt revocation of the edict of Nantes, in the year 1685, with the dragooning the proteſtants that followed it, he obliged them to take ſhelter in England, Holland, and different parts of Germany, where they eſtabliſhed the ſilk manufactures, to the great prejudice of their own country. He was ſo blind by flattery, that he arrogated to himſelf the divine honours paid to the pagan emperors of Rome. He made and broke treaties for his conveniency, and at laſt raiſed againſt himſelf a confederacy of almoſt all the other princes of Europe; at the head of which was king William III. of England. He

was

was ſo well ſerved, that he made head for ſome years againſt this alliance; but having provoked the Engliſh by his repeated infidelities, their arms, under the duke of Marlborough, and the Auſtrians, under the prince Eugene, rendered the latter part of his life as miſerable as the beginning of it was ſplendid. His reign, from the year 1702 to 1711, was one continued ſeries of defeats and calamities; and he had the mortification of ſeeing thoſe places taken from him, which in the former part of his reign, were acquired at the expence of many thouſand lives. Juſt as he was reduced, old as he was, to the deſperate reſolution of collecting his people, and dying at their head, he was ſaved by the Engliſh Tory miniſtry deſerting the cauſe, withdrawing from their allies, and concluding the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. He ſurvived his deliverance but two years; and in his laſt hours diſplayed a greatneſs of mind worthy of his elevated ſituation, "Why do you weep," ſaid he to his domeſtics, "Did "you think me immortal?" He died on the firſt of September, 1715, and was ſucceeded by his great grandſon Lewis XV.

The partiality of Lewis XIV. to his natural children might have involved France in a civil war, had not the regency been ſeized upon by the duke of Orleans, a man of ſenſe and ſpirit, and the next legitimate prince of the blood, who having embroiled himſelf with Spain, the king was declared of age in 1722, and the regent on the fifth of December 1723, was carried off by an apoplexy.

The reader is not to imagine that I am to follow the affairs of France through all the inconſiſtent ſcenes of fighting and treating with the ſeveral powers of Europe, which are to be found in their reſpective hiſtories. Among the firſt acts of the late king's government, was his nominating his preceptor, afterwards cardinal Fleury, to be his firſt miniſter. Though his ſyſtem was intirely pacific, yet the ſituation of affairs in Europe, upon the death of the king of Poland, in 1734, more than once embroiled him with the houſe of Auſtria. The intention of the French king was to replace his father-in-law, Stainſlaus, on the throne of Poland. In this he failed through the interpoſition of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians; but Stainſlaus enjoyed the title of king, and the revenues of Lorrain, during the remainder of his life. The connection between France and Spain forced the former to become principals in a war with Great Britain; in the management of which the latter was ſo ill ſeconded by her allies, that it was finiſhed by the peace of Aix la Chapelle in 1748.

In the year 1757, Francis Damien, an unhappy wretch, whoſe ſullen mind, naturally unſettled, was inflamed by the diſputes between the king and his parliament relative to religion, embraced the deſperate reſolution of attempting the life of his ſovereign. In the duſk of the evening, as the king prepared to enter his coach, he was ſuddenly wounded, though ſlightly with a penknife, between the fourth and fifth ribs, in the preſence of his ſon, and in the midſt of his guards. The daring aſſaſſin had mingled with the croud of courtiers, and was inſtantly betrayed by his diſtracted countenance. He declared it was never his intention to kill the king, but that he only meant to wound him, that God might touch his heart, and incline him to reſtore the tranquillity of his dominions by re-eſtabliſhing the parliament, and baniſhing the archbiſhop of Paris whom he regarded as the ſource of the preſent commotions. In theſe frantic and incoherent declarations he perſiſted amidſt the moſt exquiſite tortures; and after human ingenuity had been exhauſted in deviſing new modes of torment, his judges, tired out with his obſtinacy, conſigned him to a death, the inhumanity of which is increaſed by the evident madneſs that ſtimulated to the fatal attempt; and which might fill the

hearts of ſavages with horror. He was conducted to the common place of execution, amidſt a vaſt concourſe of the populace; ſtripped naked and faſtened to the ſcaffold by iron gyves. One of his hands was then burnt in liquid flaming ſulphur. His thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, roſin, and ſulphur were poured into the wounds; and to complete the awful cataſtrophe, tight ligatures being tied round his limbs, he was torn to pieces by young and vigorous horſes.

The Jeſuits having rendered themſelves univerſally odious by their ſhare in the conſpiracy againſt the late king of Portugal, fell in France under the laſh of the civil power, for certain fraudulent mercantile tranſactions. They refuſed to diſcharge the debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large ſum, and who was ſupoſed to act for the benefit of the whole ſociety. As a monk, indeed, he muſt neceſſarily do ſo. The parliaments eagerly ſeized an opportunity of humbling their ſpiritual enemies. The Jeſuits were every where cited before thoſe high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to do juſtice to their creditors. They ſeemed to acquieſce in the deciſion, but delayed payment under various pretences. New ſuits were commenced againſt them, in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the courſe of theſe procedings which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent, they were compelled to produce their INSTITUTE, or the rules of their order, hitherto ſtudiouſly concealed. That myſterious volume, which was found to contain maxims ſubverſive of all civil government, and even of the fundamental principles of morals, completed their ruin. All their colleges were ſeized, all their effects confiſcated, and the king, aſhamed or afraid to protect them, not only reſigned them to their fate, but finally expelled them the kingdom, by a ſolemn edict, and utterly aboliſhed the order of Jeſus in France.

Elated with this victory over eccleſiaſtical tyranny, the French parliaments attemped to ſet bounds to the abſolute power of the crown, and ſeemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not ſatisfied with refuſing, as uſual, to regiſter certain oppreſſive edicts, or with remonſtrating againſt them, they ordered criminal proſecutions to be commenced againſt the governors of ſeveral provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the regiſtration of thoſe edicts. The magnanimity of theſe aſſemblies had awakened new ideas in the boſoms of the French; they were taught by the late remonſtrances to conſider their inherent rights; and this flame, in the ſucceeding reign, burſt forth with accumulated force, and overwhelmed the throne.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was endeed by the peace of Fontainbleau, in 1763, the chief events attending it, ſo humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the hiſtory of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corſica, a ſmall iſland in the Mediterranean, had long reſiſted with manly firmneſs the oppreſſive councils of the Genoeſe, who claimed the ſovereignty over it, by right of conqueſt. But, unable to ſupport thoſe pretenſions, Genoa tranſferred them to France, on condition that Lewis ſhould put her in full poſſeſſion of the adjacent iſland of Capraria, which the Corſicans had lately invaded and reduced. To execute his engagements, powerful armaments were fitted out by Lewis, at Antibes and Toulon; twenty battalions of French were landed in Corſica; and the natives, whoſe free ſuffrages had ſummoned Paoli, one of their principal chiefs, to the ſupreme government of the iſland, determined to defend their liberties to the utmoſt.

A ſharp and bloody war, ſuch as ſuited the inferior numbers of the inhabitants

tants and the nature of the country, was carried on in all the faſtneſſes and mountainous parts of the iſland; and it was not till after the French had fatally experienced, in two ſucceſſive campaigns, the enthuſiaſtic courage which animates the champions of freedom, that they overwhelmed by their ſuperior numbers this unfortunate people; nor had Lewis much reaſon to triumph in an acquiſition, to attain which he had ſacrificed ſeveral thouſand of his braveſt troops, and only extended his dominion over a rugged and unproductive iſland.

The late unfortunate king, Lewis the XVI. ſucceeded his grandfather, Lewis the XV. on the 10th of May, 1774. Several regulations were made after his acceſſion, highly favourable to the general intereſts of the nation, particulary the ſuppreſſion of the Muſquetaries, and ſome other corps, which being adapted more to the parade of guarding the royal perſon than any real military ſervice, were ſupported at a great expence, without an adequate return of benefit to the ſtate. One remarkable circumſtance which attended this reign, was the placing of Mr. Necker, a proteſtant, and a native of Switzerland, at the head of the French finances, in 1776. Poſſeſſed of diſtinguiſhed and acknowledged abilities, his appointment would have excited no ſurpriſe, had it not been contrary to the conſtant policy of France, which had carefully excluded the aliens of her country and faith from the controul of the revenue. It now ſtood forward as a new inſtance of enlargement of mind and liberality of ſentiment; and will to poſterity mark the prominent features of the reign of Lewis the ſixteenth. Under the direction of this gentleman, a general reform took place in France, through every department in the revenue. When hoſtilities commenced in 1777, between France and Great Britain, in conſequence of the aſſiſtance afforded by the former to the revolted Britiſh colonies, in America, the people of France were not burthened with new taxes for carrying on the war; but the public revenue was augmented by his œconomy, improvements, and reformation that were introduced into the management of the finances. In conſequence of this national œconomy, the navy of France was alſo raiſed to ſo great a height, as to become truly formidable to Great Britain.

With a moſt laudable zeal to extend the dominion of ſcience, Lewis fitted out ſeveral veſſels on aſtronomical diſcoveries. The chevalier de Borda was inſtructed to aſcertain the exact poſition of the Canary iſlands and Cape de Verd; and the different degrees of the coaſt of Africa from Cape Spartel to the iſland of Goree. The chevalier Grenier, who had traverſed the Indian ſeas to improve the charts and correct the errors of former navigators, was liberally rewarded by a monarch who aſpired to immortalize the æra of his power by expeditions beneficial to mankind.

The viſit of the emperor of Germany to the court of Paris, was another occurrence that excited the attention of Europe. Averſe to pomp, he choſe to travel under the humble title of count Falkenſtein; he was received by Lewis with that reſpect which was due to the imperial dignity, and the regard that he was impatient to teſtify to the brother of his royal conſort. During ſix weeks that the emperor remained at Paris, his hours were inceſſantly devoted to examine the various eſtabliſhments of that capital, and in viewing the manufactures. With the ſame ſpirit of enquiry, he made a tour through the different provinces of the kingdom, and in his journey endeavoured to glean whatever might be advantageous to his own dominions.

Amidſt the fury of war, Lewis diſplayed that regard for ſcience which

had early formed a ſtriking characteriſtic of his reign. Previous to the commencement of hoſtilities, the Engliſh had ſent two veſſels into the South ſeas, commanded by captains Cook and Clerke, to explore the coaſts and iſlands of Japan and California; the return of thoſe veſſels was hourly expected in Europe; and Lewis, with a conſiderate humanity which reflects the brighteſt luſtre on his character, by a circular letter to all his naval officers, commanded them to abſtain from all hoſtilities againſt theſe ſhips, and to treat them as neutral veſſels. The letters mentioned alſo in terms of the higheſt reſpect Captain Cook, who had long diſtinguiſhed himſelf in ſucceſſive voyages of diſcovery. But death allowed not that celebrated navigator to enjoy this grateful teſtimony to his merit; for in one of the newly diſcovered iſlands he had already fallen a victim to the blind fury of the ſavage inhabitants.

At the beginning of the year 1780, in conſequence of the repreſentations of Mr. Necker, a variety of unneceſſary offices in the houſehold of the queen were aboliſhed; and ſundry other important regulations adopted, for the eaſe of the ſubject, and the general benefit of the kingdom. Could we implicitly credit his memorial, he changed the exceſs of the diſburſements at leaſt one million ſterling, of the year 1776, into an exceſs of revenue in the year 1780, to the amount of 445,000l. But the meaſures of Mr Necker were not calculated to procure him friends at court; the vain, the intereſted, and the ambitious, naturally became his enemies; and the king appears not to have poſſeſſed ſufficient firmneſs of mind to ſupport an upright and able miniſter. He was therefore diſplaced, and is ſaid to have been particularly oppoſed by the queen's party.

The independence of America had been the grand object of France, and that having been acknowledged in the fulleſt and moſt expreſs terms by Great Britain, the preliminary articles of peace were ſigned at Paris on the 20th of January, 1783: but the immenſe expences incurred were found at laſt to be much more than the revenues of the kingdom could by any means ſupport; and the miſerable exigencies to which government was reduced, contributed no doubt to bring about the preſent revolution.

In the various wars of France with England, particularly in the laſt and preſent centuries, no object appears of more conſequence to her naval operations than the obtaining a port in the Channel. With a view of obviating this want, the ableſt engineers in that kingdom have proceeded, by the moſt aſtoniſhing and ſtupendous works, to render the port of Cherburgh capable of receiving and protecting a royal navy. Since the laſt peace, they have proſecuted this work at an annual expence of upwards of 200,000l. and expectation was ſo ſanguine, that it was thought a year or two more would effect this arduous and important undertaking, but they have been diſappointed.

In the year 1786 a treaty of navigation and commerce was concluded between the two courts of London and Verſailles, and th having concluded the tranſactions between the two kingdoms, we have now only to give an account of the late revolution.

The ambition of the French government, which made it acquainted with liberty, in aſſiſting the inſurgents in America and Hollan , excited a ſpirit amongſt the people, which could not well admit of the continuance of arbitrary power at home. The diſmiſſion of Monſieur Necker from the direction of public affairs, and ſucceeding miniſters being endowed neither with his integrity or abilities, the finances of the nation were on the point of being intirely ruined. And when the edict for regiſtering the loan at the concluſion of 1785, which amounted to the ſum of three millions three hundred

hundred and thirty thouſand pounds, was preſented to the parliament of Paris, the murmurs of the people, and the remonſtrances of that aſſembly, aſſumed a more legal and formidable form. The king, however, ſignified to the ſelect deputations that were commiſſioned to convey to him their remonſtrances, that he expected to be obeyed without farther delay. The ceremony of the regiſtering took place on the next day, but was accompanied with a reſolution, importing, that public œconomy was the only genuine ſource of abundant revenue, the only means of providing for the neceſſity of the ſtate, and reſtoring that credit, which borrowing had reduced to the brink of ruin.

This proceeding was no ſooner known than the king required the attendance of the grand deputation of parliament: he eraſed from their records the reſolution that had been adopted; and declared himſelf ſatisfied with the conduct of Monſieur de Calonne, his comptroller-general.

However gratified by the ſupport of his ſovereign, Monſieur de Calonne could not fail of feeling himſelf deeply mortified by the oppoſition of the parliament. An anxious enquiry into the ſtate of the public finances had convinced him that the expenditure had far exceeded the revenues; in the preſent ſituation, to impoſe new taxes was impoſſible, to continue the method of borrowing was ruinous, and to have recourſe only to œconomical reforms, would be found wholly inadequate; and he heſitated not to declare that it would be impoſſible to place the finances on a ſolid baſis, but by the reformation of whatever was vicious in the conſtitution of the ſtate. To give weight to this reform, the miniſter was ſenſible that ſomething more was neceſſary than royal authority; he perceived that the parliament was neither a fit inſtrument for introducing a new order into public affairs, nor would ſubmit to be a paſſive machine for ſanctioning the plans of a miniſter, even if theſe plans were the emanations of perfect wiſdom.

Under theſe circumſtances, the only alternative that ſeemed to remain was to have recourſe to ſome other aſſembly, more dignified and ſolemn in its character, and that ſhould conſiſt in a greater degree of members from the various orders of the ſtate, and the different provinces of the kingdom; but the true and legitimate aſſembly of the nation, the ſtates-general, had not met ſince the year 1614. Another aſſembly had occaſionally been ſubſtituted in the room of the ſtates-general; this was diſtinguiſhed by the title of the *notables* or men of note, and conſiſted of a number of perſons from all parts of the kingdom, chiefly ſelected from the higher orders of the ſtate, and nominated by the king himſelf. This aſſembly had been convened by Henry the fourth, and again by Lewis the thirteenth; and was now once more ſummoned by the authority of the preſent monarch, and the 29th of January, 1787, was the period appointed for their opening.

It was under great difficulties that monſieur Calonne firſt met the aſſembly of the notables, and opened his long expected plan. He began, by ſtating that the public expenditure had for centuries paſt exceeded the revenues; that a very conſiderable deficiency had of courſe exiſted; and that at his own acceſſion to office it was three millions three hundred and thirty thouſand pounds.

To remedy this evil the comptroller general recommended a territorial impoſt, in the nature of the Engliſh land-taxes, from which no rank or order of men were to be exempted; an enquiry into the poſſeſſions of the clergy, which hitherto had been deemed ſacred, from their proportion of the public burthens: the various branches of internal taxation were alſo to undergo a

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ſtrict examination; and a conſiderable reſource was preſented in mortgaging the demeſne lands of the crown.

Before monſieur Necker retired from the management of the finances, he had publiſhed his Compte rendue au Roi, in which France was repreſented as poſſeſſing a clear ſurplus of four hundred and twenty-five thouſand pounds ſterling. This performance had been read with avidity, and had been conſidered as an æra in the hiſtory of France. The credit of this ſtatement was ably vindicated by monſieur de Brienne, archbiſhop of Thouloufe, and by the count de Mirabeau, a ſtill more formidable enemy to Calonne. His eloquence, however, might have ſucceſsfully vindicated his ſyſtem and reputation againſt the calculations of Brienne, and invectives of Mirabeau; but the genius of the comptroller-general ſunk under the influence of the three great bodies of the nation. The grand and eſſential object of reform was to equalize the public burthens, and, by rendering the taxes general, to diminiſh the load of the lower and moſt uſeful claſſes of the people. The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public aſſeſſment; the crouds of new nobleſſe, who had purchaſed their patents, were by that ſhameful cuſtom exempted, both themſelves and their poſterity, from contributing proportionably to the expences of the ſtate; the magiſtracies likewiſe throughout the kingdom enjoyed their ſhare of exemptions; ſo that the whole weight of the taxes fell on thoſe who are leaſt able to bear them. Thus the nobility, the clergy, and the magiſtracy, were united againſt the miniſter, and the event was ſuch as might be expected. The intrigues of thoſe three bodies raiſed againſt him ſo loud a clamour, that finding it impoſſible to ſtem the torrent, monſieur de Calonne not only reſigned his place on the 12th of April, but ſoon after retired to England from the ſtorm of perſecution.

The notables proceeded in their inquiries, and it was now ſuggeſted that an aſſembly of the ſtate ſhould be called, as the notables were not competent to impoſe a new tax. As the deliberations of the notables were not carried on in ſecret, this propoſal was inſtantly circulated through the capital, and ſuppoſed to be a new diſcovery. The notables were ſoon after diſſolved, without having accompliſhed any thing except the juſtification of M. Necker.

The ſtamp act, however, was eſtabliſhed, and a bed of juſtice was held by the king on the 5th of Auguſt, 1787, at which the parliament of Paris was obliged to attend, and the edict was regiſtered, notwithſtanding their proteſt to the contrary. But the parliament, though defeated, were far from ſubdued: on the day after the king had held his bed of juſtice, they entered a formal proteſt againſt the conceſſion that had been extorted from them.

Painful as every appearance of violence muſt have proved to the mild diſpoſition of Lewis, he could not conſent to ſurrender, without a ſtruggle, that authority which had been ſo long exerciſed by his predeceſſors. Since the commencement of the preſent diſcontents, the capital had been gradually filled with conſiderable bodies of troops; and about a week after the parliament had entered the proteſt, an officer of the French guards, with a party of ſoldiers, went at break of day to the houſe of each individual member, to ſignify to him the king's command, that he ſhould immediately get into his carriage, and proceed to Troyes, a city of Champagne, about ſeventy miles from Paris, without writing or ſpeaking to any perſon out of his own houſe before his departure. Theſe orders were ſerved at the ſame inſtant, and before the citizens of Paris were acquainted with the tranſaction, the parliament were already on the road to the ſcene of their baniſhment.

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But such was the weakness and imbecility of government at the present conjuncture, and such the discontent excited by this measure that they found it necessary to recall the parliament after a month's exile. As they had declared their incapacity to register a tax, the only expedient that offered itself to the Archbishop was that of a loan. In order to give this edict the authority of a law without the voluntary participation of parliament he devised the mode of a *séance royale*, where the edicts were at last registered. The duke of Orleans in presence of the king protested against the legality of the proceeding, for which he with four others were banished. The king at the same time sent for the journals of the parliament and by his direction the resolution of the evening of the *séance royale* was erased. The banishment of the duke of Orleans and the other four members excited great clamours, and a memorial was presented to the king by the peers demanding their recal, which was agreed to, and the prohibition of their attendance was in a short time taken off.

Meanwhile the opposition of the provincial parliaments continued without the smallest interruption. That of Bourdeaux, which as a punishment for its refractory dispositions had been exiled to Libourne discovered no inclination to retract, and one of their earliest concerns after their translation was to vote a remonstrance, the object of which was to justify their proceedings. The parliaments of Grenoble and Rennes adopted the sentiments of their brethren of Bourdeaux. In short a daring spirit of innovation roused and kept alive by writings of every description which issued in great numbers from the press, had diffused itself through all ranks, and rendered them impatient of the necessary restraint of legal government; many of the officers in the army who had recently served in America were deeply tinctured with the theoretical and destructive principles, which afterwards involved their country in anarchy, bloodshed, and ruin.

Under these impressions an arret was issued in August fixing the meeting of the States-general to the first of May the ensuing year; and every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public during the interval. New arrangements took place in the administration; and Mr Necker, who had long been the idol of the people, was again introduced into the management of the finances; the torture, which by a former edict had been restricted in part was now entirely abolished; every person accused was allowed the assistance of counsel, and permitted to avail himself of any point of law; and it was decreed, that in future sentence of death should not be passed on any person, unless the party accused should be pronounced guilty by a majority at least of three judges.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on the States-general; but the moment of that assembly's meeting was far from auspicious; the minds of the French had long been agitated by various rumours; the unanimity that had been expected from the different orders of the states, was extinguished by the jarring pretensions of each; and their mutual jealousies were attributed by the suspicions of the people to the intrigues of the court, who were supposed already to repent of the hasty assent which had been extorted from them. A dearth that pervaded the kingdom increased the general discontent and the people pressed by hunger, and inflamed by resentment, were ripe for a revolt. The sovereign, also, equally impatient of the obstacles he continually encountered, could not conceal his chagrin; while the influence of the queen in the cabinet was again established, and was attended with the immediate dismissal of Mr. Neckar, who received a letter from the king requiring

him to quit the kingdom in 24 hours. That miniſter took the route of Bruſſels on the following day, when his departure was made public.

The city of Paris was thrown into deep conſternation by Mr Neckar's retreat. His buſt and that of the duke of Orleans were dreſſed in mourning and carried through the ſtreets. The Royal Allemand, a German regiment, broke in pieces the buſts and diſperſed the populace. The mob being joined by the French guards aſſaulted the military on all ſides, and compelled the Germans, overpowered by numbers, and unſupported by the reſt of the army to retire.

All order was now at an end, and as night approached, an univerſal terror diffuſed itſelf through the city. Bands of robbers were collecting; and from them or from the foreign ſoldiery a general pillage was expected.

The celebrated fortreſs of the Baſtille was an object of much jealouſy to the Pariſians. At 11 o'clock in the morning, M. de la Roſiere at the head of a numerous deputation, waited upon M. de Launay the governor, who promiſed, along with the officers of his garriſon, that they would not fire upon the city unleſs they ſhould be attacked. But a report was ſpread through Paris, that M. de Launay had in a ſhort thereafter, admitted into the fortreſs a multitude of perſons unarmed and then treacherouſly maſſacred them. This report propagated for the purpoſe of inflaming the multitude, was not only in itſelf highly improbable, but has been ſince proved utterly falſe and unfounded.

Its effect however was ſuch as might naturally be expected; a ſudden reſolution was adopted of attacking the Baſtile; an immenſe and furious multitude ruſhed into its outer, and ſoon forced their way into its inner courts, where they received and returned a ſevere fire for the ſpace of an hour. After many proofs of the moſt daring intrepidity by thoſe who headed the aſſault, the fortreſs was carried. Thoſe who had the merit of the exploit ſaved M. de Launay from being immediately torn in pieces by the multitude who poured in from all quarters, and conducted him with danger and difficulty to the Hotel de Ville, but were unable to prevent his being maſſacred by the cowardly rabble which ſurrounded it, and who had no part in the taking of the Baſtile. M. de Loſme, his Major, a perſon diſtinguiſhed for his humanity to the priſoners, was at the ſame time a victim to the undiſtinguiſhing fury of thoſe wretches. Their thirſt of blood was ſo great, that although the marquis de Billeport, who had been confined five years in the Baſtile, ruſhed among them and proclaimed the humanity of M. de Loſme to himſelf and other priſoners, he was not liſtened to, but inſulted and wounded, and eſcaped not without difficulty with his life. M. de Fleſſelles, the Prevot de Marchands, of a character leſs popular, but who ſeems to have been guilty of nothing, which candour could have thought a proof of guilt, incurred the ſame fate, and the heads of all three being fixed upon pikes were carried by thoſe ſavages in triumph through the ſtreets.

Meanwhile the king was kept ignorant of theſe tumults, until at midnight the duke de Liancourt forced his way into his apartment, and told him of the revolt of his capital, of his army, and of the ſurrender of the Baſtille. Early the next morning he went to the aſſembly, where he was received with the moſt profound ſilence; ſome of the deputies were no doubt affected with ſentiments of humanity and compaſſion at the ſight of fallen majeſty, when their king appeared among them in a ſtyle ſo different from that in which they had been accuſtomed to view him; when without pomp, almoſt without attendants, and in the plaineſt dreſs, ſtanding and uncovered, he addreſſed them in the moſt conciliatory terms, profeſſing his ſorrow for the diſ-

diſorders in Paris, his regard for the aſſembly, and aſſured them that the reports of any deſign on their perſonal liberty were calumnious. He ended by declaring that he had ordered the troops, which had given ſo much offence to remove from the neighbourhood of the capital.

This diſcourſe was not heard to an end without interruption. The emotion it produced was too powerful for the ſtern maxims of the cold philoſophy the French politicians had adopted, and the hall reſounded with ſhouts of applauſe. When the king withdrew, all the deputies followed, and forming a reſpectful ring around his perſon, attended him to the palace, in the balcony of which the queen appeared with the Dauphin in her arms, while the muſic played the pathetic air of *Ou peut-on être mieux qu'au ſein de ſa famille.*

On the following day the king declared his reſolution to viſit the city of Paris in perſon. Accordingly that monarch, who never wanted perſonal courage, however he might want that commanding firmneſs which perilous times require, left Verſailles on the morning of the 17th of July, with only one carriage, beſides that in which he was himſelf. He was attended by the Dukes of Villeroy and Vilquier, the Marſhal Beauveau, the Count d'Eſtaing, and one or two other perſons of the court. The militia of Verſailles accompanied the carriages to Sevé, where they were met by M. de la Fayette, at the head of a large body of national guards; a party of cavalry headed the proceſſion from Sevé, followed by the French guards with their cannon; a deputation of the National aſſembly in their robes alſo attended, and were followed by the Pariſian National Guards. The proceſſion was ſlow and to the king would be more gloomy that he no more heard the ancient cry of *Vive le Roi!* whereas that of *Vive la Nation!* was inceſſantly ſcreamed from all ſides. That this did not happen by accident was evident; for men were heard admoniſhing the people not to cry *Vive le Roi!* There are many reaſons for believing that the king's journey to Paris and his reception there were planned by a few, who had influence in the committee at Paris as well as in the aſſembly, with a view to ſtrike him with terror, and bend his ſpirit to an acquieſcence in their future projects. It is not therefore ſurpriſing that he looked pale, melancholy, and with diſquietude. He was met at the barrier by the Mayor, who preſenting him with the keys of the city informed him that they were the identical keys which had been preſented to Henry IV. obſerving at the ſame time, in language more quaint than flattering, that Henry had *re-conquered* his people, whereas in the preſent inſtance the people had *re-conquered* their king. He told the king alſo, what he might otherwiſe not have believed, that this was a very glorious day for the French monarchy, and added, what might have occurred to him without being told, that it was a day, which it was not likely his majeſty would forget. Whatever the king's thoughts were, he ſaid nothing. Finding himſelf equally embarraſſed to anſwer all the fine ſpeeches which were addreſſed to him on his arrival at the Hotel de Ville, his majeſty obſerved nearly the ſame ſilence there. M. Bailly, the mayor, having preſented the national cockade to him, he appeared at the window with it attached to his hat; the populace in the ſquare ſhouted; the cry of *Vive le Roi!* was then heard for the firſt time that day, and reſounded through the ſtreets as the king returned from the town-houſe to Verſailles, where he was expected with fearful inquietude by the queen and all his family.

The members of the new adminiſtration which had been ſo ſuddenly and imprudently formed, ſenſible of the quick tranſitions to which the French populace are liable, and by no means certain that they would be ſatisfied with

their reſignation, reſolved to withdraw from the kingdom. The count d'Artois with his family, the princes of Condé and Conti, with many of the nobility did the ſame. M. Foulon, who in the formation of the late miniſtry had been placed in the war-department as an aſſiſtant to M. de Broglio, was not ſo fortunate as to eſcape out of France. Senſible of the people's prejudice againſt him, he kept himſelf concealed, and cauſed the report of his death to be ſpread abroad. He was diſcovered by the peaſants, while he was under hiding at a country-houſe near Paris. Some of the enemies of this unhappy man had circulated the incredible ſtory, that he had often declared, that if he ſhould ever be miniſter, he would make the people live on hay. The ſureſt way of gaining the belief of the populace is to ſpeak to their paſſions. This abſurd expreſſion was repeated by every mouth, and it kindled the more reſentment in the breaſts of the rabble at this period, becauſe many of them actually experienced hunger at the ſame time.

The cruelties which theſe peaſants, and ſome of the populace at Paris, committed on M. Foulon and his ſon in law M. Berthier, in ſpite of all the efforts of the mayor of Paris and the commander of the national guards to prevent them, are ſhocking to humanity, and diſguſting to narrate. They were hanged at a lamp iron by the enraged multitude and their heads were carried round on poles. The populace were thus habituated to blood and murder; they were even taught by popular ſongs to glory in ſuch actions, and particularly by the well-known ſong of *Ca ira*.

The vindictive diſpoſition and exceſſes of the Pariſian populace were to be regretted not only on account of their effects at Paris, but alſo on account of the example thereby given to the lower orders, and particularly the tenants of land, and the peaſantry, all over France, among whom great diſorders continued after ſome appearance of regularity had taken place in the capital. Accounts came from all quarters, that the ſpirit of revolt ſeemed to increaſe inſtead of diminiſhing in the provinces; that to a refuſal of paying taxes and rents many inſtances of pillaging, robbery, and houſebreaking, were added; that the nobility in particular were expoſed to theſe depredations; that many of their family-ſeats had been plundered and demoliſhed, and in ſome caſes their wives and children abuſed and inſulted in the groſſeſt manner. The meaſures which were taken in conſequence of theſe diſorders and tumults were very extraordinary, and opened a very important ſcene in the French Revolution. On the afternoon ſitting of the 4th of Auguſt, the Viſcount de Noailles after ſtating that the true cauſe of the commotions which convulſed the kingdom, exiſted in the miſery of the people, who were driven to thoſe exceſſes by the accumulation and weight of the burdens under which they laboured; and were become deſperate by the exaction of taxes which they could not pay; after enlarging on the glory which the nobility would derive from ſacrificing private intereſt and importance to the public good, he concluded by moving that thoſe ſources of tyranny and injuſtice ſhould be aboliſhed; that all public charges ſhould be equally ſupported by the whole community, and all taxes levied in proportion to the income of each individual; that all feudal claims ſhould be redeemable at a fair valuation; that corvées, and all rights of the lords to the ſervices of the peaſantry ſhould be entirely aboliſhed, and other grievances, under which the people ſuffered, alleviated.

The viſcount de Noailles' motion was ſeconded by the duke d'Aiguillon, who made another tending to the ſame purpoſe, which created more ſurpriſe than the former on account of the duke's ample eſtate and extenſive royalties. Theſe bright examples, joined to the thundering applauſe, with which

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their propoſals were heard, excited great emulation. The virtues of ſelf-denial and patriotiſm became ſo precious in the eyes of ſome who had never before ſeemed to put any great value on them, that hardly any ſacrifice was thought too dear for the purchaſe of even the reputation of poſſeſſing them. Some of the nobles, however, were provoked at certain ſacrifices which affected themſelves more than the propoſers, and in revenge they moved for different ſacrifices which affected the others more than themſelves; and it is ſaid, to the heat raiſed by this colliſion of emulation, patriotiſm and revenge, the heat and expanſion produced by wine were added; ſo that on the whole more was obtained for the republicans at this one ſitting after dinner, than the moſt ſanguine of the party could have expected in many days.

The clergy had hitherto remained aſtoniſhed and ſilent ſpectators of a ſcene ſo awful and unexpected; and a motion having been made to put an end to the meeting, the preſident was proceeding accordingly, when ſuddenly he made a pauſe, and reproached himſelf for want of attention in being about "prematurely to cloſe the meeting before any of the venerable body of the clergy, ever ſympathiſing with the diſtreſſes of the people, had declared their ſentiments on ſo intereſting a ſubject."

There was no evading this apoſtrophe. The biſhops of Nancy and Chartres ſpoke in the name of their brethren. The firſt not only approved of a motion which had been made, that the feudal rights, and all other juriſdictions of lords of manors eſtabliſhed in the ſame manner ſhould be aboliſhed; but he propoſed beſides, that the price of the ranſom of eccleſiaſtical feudalities ſhould be applied to the relief of the poorer part of the eccleſiaſtical body, and not to the profit of the actual incumbent. The biſhop of Chartres after inſiſting on the injuſtice of the game laws, moved the abolition of them and all the pretended rights of the chace. To cloſe the whole the duke de Liancourt propoſed that a ſolemn *Te Deum* ſhould be performed, that a medal ſhould be ſtruck in commemoration of the events of that night; and that the title of RESTORER OF GALLIC LIBERTY ſhould be beſtowed upon the reigning monarch.

Thus did the French nobility with the moſt unexampled levity and folly, without reflection, without hearing and weighing the arguments which might have been advanced on the oppoſite ſide, by acclamation aboliſh privileges eſtabliſhed by ancient uſage, and handed down to them by a long line of anceſtors. That they were not oppreſſive we do not mean to affirm; but ſurely the conduct of the national aſſembly in that important night reſembled rather a conventicle of furious zealots than a legiſlative aſſembly of ſober and rational men met together for the purpoſe of deliberating on the affairs of a great nation; moreover all theſe laws voted in this romantic manner, were not ſo likely to do real good, or to promote laſting concord between the rich and the poor, as *one* bill to remove *one* grievance, voted according to the ſlow forms of our acts of parliament, after a full diſcuſſion and a fair hearing of the arguments on both ſides.

Meanwhile that delicate and important queſtion, "whether the king ſhould poſſeſs an abſolute negative or *veto*, a ſuſpenſive *veto*, or no *veto* at all," which was ſhortly after agitated, operated like a touchſtone for trying the ſentiments of every perſon, and the aſſembly, conſiſting of 1200, was now ſeen to arrange itſelf into two violent contending factions. The one party accuſed the other of a deſign to excite inſurrections; and the charge was retorted, by circulating a report that a plot for conveying the king to Metz was already ripe for execution. Upon the circulation of this report, the French guards began to wiſh to be reſtored to their ancient employment of attend-

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ing his perſon, for the purpoſe of preventing any attempt of this nature. The popular party ſaw the advantages they would derive from placing the aſſembly and the king in the midſt of that turbulent metropolis, upon the attachment of which they could moſt ſecurely depend. Every encouragement was therefore given by the leaders of the democratic party to the project of eſtabliſhing the court at Paris. An incident ſoon occurred, which ſerved them for a pretence to accompliſh their wicked views, and which others attempted to turn to more heinous purpoſes.

The count d'Eſtaing, who had the command of the national guards at Verſailles, having previouſly conſulted the municipality, and repreſented the neceſſity of protecting the national aſſembly, and the perſon of the king from any attempt againſt them, required that a thouſand troops of the line ſhould be quartered at Verſailles for that purpoſe. The regiment of Flanders, conſiſting of a thouſand men, were in conſequence ordered to Verſailles. When they arrived, the officers together with thoſe of the national guards, were invited to an entertainment by the Gardes du Corps. The entertainment was given in the opera-houſe belonging to the palace. The gueſts amounted to 240 and all the boxes were full of ſpectators. Towards the end of the entertainment, the queen having ſeen from a window the gaiety which prevailed among the military, requeſted the king who was juſt returned from hunting, to viſit them along with herſelf and the dauphin, and ſeveral ladies and gentlemen of the court. This unexpected viſit to a company, whoſe hearts were already elated with gaiety and warmed with wine, could not fail to kindle in their minds the moſt enthuſiaſtic ſpirit of loyalty. The health of their beloved and amiable prince, with thoſe of all the royal family, was drank with acclamations of joy and with drawn ſwords. After walking through the hall, the royal party bowed with politeneſs to the company and retired; the muſic ſtruck up the favourite air of *O Richard, O mon roi, l'univers t'abandonne*, "O Richard, O my king, the world abandons thee." Surely they who could have beheld with indifference this tender and affecting ſcene, muſt have been ſtrangely hardened by the cold and blood-thirſty philoſophy of the French politicians; in the breaſts of the preſent generous and loyal company, it excited the moſt lively ſenſations of attachment to their ſovereign, and of ſympathy for his ſufferings. They threw open the gates of the hall for the grenadiers of the two corps, who having drank the healths of the Royal Family, hurried with jovial enthuſiaſm to paſs the night in dancing beneath the windows of the palace.

Theſe events were next day reported at Paris, exaggerated and miſrepreſented for the worſt of purpoſes, by the leaders of the democratic party, who reſolved to ſpirit up the people to an inſurrection. By means of theſe miſrepreſentations, together with conſiderable ſums diſtributed among the agents of inſurrection, of whom there were at this time abundance in Paris, a numerous band of women, and men diſguiſed in women's cloths, armed with pikes and other weapons, aſſembled on the morning of the 5th of October, in the ſquare of the Hotel de Ville, and were calling aloud for arms and bread. They reſolved to proceed inſtantly to demand bread from the king and from the National aſſembly *. A depu-

* La Fayette oppoſed them in vain; for his ſoldiers refuſed to act againſt them. Upon this, one Staniſlaus Maillard, who had diſtinguiſhed himſelf at the taking of the Baſtile, offered himſelf as a leader of the inſurgents; he ſet out for Verſailles about noon with as much order as could be expected from ſuch an aſſemblage. When he approached Verſailles, with his tumultuous troop, he arranged them in three diviſions, and perſuaded them to behave with ſome appearance of order.

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tation had juſt been decreed to wait upon the king and to requeſt him to give a pure and ſimple ſanction to the articles of the declaration of rights and the conſtitution which had been already preſented to him; but before the members were appointed, the firſt tumultuous band that had left Paris, conducted by Maillard, arrived at Verſailles. A detachment of the moſt furious of the Poiſſardes belonging to it marched directly to the National Aſſembly, and were on the point of forcing the guards at the gate, when the Aſſembly *prudently* decreed, that they ſhould be admitted.

As they began their remonſtrances altogether, it was a conſiderable time before it could be diſtinguiſhed that the grievance they chiefly inſiſted on was want of bread. The preſident declared, that the Aſſembly was juſt going to deliberate on the ſpeedieſt means of procuring it, and added, that the ladies might withdraw. Inſtead of taking this hint, the ladies ſeated themſelves without ceremony on the benches with the deputies. Nor did they liſten to the debates with ſilence, but took a degree of intereſt in them which muſt have been embarraſſing to all, and peculiarly ſo to the orators, whoſe diſcourſe they diſapproved. "Speak, Deputy!" they called to one; "hold "your tongue, Deputy!" to another. Sometimes, inſtead of Deputy, they addreſſed the ſpeakers whom they did not reliſh by appellations too vile to be mentioned.

In conſequence of the decree which had paſſed before the arrival of the Poiſſardes M. Mounier and fifteen deputies went out of the hall. They were again to addreſs the king to give a ſimple aſſent to the articles preſented to him. As ſoon as the Poiſſardes underſtood this, a number of them inſiſted on accompanying the preſident to the king. M. Mounier, with ſome difficulty prevailed on them to limit their number to ſix. The deputation of the National Aſſembly with their new aſſociates, walked under a heavy ſhower of rain between two rows of an intermingled multitude of armed men and women, from the hall of the aſſembly to the palace. When they arrived at the gate, a band of Poiſſardes who followed, inſtead of adhering to the treaty, inſiſted that twelve of their number ſhould enter the king's apartment with the preſident. This new requiſition was complied with, as it muſt have been had they inſiſted upon a hundred. The preſident being introduced, with the deputation from the Aſſembly, and the twelve repreſentatives of the Poiſſarde army, addreſſed the king on the deplorable ſcarcity of proviſions, and the confuſion reſulting from it in the capital. His majeſty replied in the ſame ſtyle, lamenting the diſtreſſes of the poor in ſuch pathetic terms as charmed the Poiſſardes, and they withdrew in full confidence that his majeſty would do all in his power to remedy the evil of which they complained.

Meanwhile Fayette arrived with his army about 10 o'clock at night, and found the Aſſembly in a very unpleaſant ſituation. Their hall and galleries were crowded by the Pariſian poiſſardes and others of the mob, who at that very inſtant interrupted their debates. La Fayette having waited upon the king, and informed him of the proceedings of the day, planted guards where he judged neceſſary; and after a ſcanty banquet had been prepared, he prevailed with the Aſſembly to cloſe their ſitting for that night. In this laſt part of his conduct la Fayette has been much cenſured, and probably not without reaſon; for it could ſcarcely be expected that the night would be ſpent in peace by the immenſe aſſemblage of turbulent characters, that were now brought together.

All was quiet till about ſix in the morning of the 6th. of October 1789; when different groups of the rabble of both ſexes, who had left Paris the

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preceding day, and had been ſpending the night in drinking, met near the palace. It was propoſed by ſome of this united band of ruffians to attack the Gardes du Corps, who were few in number. This was no ſooner propoſed than executed. Without meeting with any reſiſtance from the national militia of Verſailles, thoſe wretches ruſhed furiouſly acroſs the courts, crying "Tuez les Gardes du Corps; point de quartier *." Two of thoſe gallant men were murdered, others wounded and driven within the palace. One party of theſe demons, with horrid threats and imprecations, attempted to force their way into the apartments of the queen, who had lain down to indulge nature in a few hours of reſpite, and troubled melancholy repoſe. She was ſtartled from her ſleep by the voice of M. de Miomandre the ſentinel at her door, who cried to her to ſave herſelf by flight, that this was the laſt proof of fidelity he could give. He oppoſed however the entrance of the aſſailants with heroic gallantry, until he fell covered with honourable wounds. A band of cruel ruffians and aſſaſſins, reeking with his blood, ruſhed into the chamber of the queen, and pierced with a hundred ſtrokes of bayonets and poniards the bed, from whence this perſecuted woman had but juſt time to fly almoſt naked, and through ways unknown to her murderers had eſcaped to ſeek refuge at the feet of a king and huſband, not ſecure of his own life for a moment. He on his part had at the firſt alarm haſtened to the Queen's chamber by another paſſage; and ſome of the attendants, anxious for the life of the Dauphin, had run and fetched him from the children's apartment; and when the king returned to his own chamber, he found the young prince in the arms of his mother.

As ſoon as M. Mounier heard of theſe tranſactions, he haſtened to the National Aſſembly, and made a propoſal which was ſupported by other deputies, that the National Aſſembly ſhould be immediately transferred to the grand ſaloon of the palace, that they might at once aſſiſt his Majeſty with their advice, and contribute to his protection at ſuch an alarming criſis. But Mirabeau oppoſed it as "unbecoming their dignity, as even unwiſe to "deſert their poſt, when real or *imaginary!* dangers ſeem to threaten the "public." M. Mounier aſſerts that the joy of ſome members of the National Aſſembly was indecently apparent, M. Bailly calling this an "auſpicious day."

The king's mind was greatly affected with the death of the guards who had fallen in his defence, and notwithſtanding all the aſſurances of M. La Fayette, was making continual enquiries reſpecting the body-guards; and his anxiety carried him ſo far at laſt, that he appeared at the balcony, aſſuring the crowd below, that they had been unjuſtly accuſed, and even intereceding in their favour. Some of the populace calling out for the Queen, ſhe appeared at the balcony with the Dauphin and the Princeſs Royal at her ſide.

No tyrant giddy with the plenitude of power, ever puſhed the wantonneſs of deſpotiſm to a more diſguſting length than the wretches who filled the courts below. Inſtead of being moved at this mark of condeſcenſion, ſome of the barbarians called out "No children." No conſtruction could be put upon ſuch an exclamation, at ſuch a moment, but that it was thought that the Queen had brought the children as a protection to herſelf, and that the wretches intended to fire at her, when they were removed. It was moſt natural for the Queen to think ſo, becauſe ſhe had been frequently told that their curſes and threats had been particularly directed againſt her. Unmoved by

* Kill the body-guards; no quarter.

by this reflection, ſhe made the children withdraw, and inſtantly turning to the multitude ſhe ſtood alone upright and undaunted. Struck with admiration of her majeſtic appearance and intrepid behaviour, the moſt barbarous for a moment forgot their rancour, and joined in the repeated ſhouts of applauſe that burſt from all quarters, in the midſt of which the queen retired. Some time after ſhe had diſappeared, thoſe who had directed the movements of the multitude, reſumed the great object of this expedition. Voices were heard exclaiming the "king to Paris." The voices multiplied every moment, and at laſt the cries of "To Paris! To Paris," were univerſal. After the fatigues and agonies of ſuch a night, the Royal Family were much in need of an interval of repoſe; but they were deſtined to undergo ſome very painful hours before they obtained it. They had, however, no choice left. It would not have been, perhaps, poſſible to ſave their lives had the king refuſed.

They left Verſailles after one o'clock, which was announced by a volley from the troops. The company of the hundred Swiſs ſurrounded the king's coach; a troop of dragoons preceded, and another immediately followed it. The Pariſian national guards had begun their march a ſhort time before. Various bands of the Poiſſardes were intermingled with all the different corps of this ſtrange army; ſome ſeated on waggons ornamented with green boughs, and white, red, and blue ribbons; ſome aſtride upon the cannon, many on horſeback; generally two on the ſame horſe, with the hats of the body guards on their heads, the belts acroſs their ſhoulders, and armed with ſabres; rending the air every inſtant with their ſavage ſhouts, and the choruſes of their vile ſongs. In the middle of one band of thoſe ſanguinary hags, two men carried long pikes, on the points of which were the heads of the murdered Gardes-du-Corps. At certain diſtances the whole proceſſion was made to halt, for the purpoſe of firing freſh volleys, and that the ſoldiers might be refreſhed with wine and a little reſt On theſe occaſions the Poiſſardes on the carriages and on horſeback deſcended and joined hands in horrid dances around the bloody heads that were fixed on the pikes. What rendered the ſcene completely ſhocking was the preſence of the Gardes du Corps, who had been ſaved by the grenadiers, and were now marched in triumph, diſarmed, in ſight of the heads of their murdered companions. Theſe ſcenes were repeated at intervals during a ſlow journey of twelve miles, which laſted from a little after one till ſeven in the evening, about which time the Royal Family arrived at Paris. The town was illuminated, and the evening ſpent in triumph by the vile populace of Paris.

Such were the tranſactions of the 6th of October, 1789, a day which "ſeemed to blot the ſun out of heaven." Such were the horrors which ſurrounded the Royal Family, ſuch the alarm, terror, and diſmay, which they ſuffered from bands of midnight ruffians thirſting for their blood, ſuch were the dangers which the execrable Mirabeau could call imaginary; ſuch was this proceſſion and triumph which ſome in Britain could compare to the entrance into the world of the Prince of Peace.

The national aſſembly immediately after their removal to Paris, proceeded in the arduous attempt of forming a free conſtitution for a great empire. The abbé Sieyes preſented a plan for dividing the kingdom into 83 departments, of about 324 ſquare leagues, and of each department into ſeveral diſtricts, and each diſtrict was ſubdivided into cantons of four ſquare leagues in extent. Thus the whole of the ancient diviſions of the kingdom into governments, generalities and bailiewicks, was in an inſtant obliterated. At the ſame time another meaſure was brought forward, for wickedneſs and bar-

barity worthy of the inſtigators of the French Revolution. This was the confiſcation of the whole of the lands belonging to the church for ſupplying the exigencies of the ſtate. When the terrors of this tremendous proſcription hung over the clergy, they made an offer of a contribution through the archbiſhop of Aix, which for its extravagance ought not to have been accepted. "Why was it not accepted" (ſays an elegant writer,) "The reaſon is plain—There was no deſire that the church ſhould be "brought to ſerve the ſtate. The ſervice of the ſtate was made a pretext to "deſtroy the church. In their way to the deſtruction of the church, they "would not ſcruple to deſtroy their country: and they have deſtroyed it." This nefarious and extenſive plan of robbery was propoſed by the biſhop of Autun (the infamous Talleyrand) who had been promoted to the bench in a moſt irregular manner to ſerve this very purpoſe. The mode in which this property was to be expended was by iſſuing aſſignments *(aſſignats)* upon it, which aſſignments were to be received by the ſtate for the payment of taxes, or for the purchaſe of church-lands, when ſet up for ſale. On the day following that on which this plan of robbery was adopted, a decree was paſſed, ſuſpending the parliaments from the exerciſe of their functions. On the 13th of February, monaſtic eſtabliſhments were ſuppreſſed and their lands confiſcated. All theſe decrees were at once cruel, unjuſt and tyrannical; they reduced a great number of men from the height of opulence to the depths of poverty, and turned out thoſe, accuſtomed to a life of retirement and ſecluſion, naked and deſtitute to the wide world.

Meanwhile the ſyſtem of the rights of man had begun to operate in the Weſt India iſlands. There the whites contended with thoſe called *people of colour*. Theſe again ſometimes ſtood in oppoſition to the free negroes, or to the ſlaves; and hence it ſometimes happened that no leſs than three hoſtile aſſemblies were held at the ſame time in the ſame colony and raged with inveterate fury. Each party found protectors in the national aſſembly of the parent ſtate. Thoſe who favoured or oppoſed the exiſtence of diſtinctions at home, in general followed out the ſame principle with regard to the colonies.

At this time there was ſome appearance of a rupture between Great Britain and Spain, and the miniſter laid before the national aſſembly, the preparations which the king thought expedient, and the precautions he had taken on that occaſion. This information gave riſe to various diſcuſſions, and at laſt brought on a debate on the important queſtion, into whoſe hands the nation ought to entruſt the power of making war or peace. One party was for placing it in the hands of the king and the other in the hands of the national aſſembly. They were obliged, however, to acquieſce in a kind of middle plan, propoſed by Alexander Lameth, which was decreed in the following words, "The right of declaring war and concluding peace belongs "to the nation: war cannot be decided on but by a decree of the legiſlative "body, in conſequence of a formal and neceſſary propoſition made to them "by the king, which muſt be afterwards ſanctioned by him."

On the 19th of June a very ſingular farce was acted in the aſſembly. A Pruſſian refugee, who called himſelf Anacharſis Clouts, on an evening ſitting, introduced to the aſſembly a number of perſons dreſſed in the habits of all the different countries that could be thought of. In a formal harangue he told the aſſembly, that he was come as the *Orator of the Human race*, at the head of the repreſentatives of all nations, to congratulate them upon their new conſtitution. He was anſwered by the preſident with abundance of ſolemnity, and retired with his motley group. This fantaſtical piece of folly,

folly, which by rational beings would have been treated as perfectly ridiculous and abſurd, was treated by the aſſembly in a very ſerious light. Shortly afterwards Alexander Lameth propoſed, that the figures of the different nations exhibited at the feet of Louis XIV. ſhould be deſtroyed as an inſult upon mankind. Little good can be expected from men, who, forgetting the important ſtation which they fill, ſpend their time in ſuch empty and futile declamations. Happy had it been for mankind if they had never been more inſulted or injured by the French Revolution than they were by this harmleſs "*monument of tyranny.*"

With a view to impreſs the revolution on the minds of the people, a great public ceremony had been in preparation for ſome time. On this occaſion the king, the national aſſembly and the people, were to take an oath to maintain the cauſe of liberty and the conſtitution of which the chief articles were already known. The 14th of July, 1790, on account of its being the anniverſary of the taking of the Baſtile was fixed upon for the day of this ceremony, and the extenſive plain of the Champ de Mars for the place in which it was to be celebrated. It was thought expedient to ſhape the ground into an amphitheatre of ſuch prodigious extent, as ſhould admit the multitude who were to be ſpectators of, or according to the French phraſe, to aſſiſt at the ceremony. The Pariſians, however, fearing leſt the plan might not be completed, offered their gratuitous labour to accelerate the work; and all ranks of perſons, the nobles, clergy, and even ladies, with the eagerneſs for novelty ſo peculiar to that people, united their efforts.

The day of ſuch vaſt expectation at length arrived; the amphitheatre was formed with the altar in the middle, the throne of the king, a magnificent pavillion and commodious ſeats for the queen and Royal Family, and the triumphal arches through which the proceſſions were to paſs, were finiſhed only two hours before the proceſſions began. At day break, the citizens began to flock to the amphitheatre, which, it was ſaid, was of ſufficient extent to contain above three hundred thouſand.

The great proceſſion conſiſted of a band of muſic, a body of the national guards, led by M. la Fayette, and followed by the electors of the city of Paris, the principal members of the Municipality, the deputies to the national aſſembly, the deputies from one half of the departments into which France had been divided, a deputation from the army and fleet, headed by two Marſhals of France, the deputies from the other half of the departments, and a body of horſe and foot belonging to the national Guards, with a band of muſic, cloſed the proceſſion.

Two hundred prieſts, dreſſed in garments of white linen bound with the national-coloured ribbons, ſtood on the ſteps, which had been raiſed for the purpoſe of adminiſtering the oath, for which purpoſe the committee of the commune appointed the biſhop of Autun, a man whoſe real character with that of others, has been developed by the progreſs of the French revolution. When he was about to celebrate the maſs, which preceded the pronunciation of the oath, the ſky became obſcure with clouds; a ſtorm of wind took place and was followed by a deluge of rain. The biſhop proceeded to the celebration of the maſs without any regard to the ſtorm; after which he pronounced a benediction on the royal ſtandard of France.

M. La Fayette as a repreſentative of the National Guards took the oath firſt. When he left the bottom of the throne, where he had hitherto ſtood, and moved towards the altar for that purpoſe, the trumpets began to ſound; a vaſt band of martial muſic continued to play, while he aſcended the ſteps of the altar. In the view of the multitude who filled this immenſe circus around,

he laid the point of his ſword upon the bible, which was on the table of the altar, and raiſing his other hand towards the ſky, the muſic ceaſed; an univerſal ſtillneſs enſued, while he pronounced the oath. The trumpets, beginning to ſound as ſoon as he had finiſhed, were drowned in the acclamation of *Vive la Nation!* All the members of the National Aſſembly then ſtanding up, the Preſident pronounced the oath in his own name and that of his brethren; and was in like manner followed by muſic and acclamation. When the king himſelf aroſe, a great body of the National Guards preſſed near the throne, which they ſurrounded with raiſed arms, while he repeated the oath. A ſignal being given that the king had taken the oath, the air reſounded with alternate peals of artillery and ſhouts of the people; and thus ended a ceremony, which has been juſtly conſidered as the grandeſt and moſt extenſive act of perjury that heaven and earth was ever witneſs to.

Among thoſe who were the moſt dreadful ſufferers by this revolution, were the clergy, who have been perſecuted with the moſt ſanguinary fury by the republicans. It had been enacted that every beneficed clergyman ſhould take a ſolemn oath to be faithful to the nation, the law, the king, and to maintain the new conſtitution, particularly thoſe decrees which regarded the eccleſiaſtics. This regulation, however, had not been ſtrongly enforced; but in order to have ſome pretence for their injuſtice and cruelty towards the clergy, they were univerſally accuſed of counter-revolutionary practices. It was therefore reſolved that this decree ſhould be executed with rigour all over the kingdom; and that thoſe who refuſed or neglected to take the oath ſhould be ejected from their benefices, and ſuffer other penalties.

This perſecuting decree is evidently dictated by that ſpirit of impiety, that furious and fanatical malignity to the Chriſtian Religion, which has been a leading principle in the French revolution. Their hatred to the clergy is evident by this and by many other acts of odious tyranny. Not content with deſpoiling them of what lawfully belonged to them they now prepare to perſecute thoſe whom they had already oppreſſed, and whom they had reduced from opulence to poverty.

Lewis XVI. had always been of a pious turn of mind; the conſtant apprehenſion, the troubles and dangers with which he and his family were ſurrounded, would naturally tend to ſtrengthen thoſe impreſſions, and make him turn his eyes to that future life where wretched man is at laſt freed from woe, to that land of peace where grief and trouble ſhall never more annoy. In this diſpoſition of mind the perſecution of the clergy would be very diſagreeable to the king. It was even ſaid that thoſe who had refuſed to take the oaths decreed by the national aſſembly were received with greater ſigns of cordiality than the others. This conduct was exceedingly natural in the king. Beſides thoſe ſentiments of compaſſion which generous minds feel for the unfortunate, he would eſteem them as men who had given up all that they poſſeſſed rather than forſake their religion.

The king had formed the deſign of paſſing the Eaſter holidays at St. Cloud. He wiſhed to be ſomewhat removed from the noiſe and tumult of the capital, while he was engaged in the duties of religion. The monarch's intentions were no ſooner known, than rumours were ſpread with great aſſiduity, that he wiſhed to go to St. Cloud that he might have the ſacrament adminiſtered by unconſtitutional prieſts, and that he might arrange matters for withdrawing to a greater diſtance from the capital, and raiſing a civil war; or perhaps in the view of leaving the kingdom, and ſtirring up his brother kings to make war againſt France. Particular pains were taken to infuſe theſe notions into the national guards. Great numbers of the populace crowded to the Carouſel

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and Tuilleries. The king's carriages, however, were ordered, the national guards on duty there were under arms, and the King, the Queen and the Princeſs Elizabeth went into the coach at 11 o'clock; which they had no ſooner done than the ſurrounding populace began to exclaim and make an outcry in the moſt inſulting and threatening manner: but as they were ſurrounded with numerous detachments of the national guards, diſregarding the inſolence of the multitude, the king ordered the poſtillions to drive on; on which, inſtead of keeping off the crowd, the guards cloſed before the horſes, threatened the poſtillions if they ſhould dare to proceed, and ſwore they would not permit the royal family to leave Paris. The king's domeſtics, and thoſe immediately attached to his perſon, were in the mean time abuſed, maltreated, and dragged from the carriages, about which they had preſſed to cover the Royal Family from the inſults of the rabble. The groſs abuſe offered to the female part of the Royal Family were not confined to the loweſt populace. Some citizens of ſuperior rank joined in them. M. Bailly, the mayor, haſtened to the Tuilleries to ſuppreſs the diſorder; but he was not liſtened to. M. La Fayette ordered the national guards to open to the right and left, to clear away the multitude, and allow the king's coach to paſs; he was not obeyed. After having been more than three hours in the coach, expoſed to the inſults and deriſion of the multitude and of the mutinous ſoldiery, the Royal Family were under the neceſſity of getting out of the carriage, and walking to the palace amidſt the groans, hootings and hiſſings of the multitude. The king complained with much ſpirit of this inſult to the aſſembly. He was anſwered reſpectfully by the preſident, but inſtead of taking meaſures to puniſh the ſeditious, they immediately paſſed to the order of the day; and the king was obliged to give up his journey to St. Cloud.

Thus did the national aſſembly moſt ſhamefully ſanction the outrage and inſult offered by the ſoldiery and populace to their king; and there ſeems to be good reaſon to believe that on this as well as on former occaſions the feeble efforts of the popular leaders in his defence were not intended to protect him either from diſgrace or danger; in ſhort the ſituation of the Royal Family was at this time truly deplorable, ſurrounded with avowed enemies and treacherous friends.

Meanwhile the moſt violent and treaſonable language was ſpoken in the groups of the garden of the Palais Royal. Beſides the emiſſaries, who were diſperſed to all places of public reſort, to circulate calumnies againſt the court, there was a ſociety at this time called Societé Fraternelle, which met in the church of the Jacobins, near the famous club of Jacobins, of which this "Fraternal Society" was an emanation of the moſt violent and inflammable portion; and from it there daily iſſued libels and ſatires without number, all calculated to irritate the people againſt the king's family, and miniſters. The club of Cordeliers was of the ſame nature, and held their meetings in the church of that order. In this Pandemonium of wickedneſs that fiend Danton bore chief ſway.

Wearied and haraſſed with the inſults he received from theſe wretches the King and Royal Family were at laſt induced to adopt a plan for their eſcape. They eſcaped from Paris, and arrived at St. Menehould, about 170 miles from that city. Here the king not ſeeing the perſons whom he expected to find there ready to expedite their departure, looked out of the carriage with the utmoſt uneaſineſs, and made many enquiries concerning the road. He was recognized by a poſtillion, who immediately ran and informed the poſtmaſter. The king's journey was not however ſtopped; he went on to Clermont,

mont, while the poſt-maſter of St. Menehould diſpatched his ſon to Varennes to give notice of his majeſty's approach, that meaſures might be taken to ſtop him. The son of the poſt-maſter got the ſtart of the king by ſome hours. His departure from that town had been obſerved by one of the quarter maſters of the *regiment royal*, who was in the ſecret, and who, ſuſpecting the young man's intentions, found means to eſcape the watchful obſervations of the populace, and of his own companions, and purſued the fellow in order to prevent his fatal deſign. He followed him for about a league; but being afraid to puſh his horſe which had a great way to go, he did not overtake him, and the fellow, perceiving himſelf purſued, ſuddenly quitted the high road, eſcaped into the woods, and through unbeaten tracks, known to himſelf, proceeded to Varennes. He arrived betwixt 10 and 11 o'clock at night, and with as little noiſe as poſſible, he awaked every perſon he thought neceſſary for his project, and barricaded with carts and waggons, the bridge of Varennes, which ſeparated the *ville haute* from the *ville baſſe*.

In the midſt of theſe preparations their majeſties arrived at the *ville haute*, and ſtopped at the firſt houſe, in hopes of finding freſh horſes ready for them. They were very uneaſy on being informed, on their arrival, that there were no horſes in readineſs, and ſaw no appearance of troops they expected for their protection. To add to their vexation, their poſtilions threatened to leave them. The queen alighted, and called at ſeveral houſes to obtain information reſpecting the horſes. Nobody knew her. She walked for ſome time in the *ville haute*, with the king, in expectation that ſome perſon would appear, who would give them the information they ſtood ſo much in need of; but all in vain. They were obliged to return to their carriage without the expected ſatisfaction; and all they could do, was to intreat the poſtillions to proceed with the ſame horſes. As they paſſed under an arch-way near the bridge, a band of ruffians, who lay in wait, ſtopped the carriages, ſeized upon the king, and forced him and his family to alight, and they were conducted priſoners to the houſe of the *Procureur de la commune*. The king expoſtulated againſt this violence with equal firmneſs and dignity, but to no purpoſe. In a moment the ſtreets were barricaded, the ſtables of the huſſars ſurrounded, the national guards drawn up under arms, and the tocſin ſounded to alarm the country. * The Procureur not being as yet abſolutely certain that his gueſts were actually the Royal Family, went to the houſe of M. de Lon a judge, who had ſeen the king, and begged that he would accompany him back to aſcertain the point, which the judge agreed to. The Procureur then aſcended with M. de Lon into the chamber, where the Royal Family were; the inſtant de Lon threw his eyes on the king, he ſignified by an expreſſive look to the magiſtrate that it was unqueſtionably he. The unfortunate monarch, having obſerved this, thought that all farther diſſimulation would be vain; turning then with great emotion to the Procureur, he ſaid "Yes, I am your king. Surrounded in the "capital with the bayonets and poinards of aſſaſſins, I come to this province "wiſhing only in the midſt of my faithful ſubjects for that liberty and quiet "which you all enjoy. In Paris I cannot remain, without being murdered "together with my family." He concluded this affecting addreſs by conjuring the magiſtrate and thoſe around to aſſiſt him in making his eſcape. The queen ſhocked with the idea of being dragged back to Paris, taking the Dauphin in her arms, in the moſt pathetic terms, conjured the magiſtrate,

* See Private Memoirs by Ant. Fr. Bertrand de Moleville.

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and all who heard her, to ſave the lives of their king and his children by aſſiſting them to eſcape; for that miſery and ruin awaited them at the capital.

They were inflexible; their hearts were hardened againſt all the intreaties of this unfortunate princeſs; and the royal family were obliged to ſet out, guarded by a numerous band of national guards, and accompanied by the municipal officers of Varennes. As the ſad proceſſion moved through Paris to the Tuilleries, the ſtreets were crowded with the populace; ſome of whom taking off their hats as the royal family approached, the inſulting order, that no perſon ſhould uncover himſelf, was heard and obeyed. On the ſeat of the king's carriage, the three gardes du Corps, who had acted as couriers, were *ſeated with their arms bound*; and the carriage was followed by an open cabriolet, in which Drouet was placed, crowned with laurel. When the unfortunate family of France arrived at the Tuilleries, the gardens were full. Some were preſent who had the feelings of men. Turning with ſudden emotion from the ſight of the king and queen, their eyes fell on the duke of Orleans; who in a circle of deputies, at a ſmall diſtance ſeemed to be a gay ſpectator of the melancholy ſcene. As the faithful gardes-du-corps were untied from the coach-box, they were threatened with being inſtantly torn in pieces by the ſavage fury of the populace. The royal family were again lodged in the Tuilleries under the reſponſibility of M. de Fayette. Several tents were pitched in the garden, and all the avenues were occupied by national guards under *his command*.

Meanwhile, the queſtion whether the king was ſubject to trial or puniſhment, was under diſcuſſion all over France, but particularly in the capital. The ſquares and public gardens were filled with groupes of people, to whom certain well known orators harangued againſt the conduct of the National Aſſembly, who had decreed that the king ſhould not be farther queſtioned, reſpecting what was paſſed, and that the conſtitution ſhould be accompliſhed as was at firſt intended. Roberſpierre coming out of the hall found the ſtreet filled with thoſe groups; who ſpreading around the patriot as ſoon as they obſerved him. "Alas! my friends," he was heard to ſay, "all "is ruined; the king is to be reſtored." This was repeated all over Paris, as an unanſwerable proof that the Aſſembly were traitors, and the country undone. The multitude afterwards reſorted to the Champ de Mars, with a ſeditious declaration or petition, of which many copies were made, and the people invited to ſign it on the altar of confederation, which ſtill ſtood in that field. When the National Aſſembly heard of thoſe proceedings, they ordered the municipal officers of Paris to their bar, and directed them to take meaſures for diſperſing theſe tumultuous aſſemblies, and puniſhing their promoters.

The firſt meaſure which the municipality adopted was to iſſue a proclamation, importing, "that as it was diſcovered that ſtrangers paid by the enemies of France to ſow ſedition and to promote inſurrection had drawn numbers to aſſemble under the pretence of ſigning a petition, but with the real intention of overawing the legiſlature, and ruining the nation, orders had been given to the commander of the National guards to diſperſe all groups in the ſtreets, or aſſemblings in the fields and to ſeize the diſobedient and carry them to priſon." As to ſtrangers paid by the enemies of France in order to excite diſturbances it was an idle and ridiculous tale. Such accuſations are often proclaimed by thoſe who know their falſehood, in order to render the meaſures againſt which the proclamation is iſſued the more unpopular

popular. The proclamation had little effect. Vaſt numbers crowded to the Champ de Mars to ſign the declaration. Two perſons were murdered upon an unfounded report that they had contrived to blow up all the patriots male and female who were upon the altar. When the municipality heard of thoſe murders, they gave orders that M. La Fayette ſhould directly march at the head of a ſufficient number of national guards, and uſe effectual means to ſeize the murderers and diſperſe the inſurgents. Martial law at the ſame time was formally proclaimed; and a red flag was diſplayed from a window of the town-houſe. When theſe troops arrived at the Champ de Mars, they found it crowded by a furious multitude, who, inſtead of diſperſing, inſulted the troops with repeated exclamations; "Down with the red "flag; away with the bayonets," and even by throwing ſtones. M. Bailly, the mayor deſired the troops to halt; and after the formalities which the law required, M. La Fayette ordered part of them to fire over the heads of the mob. When they perceived that none were wounded, it confirmed them in an opinion which their inſtigators had inſpired them with, that neither the general nor the mayor durſt fire with ball. From this idea they became more outrageous; the ſoldiers and ſome of the national guards were wounded. The troops fired upon their aggreſſors, of whom between 60 and 70 were killed or wounded. The multitude then fled to the city, exclaiming againſt the general and the mayor for having ordered innocent perſons to be maſſacred. The open and avowed exciters of this inſurrection immediately diſappeared. Danton, hearing that an order was iſſued for arreſting him, fled to Marſeilles. Camille Deſmoulins followed his example. Others of leſs eminence lurked in Paris. Marat betook himſelf to a ſubterranean habitation which had been prepared for him by Le Gendre the butcher, which had ſerved to ſecret him from juſtice on various occaſions, both before and ſince the period we are now treating of. It is much to be regretted that he was not dug out and executed on this occaſion. It would have prevented a great deal of miſchief of which he was afterwards the cauſe; and he would have died with more propriety by the hand of the hangman, than by that of the extraordinary and moſt intereſting woman who gave him the mortal blow. Her name was Marie Charlotte Cordé. She was a beautiful young woman of an unblemiſhed character, diſtinguiſhed for dignity of ſentiment and benevolence of heart, but who had never given cauſe of ſuſpicion of a diſturbed underſtanding, nor until ſhe ſtruck a poinard in the heart of Marat, any indication of a violent temper. This inſurrection was likewiſe promoted by Briſſot, a man of the moſt profligate principles and fully equal to any ſort of determined villany.

The committee which had been employed for a conſiderable time in digeſting and arranging the conſtitutional decrees, had now concluded its labour. The whole was read to the aſſembly on the 4th of Auguſt 1791. It was then debated article by article, and on the third of September preſented to the king, who was at the ſame time reſtricted by the aſſembly to accept or reject the whole without exception or obſervation. On the 13th of the ſame month, being attended by a deputation of ſixty members, the king went to the aſſembly, and ſanctioned the aſſent he had the day before ſent in writing, by an oath to be faithful to the nation, and to employ the powers veſted in him for the maintenance of the conſtitution; and on the 30th of September the aſſembly was terminated by its own ſpontaneous diſſolution.

Thus concluded the labours of the Conſtituent Aſſembly, the firſt and principal actors in the French Revolution. Their merits have been variouſly appreciated, as men were diſpoſed either to praiſe or condemn the

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ſyſtem upon which they acted has either been condemned or approved; that there were ſome men of rank, talents and integrity, among them cannot be doubted, but that they were overborne by a ſtrong and active party who had planned the deſtruction of every exiſting eſtabliſhment, and became only the inſtruments of their abſurd projects, is as certain; and whatever praiſe may be beſtowed on this firſt aſſembly by ſome, who affect to ſeparate the horrors of the revolution from the revolution itſelf, they ought to be conſidered in no other light than the deſtroyers of their country. Acting upon their viſionary and wretched theories, they not only overwhelmed their own country with ruin, but by their avowed intention of aiding and promoting inſurrection in every nation, they ſpread terror and alarm through all Europe. By one mad decree they entirely aboliſhed the ancient government, while they had nothing to ſubſtitute in its place, and thus they deprived the laws of that reverence and awe with which they ought to be viewed by the people, and at once opened a door for the introduction of univerſal anarchy, and all the exceſſes which naturally reſult from the licentious and ungovernable fury of the paſſions, when every reſtraint is withdrawn. Finally, all the diſaſters which have plunged France into an abyſs of miſery, rendered the country a field of blood, converted an elegant, a poliſhed and a civilized people into a horde of robbers and murderers, and furniſhed the hiſtorian with ſuch a tale of woe, as exceeds all the power of language or conception adequately to diſplay: all has ſprung from the powerful energy of theſe miſchievous principles which gave riſe to the revolution and have ever ſince directed all its movements.

The ſecond aſſembly met on the 1ſt. of October 1791, compoſed moſtly of men with no pretenſion to knowledge, atheiſtical fanatics, who were determined, if poſſible, to effect the total abolition of monarchy and to eradicate every trace of religion from the minds of the people of France. The promoters of the late inſurrection, inſtead of being purſued with vigour, and brought to trial, were allowed to appear again in the capital, and ſome of them were choſen members of the aſſembly; particularly Briſſot, who in a ſhort time became the centre of that circle, ſo well known under the name of *Gironde*. By their emiſſaries rumours of new plots and conſpiracies, of an Auſtrian committee within the palace, and other tales equally falſe, were propagated and inſinuated in the journals ſuppoſed to be under the direction of leading men of the party. The king's character was groſsly miſrepreſented, and new ſources of calumny were opened againſt the queen. To that ſpecies of ſlander to which female beauty is moſt expoſed, others were added of a more important nature, in which the independence and freedom of the nation were deeply concerned.

The decrees pronounced againſt the king's brothers had not entirely ſatisfied the Jacobins, who governed the majority of the aſſembly by their influence and threats; their rancour required another violent decree againſt the emigrants, and the aſſembly ſatisfied them in this point by iſſuing one, which not only exceeded its powers, but was even contrary to the ſpirit of the conſtitution. This was ſo evident that after a minute diſcuſſion, the king's miniſters unanimouſly adviſed him to refuſe his ſanction. But as the king had never yet employed this prerogative, the miniſters were of opinion, that to prevent its having a bad effect on the public, and likewiſe that it might ſtrike the aſſembly with ſome degree of awe, it would be prudent to give to this meaſure an unuſual degree of ſolemnity, by ordering the refuſal of the ſanction, to be carried to the aſſembly in the form of a royal meſſage, by all the miniſters; whoſe preſence would mark their unani-

mous agreement. The 12th. of November being the day fixed for the meſſage of the king all the miniſters met at the houſe of the *Garde des Sceaux*, that they might go together to the aſſembly, before they ſet out. The *Garde des Sceaux* called for and drank two large glaſſes of water, M. Bertrand miniſter of the marine aſked him if he was ill. "No, anſwered he, it is only a precaution I take every time I go to the aſſembly. The blood boils in my veins when I hear theſe fellows ſpeak; and if I did not take ſomething to cool myſelf, I ſhould get into a paſſion, and be apt to tell them diſagreeable truths."

"I hope" replied Bertrand, "all this water will only moderate the paſſions, without weakening thoſe truths you have to tell them be they agreeable or not."

"Fear not," replied he.

The appearance of all the miniſters with a meſſage from the king, the firſt the aſſembly had ever received and of which the object was entirely unknown, excited a general and profound ſilence in the hall and in the tribunes. That of the tribunes could only be imputed to curioſity; but in the ſilence of the aſſembly there was at leaſt as much uneaſineſs as ſurprize. The *Garde des Sceaux* began by laying upon the table the different decrees which the king had ſanctioned, among which there were two or three which the aſſembly had expected with a good deal of impatience. He terminated the firſt part of his miſſion by informing the aſſembly, that with reſpect to the decree againſt the emigrants the *king would examine it*; which ſignified, in conſtitutional language, that the decree was refuſed. He then drew from his pocket the paper which contained the diſcourſe. Unluckily the water operated, at that moment, with ſo much violence that his colour forſook him, his hands trembled, and his voice failed him ſo much that he could hardly read. And what was ſtill more unlucky, the firſt phraſe, inſtead of relating to the ſubject of the meſſage, mentioned the refuſal of the ſanction. He was not permitted to proceed farther. A general murmur aroſe. All the deputies ſpoke at once. Every one inſiſted upon being heard, but no ſilence was to be obtained. They all vociferouſly exclaimed, "M. Le Preſident, we cannot liſten to this meſſage." "This meſſage is unconſtitutional." "It is the motives for refuſing the ſanction." "Call the miniſter of juſtice to order." M. Le Preſident, the conſtitution—" "M. Le Preſident allow me to make a motion of order." This tumult laſted ſeven or eight minutes. The miniſter waited the iſſue of it ſtanding. At length the preſident put it to the vote, whether they ſhould hear the meſſage or paſs to the order of the day. The *Garde des Sceaux*, entirely diſconcerted by this tumultuous ſcem, ſat down with the other miniſters, giving up all hopes of being heard. To prevent ſuch an unexpected and unfortunate termination to the buſineſs, M. Bertrand aſked leave to ſpeak. He roſe, and ſaid that he now had nothing to ſay; but had he been heard before the laſt motion was carried, he ſhould have informed the aſſembly, that the object of the king's meſage was to acquaint them with the new meaſures adopted by his majeſty for ſtopping the emigration. This renewed the tumult; one party inſiſting on hearing the meſſage, and recalling the decree juſt pronounced; the other exclaiming for its execution. But the miniſters remaining paſſive, and the *Garde des Sceaux*, who ought to have repreſented to the aſſembly, that they had no right, by the conſtitution, to refuſe to hear any meſſage from the king, being ſilent, the order of the day was adopted.

The legiſlative aſſembly manifeſted ſo great a diſpoſition to put an unfavourable

vourable conſtruction on the king's meaſures, that he was conſtantly on his guard, had the conſtitution always before his eyes, and ſeldom propoſed any plan to his miniſters or adopted any one propoſed by them, without previouſly examining whether or not it was ſtrictly conformable to it, and if there were doubts on that head, he generally rejected the meaſure. This attention rendered it difficult for the king's enemies to find what they looked for, any matter of accuſation founded on his having infringed the conſtitution. An attempt was made to put that conſtruction on his having made uſe of the veto. It was peculiarly unfortunate that at this period there ſhould exiſt a miſunderſtanding among ſome of the miniſtry, which terminated in the entire diſſolution of this adminiſtration.

When this event took place, the king was adviſed by M. Cahier de Gerville to form an adminiſtration of a popular nature, as the conſequence of acquiring the confidence of the nation. Dumourier was appointed miniſter for foreign affairs, Roland was named miniſter for the interior, and Claviere miniſter of contribution. This has been generally called the Jacobin adminiſtration.

In the diſordered ſtate of the country it is natural to imagine that war would have been an additional evil, and avoided with the utmoſt care. It was not, however, viewed in that light by the Jacobins, but rather as forwarding their favourite object; on the 20th. of April, therefore, the king, compelled by this Jacobin adminiſtration, went to the aſſembly and propoſed that war ſhould be declared againſt the king of Hungary and Bohemia. The propoſal was heard with univerſal applauſe, and decreed by the aſſembly with unanimity. The popularity which the king acquired by this declaration of war alarmed the Jacobins ſo much, that they thought it neceſſary to revive a tale which had formerly been circulated, and had afterwards been diſcredited, namely that a ſociety of perſons choſen by the queen frequently met in the apartments of Madame de Lamballe, on purpoſe to concert meaſures to aſſiſt the emperor in his invaſion of France, and to ſend occaſional inſtructions how to proceed. This was called the Auſtrian committee; and it was imagined that it would raiſe a greater indignation, and on that very account be more eagerly believed, now when the emperor was at war with France, than formerly. The journals therefore began again to be filled with the accounts of this dreadful committee; harangues againſt it were made nightly in the Jacobin club, and it became the chief theme of the orators in the Palais Royal.

In the mean time an occurrence happened, which produced an extraordinary fermentation in the minds of the people and even of the deputies; of which advantage being taken by the king's enemies, it had an effect with which it might naturally have been thought to have no connection. A large edition of the memoirs of Madame de la Motte had been bought long before by the direction of government, and was locked up in a room of M. la Port's houſe in the Louvre. He was at that time intendant of the civil liſt, and from the hurry of affairs had neglected to deſtroy this work until the 30th. of May 1792, when he made them be carefully packed up in a couple of waggons, and carried to the manufactory of Seves, where they were burned; during the execution of this, as the ſpectators were prevented from ſatisfying the curioſity which they expreſſed to examine what the piles of paper were, which they beheld in this myſterious manner committed to the flames, ſome of them concluded that they could be no other than the regiſters of the famous Auſtrian committee of which they had heard ſo much, but of whoſe exiſtence no trace had ever been diſcovered before.

This ſagacious inference was no ſooner made, than the news was ſpread, that the records of the horrid Auſtrian committee had been burned at Seves; and within a few hours the ſtreet orators of Paris repeated to the groups aſſembled in the public places the contents of ſome of thoſe bloody records, which they pretended to have learned from perſons who had read them, in ſpite of the care taken to prevent it. Thoſe who had ever expreſſed a doubt of the exiſtence of an Auſtrian committee were treated as miſcreants. The news was brought to the national aſſembly, where it excited the moſt violent agitation and heat; in the midſt of which a member who watched an opportunity for obtaining a decree againſt the conſtitutional troops thought the preſent rage againſt the court would anſwer the purpoſe as well as any accuſation againſt the troops themſelves. He therefore propoſed that they ſhould be immediately reduced, and that the duke de Briſſac their commander, who in all probability was a member of the Auſtrian committee, and poſſibly was privy to the burning of the records ſhould be ſent priſoner to Orleans. The next day the moſt convincing evidence was given, that the papers burned at Seves were the memoirs of Madame de la Motte, and that no other paper or record of any kind had been deſtroyed on that occaſion. But theſe rumours had produced the effects their fabricators wiſhed, and the effects continued after the falſehood and infamy of the authors were made manifeſt. The conſtitutional houſehold troops were not re-eſtabliſhed; and new ſources of calumny againſt the king and queen were opened with more efficacy than ever.

The aſſembly, whoſe uſurpations increaſed as the king's powers of reſiſtance were weakened, paſſed two moſt atrocious decrees in the beginning of June 1792. The firſt was for the baniſhment of the prieſts who had refuſed to take the oath; and the ſecond was for the formation of a camp of 20,000 men in the environs of Paris, to conſiſt of volunteers from every department of the kingdom. It was very well known, that thoſe volunteers would every where be choſen by the Jacobins, whoſe power was univerſally felt, and had impreſſed ſuch general terror as gave them complete ſway in every election; ſo that this army muſt of courſe have been made up of their creatures, the moſt ſeditious and deſperate villains in the kingdom. The king ſhewed the utmoſt repugnance to ſanction either of their decrees, in ſpite of the threatening intimations he daily received from his miniſters Rolland, Claviere and Servan. At that time a quarrel ſubſiſted betwixt theſe miniſters and their colleagues, who, Jacobins as they were, ſeemed touched with the king's misfortunes, and always behaved to him with reſpect. They were ſhocked with the conduct of Rolland, Claviere, and Servan, and determined to take this opportunity to get them diſmiſſed. Dumourier, with the approbation of his colleagues Duranthon and la Coſte undertook to propoſe three new miniſters to the king. His majeſty accepted the propoſal with the joy of a perſon who feels himſelf ſuddenly relieved from a heavy load under which he is ready to ſink.

On the rejection of their decrees, the Jacobins haſtened to bring forward an inſurrection which they had previouſly planned. On the 20th. of June an immenſe multitude collected round the palace and garden of the Tuilleries. At four o'clock in the afternoon the mob amounted to about 40,000, and the gates of the Tuilleries were thrown open to them. At the moment of their entrance the royal family were at dinner, and on their attempting to break open the door of the apartment where the king was, he roſe to prevent the guards from making reſiſtance, and ſaid calmly, "I will go to them, I will prevent them from breaking the door." On the inſtant that it opened, a pike which had been thruſt againſt it to force it open, would have killed the king

king, but a chaſſeur turned the weapon aſide with his hand. The cry of *Vive la Nation* reſounded from all ſides, and was evidently addreſſed to the king, upon which he loudly ſaid that the nation had not a better friend than himſelf. A fellow of a ſanguinary aſpect, with a pike in his hand and evidently drunk then forced his way to the king and ſaid rudely enough, "If you are telling the truth, prove it by putting on the bonnet rouge." "I conſent," replied the king, and directly the fellow with one of his companions advanced and put the cap upon his head. It would be an unpleaſing taſk to detail the indignities which were offered to the unfortunate monarch, and which he ſubmitted patiently to hear. During the whole of the tumult the princeſs Elizabeth continued cloſe by the ſide of her brother, as if ſhe was born to be the victim of her generous affection, and to partake in all his unmerited diſgraces and misfortunes. On the firſt breaking out of the rabble the queen fainted and was accidentally ſeparated from his majeſty, and conveyed to the apartments of the king's phyſician. As ſoon as ſhe recovered, in her diſtraction ſhe attempted to penetrate to the king; but was ſtopped in her way thither by the mob breaking into the council chamber. The miniſter at war had fortunately retired to the ſame ſpot, who formed a kind of rampart of the great council table, which he placed againſt the door with a double row of national guards before it. Behind the table ſtood the queen and her children, the princeſs de Lamballe and ſome other ladies. In this ſituation ſhe remained the whole time, condemned to hear the moſt indecent reproaches, and the foulеſt imprecations, from the meaneſt and moſt depraved of her ſex.

While the king was in this manner ſurrounded with bands of ruffians, and not ſure of his life for a moment, the duke of Brunſwick on the 25th of July iſſued his celebrated manifeſto, which was attended with very bad conſequences. It irritated the minds even of the more moderate patriots, and the reproaches caſt on the king by the Jacobins gained univerſal belief. Regardleſs of the menaces contained in that manifeſto, the republican party reſolved upon the depoſition of the king. The chiefs of this party were Vergniaud, Guadet, and Genſonné. To accompliſh their purpoſe, they reſolved upon a ſecond inſurrection. A letter ſigned by theſe three deputies was delivered to the king, in which it was declared that "the diſcontents of the people were ready to break out in a very terrible manner; that an inſurrection, much more conſiderable and violent than the 20th of June was already planned and ready to burſt forth at the firſt ſignal; that it would take place in a fortnight and that the dethroning of his majeſty was the mildeſt conſequence it would have; that his only means of avoiding this cataſtrophe was to recall Roland, Servan, and Claviere to the miniſtry at fartheſt; that if the king would conſent, and give them his word, they would pledge their heads to prevent the inſurrection from taking place."

To avert the dreadful conſequences of this conſpiracy every preparation was made for the defence of the palace. Thoſe battalions of national guards, who were on duty there were extremely well diſpoſed to the king. Their commanders and officers were entirely devoted to him. The Swiſs guards were alſo of approved bravery and fidelity. Thoſe troops were reinforced by gentlemen and royaliſts of every rank, whom the danger of the royal family drew in crouds to the palace. On this eventful night no perſon in the palace went to bed. About ſix o'clock in the morning of the 10th the king deſcended into the gardens to review the troops. He then returned to the palace, and the multitude continued to collect. Had the king remained in the palace he might have repelled the inſurrection of that fatal day;

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but giving way to ſolicitations, perhaps perfidious, unqueſtionably unfortunate, he ſought an aſylum in the hall of the national aſſembly, among thoſe who were preparing a priſon, chains, and death for him and his family.

The inſurgents amounted to about 20,000 men. They were drawn up in tolerable order by Weſterman a Pruſſian, and had about 30 pieces of cannon along with them. The gentlemen within the king's palace were now diſpirited and knew not what part to act. The commander of the Swiſs M. Affry was abſent and the captains knew not what to do. About nine o'clock the outer gates were forced open; and the inſurgents formed their line in front of the palace. A bloody combat commenced between the Marſeillois and the Swiſs. All of them that could be found in the palace were maſſacred by theſe brutal ruffians, even while imploring quarter on their knees. Others eſcaped into the city and were protected by individuals. Of this brave regiment only 200 ſurvived; but every human being even the loweſt ſervants in the palace were put to death. The Swiſs taken priſoners in various quarters were conducted to the door of the aſſembly, and taken by a decree under the protection of the ſtate. The ſuſpenſion of the royal authority was now decreed, and the nation was invited to elect a *Convention* to determine the nature of its future government.

Meanwhile the combined armies of Auſtria and Pruſſia had entered France. The duke of Brunſwick's army was above 50,000 ſtrong. General Clairfait had joined him with 15,000 Auſtrians, and a conſiderable body of Heſſians, along with 20,000 French emigrants; amounting in all to 90,000 men. At firſt their progreſs into France was very rapid. Longwy ſurrendered after a ſiege of fifteen hours, although ſtrongly fortified. Verdun was next ſummoned; and the governor being compelled by the municipality to ſurrender, ſhot himſelf dead with a piſtol in preſence of the council, and on 2d. of September the Pruſſians entered the town.

The news of this ſecond capture, and of the approach of the Pruſſians ſpread an inſtant alarm through Paris. The common council, which was now led by Roberſpierre, Danton, Marat and other ſanguinary monſters, ordered the alarm guns to be fired and the populace to be ſummoned to meet in the champ de Mars to enroll themſelves to march againſt the enemy. The people aſſembled, and a number of the emiſſaries of the Jacobins, exclaimed that the domeſtic foes of the nation ought to be deſtroyed before its foreign enemies were attacked.

Parties of thoſe bloody ruffians proceeded immediately to the priſons where the Swiſs officers, nonjuring clergy, and thoſe confined ſince the 10th of Auguſt on account of practices againſt the ſtate, were detained in cuſtody. They took out the priſoners one by one, gave them a kind of mock-trial by a jury of themſelves, acquitted ſome few and murdered by far the greater number. Theſe maſſacres laſted for two days, and upwards of 1000 perſons were put to death. Such ſcenes of bloodſhed took place in Paris as muſt for ever render the tyrants of France execrable and odious. In the dungeon of la Force was confined the beautiful and accompliſhed Princeſs de Lamballe, the friend and confident of the queen. This unfortunate lady was in bed, when ſhe was ſummoned to appear before a kind of tribunal in the court of the priſon. The perſon who carried the meſſage, however, told her that it was intended to carry her to the Abbaye. She ſaid, ſince ſhe muſt be kept in priſon, ſhe was as well pleaſed with that ſhe was in as another; and being a little indiſpoſed, wiſhed to remain in bed. She was then told that ſhe muſt get up directly to appear before the tribunal. She begged of thoſe who brought this ſecond meſſage, who were two men in the uniform

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of national guards to retire till ſhe was dreſſed, and ſhe would attend them. They did ſo, and within a few minutes ſhe was conducted before thoſe pretended judges; it is ſaid they wiſhed to draw from her ſome matter of accuſation againſt the queen. In this they were diſappointed; but as there was no poſitive charge againſt herſelf, ſhe was ordered to be removed. As ſhe was conducted out of the priſon, ſtupefied with horror at the mangled bodies that lay around her, ſhe received from behind a blow on the head with a bludgeon which produced inſtantly a violent effuſion of blood; her head was then ſevered from her body by a ſabre. The lifeleſs corpſe was dragged, by ſome of the wretches who flocked around, into an adjoining court, where after a ſeries of indignities not to be related, it was trailed by the mob through the ſtreets. The head being fixed on a pike, was carried to the Temple for the expreſs purpoſe of ſhocking the queen. The degree of rancour which thoſe wretches diſplayed againſt the queen was as violent as it was unaccountable. After murdering her friend merely becauſe ſhe was her friend, they are not ſatisfied with letting her know that the afflicting event had taken place but muſt wring her heart with the moſt cruel of all ſpectacles.

The advances of the combined armies were in the mean time rapid and formidable; it was not till the 20th of September that the French were enabled to ſtop the progreſs of their victorious adverſaries. On that day general Kellerman ſuſtained an attack from the duke of Brunſwick for fourteen hours, and retained his poſt till 10 o'clock at night, and then took another poſition to the right of the Pruſſians, who ſuffered him quietly to make this movement, though it was not completed till the next morning. The paſs of Bieſme which general Dillon had ſeized proved an inſurmountable obſtacle to the Duke of Brunſwick's penetrating by the neareſt route to Paris; and finding it impoſſible to diſlodge the French, he determined to make the circuit of the foreſt by Varennes and Grand Pré, a circuit of about fifty miles. The length of this march with the great inclemency of the ſeaſon laid the foundation of that fatal diſeaſe, which afterwards proved more deſtructive than the ſwords of the French. To complete this misfortune the rivers were ſo ſwollen that their ſupplies were almoſt entirely ſtopped and the combined army was actually without bread for four days, the want of which the ſoldiers endeavoured to ſupply by the unripe grapes of Champaigne. Such were the diſtreſſes which induced the duke of Brunſwick to propoſe an armiſtice to the French general. Various conjectures have been formed as to the motives of this convention. One thing is certain that the duke of Brunſwick ſhortly afterwards began to retreat, and gave up every fortreſs he had taken. Verdun ſurrendered on the 12th. of Octr. and was followed by Longwy which capitulated on the 22d. The Pruſſian army immediately evacuated the territories of France and the country was ſolemnly proclaimed to be no longer in danger.

The Republican arms were at preſent victorious in every quarter. War had been declared againſt the king of Sardinia on the 16th. of September, and about the 20th. Monteſquieu entered the territories of Savoy; he was received with open arms by the inhabitants, who had not yet taſted the fruits of French liberty, and in a ſhort time he ſubdued the whole country. They were no leſs ſucceſsful in the circle of the Upper Rhine, where their operations were directed by general Cuſtine. Spires, Worms, Mentz, and Frankfort ſucceſſively ſurrendered to them. By the union of the Pruſſians with the Heſſians and Auſtrians, however, a check was put upon his career before the end of the campaign. On the 2d. of December the Pruſſians appeared before Frankfort, the gates of which were opened to them by ſome of

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the populace and the French were expelled. After the ſurrender of the city a ſmart action took place between the two armies; the French maintained their ground from one o'clock till three, when they retired to a wood, whence they were able to annoy their adverſaries and keep them in check.

We muſt now turn to the civil tranſactions of France which at this period are peculiarly intereſting. One of the laſt acts of the legiſlative aſſembly ſhows a moſt abominable profligacy of mind. This act was to legalize adultery or authorize a community of women. The ordinary tribunals were enabled by a law to pronounce a ſentence of divorce between any married couple, not only on mutual agreement, but on the application of either party, alledging ſimply as a cauſe incompatibility of humour or character. The female children were directed by this decree, to be entirely confided to the care of the mother, as well as the males to the age of ſeven years, when they were again to be recommitted to the ſuperintendance of the father.

On the 20th of September the convention met; it was compoſed of the refuſe of the conſtituent aſſembly, Roberſpierre and Petion and other bloodthirſty ruffians being re-choſen on this occaſion. The infamous Paine was invited from England to repreſent one department; and a Pruſſian of the name of Cloots, a wretched maniac, whom the humanity of this country would have charitably provided with a cell in Bethlem, was choſen to repreſent another. The department of Paris was firſt in infamy upon this as on every other occaſion. There the proſtituted duke of Orleans was united with the infamous incendiary and aſſaſſin Marat, with the painter David, and with Legendre, the butcher. Actors, news-writers, and men from almoſt the loweſt ranks and ſtations, were mingled with the degraded remnants of the ci-devant nobleſſe, and with ſuch of the clergy as had ſufficient laxity of principle to diſavow their engagements with the head of their church. On the firſt day of their meeting Collot d'Herbois, who had formerly been on the ſtage, aſcended the tribune and propoſed the eternal abolition of royalty in France. It was in vain that M. Bazire and other members intreated the convention to proceed with more dignity and deliberation on ſo important a queſtion. The abolition of royalty was voted by acclamation and the houſe adjourned. Meſſages were ſent to all parts of France intimating the decree, and by the influence of the Jacobins they were every where received with applauſe. It was next day decreed that all public acts ſhould be dated by the year of the French Republic, and all citizens were declared eligible to the vacant offices and places. In the courſe of the ſucceeding ſittings, the convention reſalved, "that the French Republic no longer acknowledges princes." The rage of republicaniſm was carried at this period to an unexampled exceſs of folly. With a moſt contemptible puerility the innocent titles of Monſieur and Madame were aboliſhed and the aukward phraſeology of citizen was ſubſtituted in their ſtead. The ſudden diſſolution of the judicial boards was a moſt atrocious meaſure and perfectly conformable to the principles upon which theſe anarchiſts acted. The convention paſſed new decrees againſt the emigrants more cruel and ſanguinary than what had been formerly paſſed. On the 9th. of October it was decreed that all emigrants taken in arms ſhould be put to death twenty-four hours after they had been declared guilty by a military committee; and that all foreigners who had quitted the ſervice of France, and entered into that of the enemy ſhould be conſidered as armed emigrants." Another decree ſtill more bloody was paſſed on the 27th. by which thoſe unfortunate exiles, who had returned to their native country, were ordered to depart in 24 hours and the penalty of death awarded againſt thoſe who ſhould fail inſtantly to obey. There was a double motive for this decree;

decree; the perſecution and oppreſſion of thoſe who by their misfortunes, are not in a ſituation to reſiſt, gratified the malignity of their ſanguinary enemies, and the property of the emigrants, murdered or driven into exile, was an irreſiſtible incentive to thoſe needy adventurers of which the convention was compoſed. Another decree was paſſed about this time, called in their vile jargon the decree of *fraternity*, inviting all thoſe who wiſhed for liberty to riſe in rebellion againſt their lawful governors, and ordering their generals to aſſiſt them; it was paſſed by acclamation in the following terms. "The national convention declare, in the name of the French nation, that they will grant fraternity to all thoſe people, who wiſh to procure liberty, and they charge the executive power to ſend orders to the generals, to give aſſiſtance to ſuch people as have ſuffered, and are now ſuffering in the cauſe of liberty." What ſort of liberty they meant may be eaſily conjectured from what had already happened in France.

The allied armies, meanwhile, had continued to retire before their victorious enemies ever ſince they had raiſed the ſiege of Liſle. The firſt reſiſtance which Dumourier experienced, was at the village of Boſſu. Here the Auſtrians had taken an excellent poſition but were unable to withſtand the impetuoſity of the enemy. They loſt about 150 men, and 200 were taken priſoners. From Boſſu Dumourier proceeded early next morning towards Mons, and ſoon came in ſight of the Auſtrians, ſtrongly poſted on the heights of Gemappe. The French paſſed the night within ſight of their adverſaries. At ſeven in the morning of the ſixth of November, a very heavy cannonade commenced on both ſides, and continued till ten without much effect on the part of the French; at noon, therefore, the general determined on a cloſe attack. The number of the French who formed for this purpoſe amounted to about 30,000, and the Auſtrians are computed to have been upwards of 20,000. The redoubts were carried in a very ſhort time. The cavalry of the Auſtrians, however advancing at this criſis, with a view of flanking the French, the general diſpatched a ſon of the duke of Orleans to repel this attack and ſupported him with a detachment of chaſſeurs and huſſars. At the ſame time ſome diſorder appearing in Bournonville's cavalry, general Dumourier rallied them himſelf, and in the mean time the left wing, which conſiſted chiefly of the Belgian volunteers, had obtained poſſeſſion of Gemappe, and the centre carried the ſecond line of redoubts. After a ſhort reſiſtance on the heights, the Auſtrians, at about two o'clock retreated with the utmoſt precipitation and diſorder to Mons. The loſs of both parties in this engagement muſt have been great. That of the Auſtrians has been eſtimated at nearly 4000 men, while that of the enemy amounted only to 1000. The victory of Gemappe was deciſive as to the fate of the Netherlands. Mons immediately ſurrendered, from whence Dumourier proceeded to Bruſſels, which he entered on the 14th of November.

While theſe affairs were tranſacting, Tournay, Malines, Ghent, and Antwerp, opened their gates to general Labourdonnaye. Louvain and Namur, after a faint reſiſtance by the Auſtrian general Beaulieu, were taken by general Valence; Oſtend was entered by the French fleet on the 15th of November; the citadels of Antwerp and Namur reſiſted for a ſhort time, but the former capitulated on the 28th of November to general Miranda, and the latter on the 2d. of December to general Valence; in a word the whole of the Auſtrian Netherlands, Luxemburgh only excepted, were ſubjected to the victorious arms of France before the concluſion of the year.

We now return to conſider the ſtate, condition and tranſactions of France; and the firſt event that preſents itſelf to our attention, is among the moſt

atrocious and diſgraceful acts that have ſtained the annals of the world. Before we conduct the reader to the priſon of the temple, the bar of the Convention, and the fatal ſcaffold, it may be neceſſary to offer ſome preliminary remarks to his attention.

It was an undoubted principle with the moſt active party of the convention, that while Louis lived, there would be no permanent ſecurity for them; the object, therefore of all their counſels and deſigns, was to bring the unhappy monarch to that fate which he ſo ſoon ſuffered. Legendre propoſed that all who had conſigned their opinions on the king's conduct to writing ſhould lay them on the table of the aſſembly and that after the intervention of one day, they ſhould pronounce ſentence on the culprit, without ſuffering him to utter a word in his defence. Roberſpierre thought the whole buſineſs might be completed in 24 hours, and that the aſſembly ſhould not ſeparate till it was concluded. St. André declared that Louis had been judged and condemned by the people on the 10th. of Auguſt, and nothing was left for them to do but to proceed to execution. Thoſe who deſired the death of the king were alarmed at the effects which might be produced by ſuch an awful and affecting ſpectacle, as would be preſented on ſuch an occaſion, and they employed the moſt abominable and profligate means to counteract the influence which theſe circumſtances might produce in favour of the king. Inflammatory papers were diſperſed among the people, inciting them to inſiſt on his immediate execution, or to execute him themſelves; and to impreſs an opinion that the death of the royal ſufferer was neceſſary to the exiſtence of the French nation.

But while they endeavoured to diſpoſe the public mind to co-operate with them, they contrived that the object of their diabolical enmity and injuſtice ſhould be placed in a ſituation the moſt diſadvantageous to himſelf, as it might tend to unſettle and trouble his mind, at a moment when he required all his powers to ſupport him; and when his underſtanding to do him ſervice muſt be clear and unclouded. To effect this baſe and infamous purpoſe, the whole of the intended proceedings were carefully concealed from the king, and it was merely from the zealous curioſity of Clery, his faithful valet de chambre, that he barely knew the intentions of the convention to call him to their bar, a few days before it happened.

A commiſſion of twenty-four deputies, ſelected from various committees, having been for ſome weeks employed in ranſacking every ſuſpected place for criminating papers, and in collecting evidence againſt the depoſed monarch, produced on the ſixth of November a report full of vague and unſupported accuſations; and on the following day the committee of legiſlation preſented a plan for his trial.

But while thoſe execrable ruffians were preparing this mock-trial for their degraded and inſulted monarch, the ſad and adverſe ſtate of his fortune did not deprive him of every friend. Several of his former adherents offered to ſtand forth in ſupport of his innocence at the hazard of their lives. M. Cazalés, ſo diſtinguiſhed in the firſt aſſembly for his oppoſition to the Revolution, and who was then in England, ſolicited a paſſport that he might appear as counſel for the king. The ſame requeſt was made by M. Narbonne, ex-miniſter of war, and M. Lally Tollendal. The marquis de Bouillé tranſmitted an atteſtation in his favour, reſpecting the flight to Montmedi, and an exculpatory letter to M. Choiſeul, reſpecting the money paid by the marquis to the king's brothers. M. Bertrand alſo ex-miniſter of marine, manifeſted the moſt zealous ſolicitude to appear as an evidence for his de-

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poſed ſovereign. But when the propoſal made by Manuel, for aſſuring to all thoſe who ſhould ſpeak for the impeached Louis, the protection of the laws, was ſuppreſſed by murmurings and hootings, the ſpirit by which the aſſembly was actuated was too manifeſt to expect honour or juſtice from its conduct or deciſions. They decreed the arraignment of Louis. But though he was reduced to a ſimple and accuſed citizen, he ſeemed ſtill to inſpire the convention with apprehenſion. They feared that the ſad ſpectacle of degraded majeſty, and the notorious injuſtice of the proceedings againſt him, would, in ſpite of all their cunning and horrid manœuvres, awaken the loyalty that ſlumbered, or ſtimulate what was ſtill awake, to unite in ſaving the royal object of its former duty, affection, and veneration from the fate that appeared to await him.

On the 11th. of December, at ſo early an hour as five in the morning the generale was beat throughout Paris, and a conſiderable body of cavalry, with ſeveral pieces of artillery, were introduced into the garden of the Temple. At 11 o'clock while the king was endeavouring to calm his ſpirits by giving the uſual inſtructions to the Dauphin, or amuſing the young prince by ſome agreeable recreation, two perſons of the municipality entered to inform him that they muſt, by order of the Convention, conduct the young Louis to his mother. Of this cruel and unexpected ſeparation, the king in vain demanded the reaſon; and, in a ſhort time, one of the commiſſioners returned to inform him, that Chambon, the mayor of Paris, was preparing to make him an official viſit. At one the mayor appeared. He was accompanied by Chaumette, ſolicitor of the Commune, and ſeveral other municipal officers, and Santerre, commander of the national guard, with his aid de camp. The mayor informed the king that he came to conduct him to the convention, in conſequence of a decree, which the ſecretary ſhould read to him. When that office was performed, the king concluded ſome obſervations on the cruelty of depriving him of the ſociety of his ſon, by ſaying, I am ready to follow you; not indeed becauſe I am diſpoſed to obey the convention; but becauſe my enemies poſſeſs the power to enforce obedience. A large military eſcort attended him from the gate of the Temple. At length, accompanied by the mayor, two generals, one of whom was Santerre, commander of the Pariſian guards, and ſeveral municipal officers; Louis XVI. in an ordinary dreſs, with neglected hair, and a face long unſhaven, was preſented at the bar of the national convention. Such was the form and appearance of the fallen monarch, that he ſeemed to ſubdue, for a moment, the horrid malignity of his enemies, and to awe the uproar of inveterate Jacobiniſm into ſomething like a reſpectful ſilence. The tumult of thoſe who occupied the ſeats and galleries ceaſed at once, and ſunk into a ſolemn ſtillneſs, when the extraordinary ſpectacle of their former king was preſented to them in ſuch a ſtate of humility and degradation. Barrere the preſident immediately addreſſed him as he ſtood at the bar. "Louis, the French nation accuſes you. The national convention decreed, on the 3d. December, that you ſhould be tried by it. On the 6th. of December it was decreed that you ſhould be brought to the bar; and while the charges againſt you are read, you are permitted to ſeat yourſelf." The king who well knew that it would be as vain to diſclaim the authority as to reſiſt the power of the convention, ſubmitted in ſilence to the proceeding againſt him; and having availed himſelf of the permiſſion to ſit, heard with profound attention the ſeveral papers read, in which he was accuſed of crimes, which may be arranged in two diſtinct claſſes, ſuch as were prior, and ſuch as were ſubſequent to the conſtitution. The futility and injuſtice of the charges in the firſt claſs, were ſo manifeſt, that

ſome even of the vileſt ruffians in the convention, demanded that they ſhould be expunged in law, and nullified by the amneſty implied in the proffer and acceptance of the conſtitution. But the convention, with its uſual diſregard to every thing but its own will, rejected both theſe remonſtrances with a contemptuous ſilence. When the articles of impeachment had been read, a long liſt of frivolous and inſidious queſtions, previouſly reviſed by the convention was put to the king by the preſident; but all their arts to enſnare this unhappy monarch were unſucceſsful; for though the queſtions propoſed to him, were prepared by a committee for that purpoſe, and afterwards reconſidered by the convention; and though he was ſuddenly led away amidſt inſult and indignity, and without preparation to anſwer them on the inſtant; yet ſuch was his conduct on this trying occaſion, ſuch the calm and majeſtic character of his deportment, ſuch the readineſs and ſagacity of his replies, and ſuch the predominating proofs of his innocence, that ſeveral of his moſt virulent enemies were filled with alarm, leſt ſuch a combination of affecting circumſtances, ſhould have at once recalled the ſpirit of ancient loyalty into the boſoms of his former ſubjects who heard and beheld him. After the examination was cloſed, the preſident addreſſing the king, ſaid, "I have no other queſtions to propoſe—have you any thing more to add in your defence." "I deſire to have a copy of the accuſation," replied the king, "and of the papers on which it is founded.—I alſo deſire to have a counſel of my own nomination." Barrere informed him, that his two firſt requeſts were already decreed, and that the determination reſpecting the other would be made known to him in due time. The king immediately withdrew.

A very violent debate now enſued in the convention; wherein, to uſe the expreſſion of their preſident, the aſſembly aſſumed the appearance of gladiators rather than of lawgivers; it was however, decreed, after a moſt tumultuous ſitting, that Louis ſhould be indulged with a counſel for his defence. When he was informed of this decree, the king named Targot and Tronchet, the former of whom declined the office, while ſeveral perſons of diſtinguiſhed talents and character, eagerly preſſed forward to be employed in the ſervice of their degraded ſovereign, on the trying and dangerous occaſion. Of theſe he choſe M. de Lamoignon Maleſherbes, who at the age of ſeventy two had the courage to plead his cauſe. In the letter to the preſident of the convention, expreſſing this humane and noble deſire, he ſays, "I was once called to the councils of him, who was then my maſter, and at a time when ſuch a function was an univerſal object of ambition; I now owe him the ſame ſervice, when it is an office that in the opinion of many, is attended with riſque and peril." Such was the multiplicity of papers to be examined in order to frame the king's defence, that his counſel found it impoſſible to proceed with that diſpatch which the convention expected of them; they accordingly applied for permiſſion to demand the aſſiſtance of M. de Seze; and a third counſel was accordingly granted.

On the 26th. of December the king was conducted a ſecond time to the bar of the convention, where he appeared with the ſame unembarraſſed air as he manifeſted on his firſt examination; and when the preſident informed him that the convention had appointed this day for hearing his defence, he replied, with a firm voice and undaunted aſpect. "My counſel (pointing to M. de Seze) is to ſpeak for me.—The king then ſat down. M. Maleſherbes and M. Tronchet took their ſeats on each ſide of their auguſt client; and M. de Seze began a moſt maſterly and argumentative ſpeech, which had been prepared by the united ſkill, labour, and talents of theſe able advocates.

But

But eloquence was loſt upon thoſe ſanguinary wretches, who were determined above all things to effect the murder of this amiable prince.

From the report of the commiſſioners, who were appointed to do duty at the Temple we learn the following particulars, which, though minute, ſerve to illuſtrate the character of the king. The commiſſioners having according to cuſtom drawn lots for their different poſts, that of the king's apartment fell to a M. Cubieres, who with another commiſſioner, was introduced, the king being then aſleep. He roſe as uſual at ſeven, and took a book, which they afterwards found was a brèviary; breakfaſt was brought at nine, but the king refuſed to eat, becauſe it was the faſt of Le Quatre Tems. He ſpent ſome time in prayer and afterwards aſked Cubieres about the health of his queen and ſiſter. He walked muſing through the room, and then raiſing his eyes to heaven, "This day (ſaid he) my daughter is fourteen years of age." The unhappy prince repeated the ſame expreſſion after a pauſe, during which the tears flowed from his eyes and he was greatly agita ted.

The convention, after having adjudged the king guilty, and voted againſt the appel nominal, thereby conſtituting themſelves accuſers and judges, met on the 16th. to determine the puniſhment. The fatal ceremony employed the whole day and ended in a ſentence of death. The ſentence after ſubtracting thoſe who voted for death with certain reſtrictions, does not appear to have been carried by more than five votes. When the preſident had declared the ſtate of the ſcrutiny, and that Louis XVI. was ſentenced to ſuffer death, his council were admitted to the bar, and M. de Seze immediately ſpoke as follows:

"Citizens repreſentatives. The law and your own decree have entruſted to us the ſacred office of defending Louis; and we now approach you with ſorrow, to perform the laſt duty of our function. Louis has expreſsly charged us to read a letter ſigned by his own hand, and theſe are the contents of it."—"I owe to my honour, I owe to my family, not to ſubſcribe to a ſentence, which declares me guilty of a crime which my conſcience diſdains. I therefore appeal to the nation at large, from the ſentence of its repreſentatives; and, by theſe preſents, I empower my counſel, and charge them on their fidelity, to make this appeal known to the national convention, by all means in their power, and to demand that mention be made of it in the minutes of their ſittings."

"Signed, Louis."

M. de Seze then implored the national convention to conſider by what a ſmall majority the puniſhment of death was pronounced againſt Louis. "Do not afflict France, ſaid he, by a judgment that will appear to her to be terrible, when it was carried by no more than five votes." By the previous queſtion, however, the convention rejected the appeal to the people, after a ſitting of thirty ſix hours; 310 voices were then declared to be for a reſpite of the ſentence and 380 againſt it.

All hopes being now over, and this atrocious murder being determined on, the king, requeſted that the ſentence might be delayed for three days, in order that he might be better prepared to appear in preſence of his God, and that he might be freely viſited by a perſon, whom he ſhould name, who would be qualified to aſſiſt him in that ſolemn act of preparation. He then named M. Edgeworth de Fermont, as the eccleſiaſtic whom he would wiſh to ſee, if that privilege ſhould be granted to him. At ſix in the afternoon, Garet returned to inform the king that the convention had decreed him the permiſſion to receive the perſon whom he named, and who now accompanied him. Six or ſeven of that court, called *conſeil de la commune ſéant au Temple*

had

had accompanied the miniſter to the king's chamber. They behaved to M. Edgeworth, not only without compaſſion, but they even ſhewed a ferocious joy. They rudely ſearched all his pockets, opened his ſnuff-box to ſee whether it did not contain poiſon, examined his pencil caſe on pretence that it might contain a ſtiletto. They then made him aſcend to the king's apartment by a little narrow ſtair, where ſentinels were placed at ſmall intervals, ſome of them drunk, ſwearing and ſinging as if it had been an alehouſe. The miniſter of juſtice was ſtill in the king's apartment with thoſe members of the council who had accompanied him to his majeſty; the ſerene dignity of whoſe countenance formed a ſtriking contraſt with the haggard and villainous looks of the wretches who ſurrounded him. As ſoon as the king perceived the abbé Edgeworth, he made a movement expreſſive of his deſire to be left alone with him. The others immediately withdrew. The king ſhut the door, and turned towards the Abbé, who ſunk on his knees, kiſſed his majeſty's hand, and bathed it with his tears. The king equally affected raiſed M. Edgeworth, ſaying, "None but the moſt unrelenting of men have been allowed to approach me of late, my eyes are accuſtomed to them; but the ſight of a man of humanity, a faithful ſubject, affects my whole ſoul, and melts me as you ſee." It is impoſſible to do juſtice to the devout, ſublime, and heroic ſentiments expreſſed by the king in this intereſting conference, particularly when he ſpoke of his own ſituation and that of his family; but above all when he dwelt on the misfortunes of his country. After their converſation, he roſe, ſaying "I muſt now go and ſee my family for the laſt time. This will be the ſevereſt trial of all. When that is over I ſhall fix my mind ſolely on what concerns my ſalvation."

Leaving the abbé Edgeworth in his cloſet, the unhappy prince went to the room where his family were already aſſembled, and which was ſeparated only by a door, from that in which were two commiſſaries conſtantly on duty; this door was formed of panes of glaſs from top to bottom like a window; ſo that thoſe two men could ſee and hear all that paſſed. In ſuch horrible circumſtances, and in this diſmal room did the king of France meet his deploring family, now rendered more dear to him than ever by his own approaching fate, and their unexampled misfortunes. "At half paſt eight o'clock (ſays M. Clery the king's valet de chambre) the door was opened; the queen appeared firſt, holding her ſon in her hand; the princeſs royal and madame Elizabeth followed; they all threw themſelves into the arms of the king. A mournful ſilence reigned for ſome minutes, which was only interrupted by loud ſobs. The queen made a motion to draw the king towards her room; "No, ſaid the king, let us go into this hall; I am not permitted to ſee you in any other place." They went in and M. Clery ſhut the door, which was made in part of glaſs. The king ſat down, the queen at his left hand, madame Elizabeth at his right, the princeſs royal faced him, and the young prince ſtood between his legs. All leaned towards him and frequently embraced him. This afflicting ſcene laſted one hour and three quarters, during which time it was impoſſible to hear any thing; we ſaw, only, that after every expreſſion of the king, the ſobs of the princeſſes redoubled for ſome minutes, and then the king began again to ſpeak. It was eaſy to know by his motions that he had himſelf told them of his condemnation. At a quarter paſt ten o'clock, the king roſe, and they all followed him. I opened the door. The queen held the king by his right arm. Their majeſties gave each a hand to the dauphin. The princeſs

royal,

royal, at the left, had her arms round the body of the king. Madame Elizabeth, on the ſame ſide but a little farther back, had ſeized the left arm of her brother. They moved a few paces towards the door, at which they uttered the moſt terrible groans. I aſſure you, ſaid the king to them, that I ſhall ſee you to-morrow morning at eight o'clock. You promiſe us that you will, replied they all together, Yes, I promiſe you it. Why not at ſeven o'clock, ſaid the queen. Very good; well at ſeven o'clock ſaid the king—adieu! He pronounced this adieu in a manner ſo expreſſive, that the ſobs redoubled. The princeſs royal ſwooned away, and fell at the king's feet, which ſhe embraced; I raiſed her, and aſſiſted madame Elizabeth to ſupport her. The king wiſhing to put an end to this heart-rending ſcene, tenderly embraced them and tore himſelf from their arms. Adieu! adieu! he ſaid, and hurried into his room." He was in a ſtate of emotion that cannot be deſcribed. "Why," ſaid he, addreſſing himſelf to the abbé Edgeworth, after he had ſomewhat recovered himſelf, "why do I love with ſuch tenderneſs and wherefore am I ſo tenderly beloved? but now the painful ſacrifice is over. Let me now turn my thoughts to the care of my ſalvation alone." Nothing now remained for the conſolation of the king but to perform the rites and receive the communion of his church; and M. Edgeworth after ſome oppoſition from the commiſſaries, obtained the ſolicited indulgence. The king was no ſooner informed of this than he immediately entered upon his confeſſion. When that ſolemn duty was performed, M. Edgeworth perceiving his royal penitent to be almoſt exhauſted with the fatigue and anguiſh he had ſuffered during the day, entreated him to go to bed and endeavour to obtain a little reſt. The king complied with this requeſt, and enjoyed a calm, undiſturbed repoſe till five the next morning, when he was awakened according to his order.

All Paris had been under arms ſince five o'clock, while the ſound of drums, the noiſe of arms, the clatter of horſes, the paſſage of cannon, were diſtinctly heard in the tower. At nine the buſtle increaſed, when the doors were thrown open with violence, and Santerre appeared, attended by ten gend'armes. On his informing the king who came from his cloſet, that he was come to conduct him to the ſcaffold, his majeſty aſked only a few minutes, when he re-entered, and falling on his knees before his confeſſor, received his laſt benediction. He then threw open the door, and with a firm voice ſaid to Santerre, let us be gone. M. Edgeworth followed him, and entered with him into the carriage provided for the occaſion. When the carriage ſtopped at the ſcaffold, the king immediately deſcended from it; and having thrown off his coat, was about to aſcend the ſcaffold, when the executioner ſeized his hands, in order to tie them behind him. As he was not prepared for this laſt inſult, he appeared diſpoſed to repel it; but M. Edgeworth, ſenſible that reſiſtance would be in vain, ſaid to him, "Sire, this new humiliation is another circumſtance in which your majeſty's ſufferings reſemble thoſe of that ſaviour, who will ſoon be your reward." This obſervation inſtantly removed all repugnance.

It was while he was mounting the ſcaffold, ſupported by the abbé Edgeworth, that this ſervant of God, as if by inſpiration, addreſſed the king in this ſublime expreſſion, "Offspring of St. Louis, aſcend to heaven." As ſoon as he came upon the ſcaffold, advancing with a firm ſtep to the part which faced the palace, he deſired the drums to ceaſe, and was immediately obeyed, in ſpite of the orders they had received. He then in ſtrong terms aſſerted his innocence of the crimes laid to his charge, and was continuing, when that moſt atrocious of villains, Santerre puſhed furiouſly towards

wards the drummers, and forced them to beat without interruption. The executioners at the ſame time laid hold of their victim and the horrid deed was completed. This cruel, unprovoked, and atrocious murder excited among foreign nations the ſtrongeſt emotions of aſtoniſhment, horror and execration. They ſaw with regret that a band of robbers and murderers had uſurped the government of France, and had not only overwhelmed their own country with bloodſhed and anarchy, but with the moſt unexampled zeal laboured to reduce every other country in the world to the ſame dreadful ſituation. This dangerous diſpoſition which broke forth upon every occaſion, the violent decrees which had been paſſed by the convention, holding out encouragement to traitors in every country, the ungovernable ambition and ſpirit of aggrandizement which they manifeſted, at all times dangerous, but particularly ſo, when connected with the propagation of their vile principles, determined the Britiſh government to remain no longer unconcerned ſpectators of what was tranſacting on the continent. M. Chauvelin was commanded to leave Britain, and another miniſter to whom the French executive council gave powers was not ſuffered to land. The French, whatever the intention of Britain might have been, on the 1ſt of February 1793 on the motion of Briſſot declared war againſt England. As the tranſactions of this war have been related in the hiſtory of England we will not tire the reader by an unneceſſary detail of the conflicts of the hoſtile armies in the hiſtory of France, as the internal hiſtory of that country cannot fail to be more intereſting; we ſhall only obſerve that, notwithſtanding the partial ſucceſſes of the allies, the French were completely ſucceſsful, and overrun the whole of Holland together with the Low Countries.

The convention of France had now become one continued ſcene of recrimination and commotion. In the month of March they eſtabliſhed that bloody Revolutionary tribunal for trying offences againſt the ſtate; another decree was paſſed on the 29th of March by which it was declared, that all perſons convicted of compoſing or printing writings for the reſtoration of monarchy in France, or the diſſolution of the national repreſentation, ſhould be puniſhed with death. The propoſal of the financier Cambon, for a compulſory loan of 1,000,000,000 of livres from all thoſe who were indifferent to the cauſe of French liberty, and who were ſuſpected of taking an intereſt in the ſucceſs of their enemies, produced a moſt diſgraceful ſcene of tumult and uproar. Briſſot, and his party exclaimed againſt the tyranny of a forced loan, and repreſented in the moſt violent terms, its counter-revolutionary operation. The adherents of the different parties, who occupied the galleries took a part in the debates; ſuch indeed was the clamour and outrage, that the preſident unable to controul the proceedings, reſigned his office. Barrere endeavoured to divert their attention from theſe conteſts, to objects of public utility. But the people were too much inflamed and agitated by political diſcuſſion to be turned aſide from theſe conteſts by any ſcheme of internal regulation. Though the conſtituted authorities had been invited to aſſemble and concert meaſures for the ſalvation of their country; and though repeated proclamations had exhorted the citizens to tranquillity, nevertheleſs the city of Paris was, on the morning of the 31ſt. in ſuch a ſtate of confuſion, that the tocſin was ſounded, the alarm gun fired, and every other ſignal of extreme danger was heard. The convention aſſembled to inquire into the extraordinary and alarming ſituation of the city. The mayor of Paris appeared at the bar, and declared that the public uneaſineſs aroſe from the conduct of the commiſſion of twelve, and that the conſtituted authorities were employed in reſtoring public tranquillity.

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In the evening of the first of June the tocsin again proclaimed a state of public commotion. On the following day the hall of the convention was surrounded by a very large and tumultuous assembly of people, who vociferated the demand for a decree of accusation. The hall of the convention itself was in a state of extreme disorder; that its deliberations were no longer free seemed to be the general sense of the convention; but it was forced to submit. The insurgents maintained their purpose, and the assembly was compelled to pass a decree, which ordered the following deputies to be put in arrest, viz. Gensonné, Vergniaud, Brissot, Guadet, Gorsas, Petion, Selles, Cambon, Barbaroux, Rabaut, Laforce, Lesage, Louvet, Valacé, Lanthenas, Dussaux, with several others, and all the members of the committee of twelve, except Fonfiede and Saint Martin, and the ministers Claviere and Le Brun. The assembly, with the president at their head had quitted the hall with an intention to separate; but Henriot the commander of the Parisian guards, arranged his troops in military array, and threatened them with a discharge of musquetry, if they did not return. Roberspierre, Marat, and the Jacobin party, were now triumphant, and the first object of their power was to complete the constitution. The national convention, therefore, on the 23d. of June, issued a declaration of the rights of man, as introductory of their new constitution, a very hasty ill-digested work, but in some respects calculated to seduce the populace. It was impracticable as a system to guide, correct and controul the life of man; but whatever it had been, it would not, we believe, have avoided the fate of being lost in that tremendous and sanguinary chaos, in which all the elements of justice, and of mercy, of truth and of religion, of public honour and private virtue were dissolved.

The convention now proceeded to frame various decrees, for civil, military, and naval regulations, for the dispatch of criminal causes, a branch of the executive government with which they appear to have been well acquainted. Among others the following decree was adopted. "Marie Antoinette shall be delivered over to the revolutionary tribunal, and shall be immediately conducted to the prison la Conciergerie, Louise Elizabeth shall remain in the temple till after the judgment of Marie Antoinette." From framing sanguinary decrees these legislators proceeded to settle and arrange such public diversions and amusements, as they deemed proper to fill up the interval of cruelty, or rather to incite the people to the commission of fresh massacres. A very extraordinary and daring scheme was about this time, on the proposal of Barrere, adopted by the convention; it was proposed that the people of France should declare by the mouth of their representatives, that they will rise in one body, in defence of their liberty and equality. This proposition being received with loud bursts of applause, Barrere presented a plan for carrying his design into effect; and it was shortly introduced in its matured state by the committee of public welfare. That such a decree should be proposed cannot produce the least astonishment in the minds of those who are familiar with the history of the convention, which has every hour produced something strange and monstrous; but that it should in any degree, be received by the people, might not be altogether expected, on the avowed principles even of the French Revolution. Jacobins, and the friends of Jacobins, will, without doubt, consider the consent to rise in a mass, as a proof of that ardent love of liberty, which is boasted at this time, to have inspired every patriot heart in France. It must indeed be confessed, that a very active enthusiasm prevailed among the French people; but it was not founded on a knowledge or sense of genuine freedom; it was violent, cruel, and precipitate; it was easily called forth, and set in motion;

but not operating on any principle, however it might be employed, its courſe muſt be licentious, and its tendency was rather to evil than to good.

To encreaſe the military force of the country ſeems to have intereſted the Jacobins above every other conſideration. The meaſures that were employed on this occaſion, were at once bold and tyrannical. Revolutionary committees, domiciliary viſits, the ſeizure of all gold and ſilver diſcoverable in the republic; the coinage of all plate ſacred or profane; the fuſion of church bells into cannon; the requiſition of all property for the uſe of the ſtate, and the decree ordering the people to riſe in a maſs were adopted, to render their ſchemes effective. Oppreſſed by theſe plundering decrees, ſome of the great maritime and commercial cities were driven into inſurrection. The inhabitants of Poitou and Brittanny had been long in motion, and had frequently defeated the republican troops which had been ſent againſt them. The formidable union, likewiſe, which had taken place between the cities of Marſeilles, Lyons, and Toulon, ſtill continued and alarmed the ruling powers. General Cartaux was accordingly diſpatched againſt them with a conſiderable force; and having taken the town of Aix, the populace of Marſeilles opened their gates to him, and received the plunder of the wealthy inhabitants for their reward. At the ſame time the inhabitants of Toulon, propoſed a negociation to the Engliſh admiral lord Hood, who then commanded a fleet in the Mediterranean, and he was ſuffered to take poſſeſſion of the town and ſhipping in the name of Louis XVII. The Lyonneſe did not follow the example of the Marſeillois, but ſuſtained with great bravery an active ſiege of two months. General Kellerman, who commanded the army of the Alps, was ordered to beſiege the city, but not anſwering the impatience of the convention, he was removed and general Doppet appointed to ſucceed him, to whom the inhabitants, who were not only unuſed to arms, but very ill provided with the means of defence, as well as the neceſſaries of life, were on the 8th. of September obliged to ſurrender. A great part of the city had been reduced to aſhes by the inceſſant bombardment; and the victors ſatiated their rage by barbarities for which language has no name. The miſerable victims, who were too numerous for the individual operations of the guillotine, were driven in great numbers, with the moſt ſavage and blaſphemous ceremonies, into the Rhine, or hurried in crowds to the ſquares, to be maſſacred by the more painful operation of fire arms and artillery. By a decree of the convention, it was ordered, that the walls and public buildings of this city, polluted with maſſacre, ſhould be demoliſhed, and that it ſhould loſe its former name in that of * *La Ville Affranchie*. What language can furniſh expreſſions of abhorrence ſufficiently ſtrong to characteriſe theſe brutal ſavages? After having deſolated one of the nobleſt and moſt ancient cities of France, after having robbed and maſſacred the wretched inhabitants by thouſands, ‖ they inſult them in their ſufferings by telling them they are reſtored to liberty. Such indeed is the nature of that liberty, to which the French have erected altars; from her, ſocial order, religion, and all thoſe virtues which aſſimilate man to the divinity, fly away affrighted, and in their ſtead ſtart up from hell, covered with blood, thoſe grim fiends, Atheiſm, Anarchy, and Murder.

The lawleſs aſſociation of thieves, murderers and robbers who enſlaved France, ruling now with deſpotic ſway, proceeded to gratify their malignity by the trial and public murder of the queen. She had already been ſeparated from her family in the temple. In the night of the firſt of Auguſt, ſhe

* The city reſtored to liberty.

‖ 70,000 of the inhabitants were murdered or driven from their homes.

was

was ſuddenly and in the moſt cruel and inſulting manner, removed to the priſon of the Conciergerie, a priſon deſtined for the reception of the vileſt malefactors. There ſhe was treated with a degree of ſavage barbarity, of which we know not how to conceive the motive; unleſs it was hoped that its ſeverity might ſave her perſecutors the forms of a trial. The cell in which ſhe was immured was only eight feet ſquare; her bed was only an hard mattreſs of ſtraw, and her food of the meaneſt kind; while ſhe was never ſuffered the privilege of being alone, two ſoldiers being appointed to watch her night and day, without the intermiſſion of a moment. After a confinement of ten weeks in this loathſome dungeon, while preparations were making for her trial, ſhe at length appeared before the revolutionary tribunal. The act of accuſation was of great length, heavily charged with the moſt calumniating expreſſions, and in which the royal object of its horrid criminations, was repreſented as having been the cauſe of every real or ſuppoſed public calamity, which had happened in France, from the time of her arrival there to that moment. Of the various charges which were brought againſt her, not one was proved, which muſt appear to be ſomewhat extraordinary, when it is conſidered how eaſy it was to procure evidence to any charge. The trial was conducted with ſome appearance of formality, but the ſentence was already prepared; and Marie Antoinette may be ſaid to have been condemned to die, at the moment when ſhe appeared before her judges. On being informed, by the preſident of the tribunal, that ſhe muſt prepare to ſubmit to the ſame fate which her auguſt huſband had already ſuffered, ſhe did not diſcover the leaſt emotion; and her aſpect loſt nothing of that dignity, which it diſplayed in every circumſtance of her misfortunes. She had probably anticipated her fate, and therefore met it with calmneſs and reſignation. It is natural to ſuppoſe that ſhe might conſider it as the end of her troubles; and what could there be in life for her, which would not make her ſigh to change for that ſtate, where the wicked ceaſe from troubling and the weary are at reſt. During her trial amidſt the moſt aggravated mortification, and wanton inſult, under accuſation for crimes of which ſhe was altogether innocent, or could not commit; ſhe ſubmitted with a patience that became her ſad condition, and anſwered with a ſpirit that marked her elevated nature. She retired from the hall without uttering a word to the court or the people, and at four o'clock in the morning was reconducted to her dungeon. At five the drums beat to arms in every part of the city; its whole military force was ſoon in a ſtate of preparation; cannon were planted in the ſquares, and at the extremities of the bridges; and at ten, numerous patroles paſſed through the ſtreets. At half paſt eleven, the queen was brought out of priſon, and like an ordinary malefactor, was conducted, in a common cart, to the place of execution. Her hair was entirely cut off from the back of her head, which was covered with a ſmall white cap; ſhe wore a white undreſs; her hands were tied behind her, and ſhe ſat with her back to the horſes. The executioner was ſeated on her right; and, on the left was a conſtitutional prieſt. The cart was eſcorted by numerous detachments of horſe and foot. An immenſe mob of people, in which the women appeared to predominate, crouded the ſtreets, inſulted the queen, and vociferated, "Long live the republic." She ſeldom caſt her eyes upon the populace, and regarded with indifference, if ſhe at all regarded, the great armed force of 30,000 men, which lined the ſtreets in double ranks. They, who had ſeen her in the former part of her life, could not but obſerve the altered ſtate of her countenance, and what a ſad change ſorrow had made in that ſeat of animation and beauty. Her ſpirit appeared to be calm, and ſhe converſed

with the prieſt, who was ſeated with her, with an air of decent ſubmiſſion, but without the leaſt appearance of anguiſh and dejection. She aſcended the ſcaffold with much haſte and ſeeming impatience, and then turned her eyes with apparent emotion towards the gardens of the Tuilleries, one of the many ſcenes of her former greatneſs.

At half paſt twelve the guillotine ſevered her head from her body, which the executioner exhibited all ſtreaming with blood to an inveterate and inſatiable multitude. Thus periſhed in the 38th year of her age, Marie Antoinette, queen of France, who had enjoyed all the good the world could give, and endured all the evil it could inflict. Of Imperial origin, ſhe was deſtined to ſhare one of the moſt ſplendid thrones on the earth: there ſhe continued till ſhe attained her meridian height, when ſhe was plunged to the loweſt depth of human miſery, to the dungeon and death of the meaneſt criminal.

On a firſt view it might appear to be a curious and ſtrange circumſtance, that amid ſuch ſcenes of blood and murder, the government of France ſhould employ itſelf in ſuch a trifling and unneceſſary meaſure as the alteration of the calendar. But the deſign was of a more ſerious nature than ſuperficial obſervers might imagine. It was intended to aboliſh, and if poſſible to eradicate every trace of chriſtianity from their country. According to the new calendar the year retains its diviſion into twelve months; conſiſting each of thirty days, and diſtinguiſhed by names expreſſive of their uſual produce, temperature, or appearance; while to complete the year, five ſuppiementary days are added, and denominated *ſans cullotides*.

A principal object of this machinery was to introduce a diviſion of each month into three decades, and to fix the day of reſt on the tenth, and not on the ſeventh, that all reverence for the inſtitutions contained in the ſacred volume might gradually decay. After this prelude the authorities of Paris came in a few days to the convention, attended by the biſhop and clergy, decorated with caps of liberty, who, to complete the ceremonial, renounced the office of chriſtian prieſts, and their appointments as chriſtian paſtors, and their character as chriſtian men. They declared, that the neceſſity of complying with the prejudices of the people, in order to teach them the moral virtues and ſocial duties, had alone cauſed their acceptance of their ſacerdotal functions; that now, abjuring the trade of ſuperſtition, they were reſolved, inſtead of chriſtians, to become men, to own no temple but the ſanctuary of the law, no divinity but liberty, no object of worſhip but their country, no goſpel but the conſtitution. Theſe and various other declarations of a ſimilar nature ſent from different parts, were diſpatched to all the departments, and municipalities, to perfect the work of the revolution; and the day of this event was mentioned in the callendar, as the day of reaſon. The *ſans culottes* who, in conſequence of theſe proceedings, conſidered themſelves as authorized to plunder every place of worſhip, public and private, divided with the convention large heaps of ſhrines, figures, and veſſels hitherto uſed in the offices of religion, while commiſſioners from the convention aided the ſacrilegious pillage. At Abbeville, and other places, the churches were ſhut; and many of the prieſts who ſtill attempted to officiate at their altars were arreſted and thrown into dungeons. Nor can the biſhop of Moulines be paſſed by without receiving the execration he merits. This furious and atheiſtical fanatic trampling on the croſs and the mitre, aſſumed the pike and cap of liberty, and preached the doctrine, big with horror to reflecting minds but full of encouragement to diabolical natures, "That death is an eternal ſleep."

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Roberſpierre, however, with all his impiety, could not but perceive that amidſt all their enormities the people ſtill retained an attachment to their ancient faith: and that while they were infringing the laws of religion every moment of their lives they ſaw with diſguſt the violation of its altars. The various allegorical idols, ſuch as liberty, equality, &c, which had been eſtabliſhed amid the applauſes of the frantic atheiſts of the convention; the horrid act of placing a proſtitute on the altar of the cathedral church of Paris, to receive adoration as a ſubſtitute for the ſaviour of the world, gave great offence to the people at large, while the decree of the firſt of December, ordaining the churches to be ſhut up, was received with ſuch public and univerſal marks of abhorrence and deteſtation, that it was immediately reverſed, and the freedom of religious worſhip reſtored.

The death of the queen was ſoon followed by that of the accuſed deputies. They were convicted of having conſpired againſt the unity and indiviſibility of the republic, by exciting a rebellion in the departments of the ſouth. On the 30th of October, twenty one of theſe deputies ſuffered the ſtroke of the guillotine. And ſhortly after, the duke of Orleans received the puniſhment which his conduct deſerved. He was in the beginning of November, brought to Paris to appear as a criminal before the revolutionary tribunal, and, what was a neceſſary conſequence, was condemned to die. In the evening of the 6th of November, he was conveyed in a cart, to the place of execution, where the public deteſtation and abhorrence accompanied the cloſe of his infamous career.

On the 3d of February, three deputies from the iſland of St. Domingo were received into the convention, as repreſentatives of that place; one of the deputies was a negroe, and the other two of that deſcription of perſons who are called men of colour; on the ſucceeding day, the black deputies having given an account of the troubles in that iſland, the abolition of ſlavery was propoſed, and agreed to, the deputies were then decreed French citizens.

Roberſpierre having now attained nearly to the ſummit of his power, exerciſed it with deſpotic ſway. On the 25th of March, Herbert, with twenty two others, was arreſted, and ordered before the revolutionary tribunal. The charges brought againſt them were many and various. The principal evidences were Louis Legendre, deputy to the national convention, and Louis Pierre Dufourni an architect; although the charges were very ill ſupported, the evidence being none of the beſt, one of them only was acquitted. The wretched Anacharſis Clootz was among the condemned, and was the only man who attempted to ſpeak; and he appealed but in vain to the *human race*, whoſe *orator* and ambaſſador he had declared himſelf. Herbert and his colleagues, paſſed their time when together, like the fallen ſpirits in Milton, in mutual accuſation, till they were reconciled by Clootz, who fearing, leſt any of them ſhould die in religious belief, preached atheiſm to them till their laſt ſigh. They were executed amid the applauſes of a vile multitude, who, at the falling of the guillotine, rent the air with their ſavage ſhouts.

The ſucceſs and popularity of Roberſpierre encouraged him to bring forward a new group of traitors, and to the aſtoniſhment of every one, Fabre d'Eglantine and others of the deputies for the reviling of whom, Herbert had been condemned, were among the principal culprits. Danton took part in the convention againſt the accuſed deputies, and in a few days after, pleaded ſtrongly for confidence in the committees of public and general ſafety; uncon-

unconſcious that he was ſoon to be implicated in the fate of the perſons whom he cenſured, and to accompany them to the ſcaffold, there to receive the reward which his manifold villainies ſo richly deſerved. A ſecret rivalſhip and deep-rooted enmity had ſubſiſted between him and Roberſpierre. Of the progreſs of the quarrel betwixt them we are deſtitute of information; but a very ſhort time before the arreſt of Danton, an interview was brought about between them by the influence of a common friend, in the hope of effecting a reconciliation. Danton after a long converſation, finding it impoſſible to make an impreſſion on his implacable rival, who heard him with a look of inſult and malignity, is ſaid to have burſt into tears, and to have left the room with the prophetic exclamation, "I ſee that my fate is decided, but my death will be your ruin."

Danton, Lacroix, Philippeaux, and Camille Deſmoulines were arreſted on the 31ſt of March; the real crime of the laſt was a ſatirical parallel between the revolutionary government of France and the tyranny of the Roman emperors, which he publiſhed in a periodical paper, of which he was the editor, termed the "Old Cordelier." Philippeaux, it is ſaid, had mortally offended by expoſing the horrors and cruelties he had witneſſed in La Vendée. Together with them, Herault Sechelles, Simon, Chaumette the procureur of the commune of Paris, and Gobet the ex-biſhop, who had diſgraced himſelf and his profeſſion by the public renunciation of his functions, had been arreſted a few days before, all as accomplices with Fabre d'Eglantine. On the morning of the 2nd of April, they were brought before the revolutionary tribunal. They all evinced much firmneſs except Fabre d'Eglantine, who was greatly agitated. The priſoners demanded to be confronted with Roberſpierre and Barrere; this being refuſed, they would not anſwer any interrogatories, as they inſiſted that the proceedings were unfair. The public accuſer immediately diſpatched a letter to the convention, informing them that the priſoners were in a ſtate of revolt againſt the tribunal; and on the motion of St. Juſt, a decree was paſſed, "that whoever inſults the national juſtice ſhall not be heard, but tried immediately." This decree was read to the deputies upon trial on the 5th, but they ſtill perſiſted in their refuſal to anſwer interrogatories. The jury, therefore, without heſitation found them guilty of corrupt practices. At two o'clock on the ſame day ſentence was paſſed upon the priſoners; and at five in the afternoon, they were conveyed in three carts from the Conciergerie to the place de la Revolution, where the ſtate priſoners were executed.

While the ſcaffold was thus ſtreaming with blood, the convention decreed, on the motion of Couthon, "that all aliens belonging to the countries at war with the republic, and all ex-nobles, ſhould be ordered to depart from Paris, and from all fortreſſes and maritime towns." Several other meaſures of ſeverity were adopted to prevent counter-revolutionary conſpiracies.

To enter on a particular detail of the multitudes, who at this period were murdered by the revolutionary tribunal, would be to incumber our narrative with a long catalogue of names only rendered intereſting by the melancholy fate of the innocent ſufferers. One illuſtrious victim it is however neceſſary to notice, one not leſs eminent for her purity and virtues than for her rank and family. On the 10th of May Fouquier Tinville, the public accuſer, made a formal demand to the commune of Paris, that the ſiſter of Louis XVI. ſhould be immediately delivered up to the Revolutionary tribunal. On the ſame day the unfortunate princeſs was conveyed to the Conciergerie, and on the 12th was brought before her inflexible judges. The trial was conducted in their uſual ſummary way, and conſiſted only of a ſeries of interrogatories which were

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put to the priſoner. Diſdaining any conceſſion, which might ſoften their cruelty, and deſpiſing the wrath which ſhe knew her anſwer would excite, to the firſt interrogatory of the court, What is your name? ſhe magnanimouſly replied, "My name is Elizabeth of France, ſiſter to the monarch you murdered, and aunt to your preſent king." When charged with having encouraged her nephew in the hopes of ſucceeding to his father's throne, ſhe replied—"I have converſed familiarly with that unfortunate child, who was dear to me on more than one account; and I gave him all thoſe conſolations which appeared to me likely to reconcile him to the loſs of thoſe who had given him birth." This reply was conſtrued into a confeſſion that ſhe had encouraged the child in theſe fallacious hopes and without further interrogatory ſhe was condemned. The unfortunate princeſs was nobly ſupported in the laſt ſcene by the conſolations of religion. She betrayed ſome emotion at the ſight of the guillotine, but ſhe preſently reſumed a look of pious reſignation, and was executed the laſt of 26 perſons, who were carried to the ſcaffold the ſame day.

On the 30th. of May Barrere, pretending, that ſeveral attempts at aſſaſſination which his own unexampled tyranny, and that of his bloody gang had provoked, were ſet on foot by the Engliſh, after a great deal of fooliſh rant and declamation againſt England, propoſed that all the Engliſhmen and Hanoverians who ſhould fall into their hands, ſhould be put to death. This horrid propoſal was, however, never put into execution; the French officers and ſoldiers on the contrary, frequently behaved with ſingular humanity to the Britiſh ſoldiers. A decree was afterwards paſſed, that if the garriſons left by the allies in Valenciennes, Condé, and Queſnoy did not ſurrender within 24 hours after being ſummoned, they ſhould not be ſpared, but this decree was alſo never put into execution.

The priſons of Paris at this period were crowded with victims from all parts of the country, in conſequence of a decree which ordered all of a certain claſs of ſtate priſoners to be tried only by the revolutionary tribunal of Paris. At one period the priſoners amounted to between ſeven and eight thouſand. Of the number of thoſe who have been tried and executed, we have no preciſe return but the number muſt have been enormous *. To enter into a recital of particular facts would be a moſt irkſome and melancholy taſk. Yet in peruſing this black and diſmal catalogue, the eye of humanity will be arreſted by the fate of the venerable and intrepid defender of the unfortunate king of France, Lamoignon Maleſherbes, who died a martyr in the cauſe of virtue. Some were evidently put to death for their wealth, and others fell the victims of private reſentment. A correſpondence with relations who had emigrated brought many to the ſcaffold; but where this plea was wanting an imputed conſpiracy in the priſons always ſerved as a pretext for the ruin of thoſe who were obnoxious. The judges and jurors were hardened beyond example. The viſcounteſs de Noailles, ſiſter to Madame La Fayette, maintained in her defence, that ſhe was not in the priſon where the conſpiracy of which ſhe was accuſed took place: "No matter, exclaimed one of theſe aſſaſſins, you would have been concerned had you been there."

At this moment Roberſpierre had reached the ſummit of his popularity;

* It is computed that in the year, 1795, 2,000,000 of perſons had been maſſacred in France during the revolution: of thoſe 250,000 were women, 230,000 children, and 24,000 miniſters of the goſpel. This computation which amounts to nearly one tenth of the whole population of France, does not include any who were killed in arms. See a work called "The cruelties of the Jacobins" publiſhed in Paris in 1795.

and

and the baſeleſs fabric of his uſurped authority began to totter. The debates had been for ſome time before the fall of the tyrant moſt tumultuous and diſorderly. On the 27 Billaud Varennes, after a violent ſpeech, obſerved that "Men who are always ſpeaking of their own probity and virtue, are thoſe who trample thoſe qualities under foot. A ſecretary of the committee of public ſafety, had robbed the public of 114,000 livres. I demanded his arreſt, but Roberſpierre ſcreened him." (Murmurs.) "I could recount to you, citizens, a thouſand other ſimilar facts of this man; and yet it is he who dares to accuſe us; we who ſpend our nights and days in the committee of public ſafety, in organizing our victories. We muſt not hæſitate either to fall on him with our bodies, or to ſuffer tyrants to triumph. It was his wiſh to mutilate the convention, and to murder the repreſentatives of the nation." Roberſpierre here darted toward the tribunal while a number of voices exclaimed, "Down with the tyrant, down with the tyrant."

A decree of arreſt was now paſſed againſt Roberſpierre in which Couthon and Le Bas were likewiſe included, and the preſident ordered one of the uſhers of the hall to take into cuſtody one of the triumvirs, the elder Roberſpierre. In the mean time Henriot had alſo been arreſted, but had found means to eſcape. With the alacrity of deſperation he rallied his adherents. The convention were not, however, inactive. No ſooner were they apprized that Roberſpierre and his companions were in a ſtate of inſurrection, than they proceeded to declare them traitors and outlaws, and a deputation of their members was appointed to lead the people againſt their revolters. Between 2 and 3 o'clock in the morning the deputies found themſelves in ſufficient force to attack the inſurgents at the Hotel de Ville. At that time Bourdon de L'Oiſe appeared at the place de Grave, and read the proclamation of the convention. He then ruſhed into the hall of the commune, armed with a ſabre and piſtols; the inſurgents were now completely deſerted, and endeavoured to turn their arms againſt themſelves. Roberſpierre the elder diſcharged a piſtol in his mouth; which only wounded him in the jaw, while he received a wound from a gens d'arme in the ſide. The younger Roberſpierre threw himſelf out of a window and broke a leg and an arm. Le Bas ſhot himſelf upon the ſpot, and Couthon ſtabbed himſelf twice with a knife. They were all conveyed before the revolutionary tribunal, and there condemned to ſuffer death. Couthon was executed firſt and then the younger Roberſpierre and Henriot. Roberſpierre was executed the laſt but one. He ſtood two minutes on the ſcaffold, while the executioner removed the cloth which covered his face; but he did not utter a word.

Having now overturned the tyranny of Roberſpierre, the tyrants who ſucceeded him, began to contend with one another for the chief power. A decree was paſſed for enquiring into the conduct of Barrere, Billaud Varennes, Collot d'Herbois and Vadier. They were formally tried before the convention and condemned to be tranſported ſome to Guiana, and others to be confined in the caſtle of Ham in Picardy. Two of them however Cambon and Thuriot, had found means to eſcape and concealed themſelves in the fauxbourg of St. Antoine, and reſolved to embrace the opportunity of a ſcarcity which exiſted at that time to excite an inſurrection. After ſurrounding the convention with armed men, they awed them ſo much by their threats, that they were obliged to temporiſe, and ſent a deputation of ten of their members to *fraternize* with them. This compliance of the aſſembly with ſo much of their demands, led them to inſiſt on ſending a deputation in return, to which the convention aſſented; and immediately a troop was introduced with an orator at their head, who concluded his ſpeech with "Vive

"Vive la convention!" The deputation was invited to the honours of the ſitting; and to ſhew the perfect good diſpoſition of the convention, the preſident was ordered to give the fraternal kiſs to theſe repreſentatives of the ſovereign people. The ſovereign people, however, notwithſtanding the honour of the fraternal kiſs, aſſembled next day, and the convention were obliged to call in the aſſiſtance of military force, by which the inſurrection was at laſt quelled, and temporary tranquillity reſtored in Paris.

While theſe events took place the Convention were ſedulouſly employed in diſcuſſing a plan for a *new conſtitution*. On the 23d. of Auguſt theſe notable conſtitution-makers had completed their work, and it was referred to the primary aſſemblies for their confirmation and acceptance. By this conſtitution the legiſlative body is compoſed of what they call in their ludicrous jargon a *council of ancients* and a *council of five hundred*. The executive power is entruſted to a directory of five members, nominated by the legiſlative body*. The forty-eight ſections of Paris, while they accepted their newly made conſtitution, as firmly rejected the law for the re-election of two thirds of the convention into the legiſlature, and, as uſual, had recourſe to the "holy right of inſurrection" to enforce their reaſons. They aſſembled at noon the 5th. Oct. and a deſperate battle took place near the convention; the ſectionaries repeatedly poſſeſſed themſelves of the cannon which were as often retaken. There fell in this engagement about 2000 men.

Whatever were the political conteſts of the French they proceeded with the moſt aſtoniſhing rapidity in their career on the Continent. They had ſubjected Holland, the whole of the Netherlands was in their poſſeſſion except Mentz, which in a ſhort time was completely blockaded. But they were now weakened by the vaſt track of country they had overrun. Jourdan was obliged to retreat; prince Charles hung on his rear, and the peaſants irritated by the extortions and robberies committed by thoſe protectors of the rights of man, took the preſent opportunity of revenging themſelves upon their rapacious oppreſſors. The garriſon of Mentz, likewiſe being ſtrongly reinforced, two diviſions of the Auſtrian army croſſed the river at different points, and attacked the remains of the French, who had intrenched before that place, and who had, during ſo many months, waſted their ſtrength in vain. The Auſtrians after an obſtinate reſiſtance drove them from all their poſts, deſtroyed their works and took poſſeſſion of all their artillery. The campaign was ſhortly after concluded by common conſent of the hoſtile generals.

As the French had now completely ſubdued that party of royaliſts, who for a long time had reſiſted their oppreſſion, they were enabled to begin the ſucceeding campaign with renewed vigour. Such were their ſucceſſes in Italy, that the king of Sardinia was compelled to ſue for peace, and to ſubmit to whatever conditions were impoſed upon him, and he was ſhortly followed by the dukes of Modena and Ferrara. The object of the army in Germany under Jourdan was to gain poſſeſſion of Mentz; that of the troops under Moreau was to effect a paſſage acroſs the Rhine, and poſſeſs themſelves of Kehl. By a well concerted motion of the archduke, they were compelled to retire from before Mentz with great loſs; but general Moreau was ſucceſsful in paſſing the Rhine and taking the fortreſs of Kehl. In Italy the enemy were ſtill more ſucceſsful; the diſperſion of the Auſtrian army there gave the French general leiſure to carry on his various

* Rewbell, La Reveillere Lepaux, Carnot, Barras, and Letourneur de la Manche were choſen directors.

enterprises againſt the reſpective ſtates of that country. A detachment took poſſeſſion of Leghorn on the 28th. of June, though belonging to a neutral power, on the pretext of diſlodging the Engliſh, who were deſpoiled of their property by theſe robbers. The main army entered the territory of the pope, and without reſiſtance took poſſeſſion of the cities Bologna, Ferrara, and Urbino. This expedition, which gave the French the command of the holy ſee, alarmed in ſo great a degree the king of Naples, that he requeſted an armiſtice, which was granted to him as well as the pope, upon ſuch conditions as the French were pleaſed to dictate.

Meanwhile the emperor had ſent freſh troops into Italy under the command of general Wurmſer to oppoſe the farther progreſs of the French. The firſt operations of this army were ſucceſsful, but they ſoon experienced a ſad reverſe; on the 15th. of Auguſt a moſt obſtinate engagement took place which ended in a total defeat of the Auſtrians; they were compelled to repaſs the Adige, leaving the enemy in poſſeſſion of the whole country round Mantua; the ſiege of which place they were obliged to turn into a blockade from the loſs of their heavy artillery. The ſucceſſes of the French on the Rhine correſponded with thoſe in Italy. They had poſſeſſed themſelves of the country lying on each ſide of the Mein and of Franconia and were advancing towards Ratiſbon; during this period the Auſtrian army having received reinforcements, attacked them with ſuch vigour that they were compelled to retreat with precipitation; the French general found it impoſſible to rally them, as they were more anxious to eſcape the vengeance of the peaſantry whom they had plundered and oppreſſed, than incur the riſk of loſing their treaſure together with their lives. Moreau meanwhile conceiving hopes that either Jourdan's army would reſume the attack, or that the advances of his own army towards Vienna would force the archduke to return, had marched along the Danube, and had taken poſſeſſion of Ulm, Donawerth, and ſeveral other towns on its banks, triumphantly entered the circle of Bavaria, and on the 27th. Auguſt took quiet poſſeſſion of its capital. But the defeat of Jourdan's army was ſo complete that all hopes of their further reſiſtance were relinquiſhed, and Moreau, finding himſelf in imminent peril, was finally obliged to effect a retreat, and recroſs the Rhine at Briſach, leaving a ſtrong garriſon in the fortreſs of Kehl, from whence he had commenced his irruption into Germany. This fortreſs was ſoon after attacked by prince Charles and obliged to ſurrender.

Meanwhile thoſe who had uſurped the government of France found themſelves perplexed with thoſe tumults and inſurrections which the tyrants, whom they had diſplaced, might naturally be expected to excite. Theſe however being quelled by military force, the directory began to turn their attention to the enacting of ſuch laws as they deemed neceſſary in the preſent ſituation of the country, or ſuch as gratified the malignity of their vitiated, perverted minds. The non-juring clergymen, whoſe unmerited and inconceivable ſufferings ſince the commencement of this accurſed revolution, might have ſoftened the bittereſt enmity into compaſſion, were at preſent the objects of Jacobinical malignity. They decreed that all nonjuring prieſts ſhould be baniſhed from the republic, and this perſecuting decree was ſanctioned by the council of five hundred, but was rejected by the council of elders. They likewiſe ſhewed about this period their malignity againſt England by a law which they enacted, prohibiting the importation of Engliſh manufactures into France, and they obliged Holland and Spain to adopt the ſame reſolution. Genoa was likewiſe compelled to ſhut up her ports againſt the

Britiſh.

Britiſh. This pitiful effort of malice cannot materially affect the commerce of Great Britain, which, ſince the paſſing of this law has become more flouriſhing than ever.

The negotiation which had been carrying on during the ſummer between the republic and Naples was brought to a termination on the 25th. of October by a definitive treaty of peace. The conditions were ſuch as the French were pleaſed to preſcribe, which were not ſo rigorous as what had been granted to ſeveral other powers. A negociation which the miniſtry in Britain entered into this ſeaſon failed of ſucceſs, and the Engliſh miniſter was ordered to depart within 24 hours. The conditions of peace which were offered to the pope about this period being incompatible with his dignity as a ſovereign power, that prince determined again to have recourſe to arms in defence of his crown. The army in Italy had received very conſiderable reinforcements that they might be able to effectuate the releaſe of general Wurmſer who was ſhut up in Mantua. The command of this army was entruſted to general Alvinzi, who was entirely defeated in the dreadful battle of Arcole after having moſt gallantly and obſtinately diſputed the field. He was compelled to retire behind the Brenta with his army and leave Mantua to its fate. This city though long and obſtinately defended by the gallant and experienced veteran Wurmſer, was at laſt obliged to ſurrender, as every attempt to relieve it had proved abortive. Diſcouraged by the ſucceſſes of the enemy the pope was obliged to ſubmit to whatever conditions they thought proper to preſcribe, which were ſufficiently humiliating. Meanwhile the emperor had levied a freſh army which he ſent to Italy in order to ſtop the progreſs of the victorious enemy. This army, however was not able to ſtand before them and their operations were a ſeries of victories. In this perilous ſituation, a correſpondence was commenced between the two generals which ended at firſt in an armiſtice, and finally in adjuſting preliminaries of peace between the court of Vienna and the French republic, and by the Neapolitan miniſter on the part of the emperor.

Meanwhile the violence of the different factions was producing new commotions in France. On the 5th of March the two councils drew the important lots, which were to deprive a third of their members of their ſeats in the legiſlature. As the period of the general election approached, the ardour of party zeal became every where apparent; and the whole nation was in ſome meaſure agitated by the efforts of contending factions. The new third had ſcarcely taken their ſeats, before they ſhewed their diſapprobation of the conduct of the agents of the Directory. They propoſed ſeveral retrenchments of expence among the civil and military agents. Their treatment of the United States was ſeverely reprobated, and a plan of a decree was propoſed for appointing a committee to inquire into the *unconſtitutional* reſolutions of the directory on that ſubject, which was adopted. The interference of the French general in the internal government of Venice was ſeverely cenſured, and the diſturbance which was given by the ſanction of the directory to the Genoeſe and Helvetic republics. The abominable laws authoriſing polygamy were likewiſe ordered to be reviſed. The cruel laws againſt the prieſts and emigrants were ſomewhat ſoftened, and all political meetings and ſocieties were aboliſhed. The diſcontent excited by theſe meaſures ſoon reached the armies. The directors were of neceſſity connected with them, and there is little doubt but every ſtep would be taken to fan the riſing flame among the military. The army led the way in addreſſing the directory in the moſt violent manner, and their example was followed by

the other armies of the republic. To check this ſpirit in the army, Thibadeau preſented the plan of two reſolutions, the laſt of which declared every "aſſemblage of ſoldiers for the purpoſe of deliberating in other circumſtances than thoſe determined by the law, a crime; that any communication under the title of addreſſes from one armed body to another, or to the civil authorities, ſhould be puniſhed as a ſeditious act." Though the oppoſition party were not without their preparations, their meaſures were tardy, and purſued with leſs energy than thoſe of their opponents. An addreſs from the Fauxbourg of St. Antoine confirmed the directory in the violent meaſure it was about to adopt. On the morning of the 4th of September, at the early hour of 3 o'clock, the majority of the directory ordered the alarm guns to be fired, and the halls of the council to be ſurrounded by military force. General Augereau, who was charged with the execution of this bold meaſure, entered the hall, where he found Rovere, Pichegru, Willot, Bourdon de Loiſe, and ſeveral others. He ſeized Pichegru with his own hands, and ordered about 18 others of the moſt conſpicuous characters to be arreſted. They were committed to the temple; the halls were ſhut up, and the members of both councils were ſummoned to meet, the ancients at the ſchool of Surgery, and the council of 500 at the Odeon, formerly the theatre in the Fauxbourg St. Germain. The minority of the directory Carnot and Barthelemi were implicated in the fate of their friends in the councils; Carnot took advantage of the tumult and fled; Barthelemi was put under arreſt. The directory announced their victory to the public by a proclamation, in which they exhorted the citizens to peace and harmony; promiſed that life and property ſhould be protected; and that every act of plunder and outrage ſhould meet with exemplary puniſhment. This change in the French government appears to have been very unfavourable to a treaty with England; and ſhortly after they had got poſſeſſion of power, Lord Malmeſbury, who was then at Liſle, was ordered to depart from the dominions of France in 48 hours.

Having now humbled all their enemies at home, and ruling with triumphant ſway, the directory began to indulge themſelves in new plans of ambition and conqueſt; Italy by its weakneſs and the degeneracy of its inhabitants, preſented a tempting object to theſe rapacious oppreſſors. Having pretended that their ambaſſador at Rome was inſulted, they prepared to take vengeance by arms, and, far from being appeaſed by the humble apologies of the ſovereign Pontiff, their troops were ordered to commence their march; they never met with the ſmalleſt oppoſition, and in a ſhort time they placed their ſtandard with triumph on the Capitol. The firſt uſe they made of their power was to overturn the papal government, and to levy oppreſſive contributions. The fine ſtatues, and all thoſe monuments of the arts which had long adorned Rome, were tranſported to Paris. Many other acts of tyranny and oppreſſion were committed by the commanders of the French armies. Switzerland was next obliged to ſubmit to the galling yoke of republican tyranny. After having beyond indurance inſulted them, the directory at laſt ordered their troops to invade that country, which after a deſperate reſiſtance was finally ſubdued. For an account of which, we muſt refer our readers to Switzerland where we have given a full relation of all the misfortunes which befel that unhappy country.

Againſt no country in the world was the malignity of the directory ſo apparent as againſt Great Britain. They demanded the expulſion of the Engliſh from Hamburgh, and ſeized and confiſcated Engliſh merchandiſe, wherever

ever they could find it, in the ſhops or warehouſes of the French merchants, or in the ſhips of neutral nations. They appeared for many months to connive at a trade with England and even to encourage it; thus their own merchants were led into a ſnare; when their warehouſes were full, the directory ſeized their prey.

A more extenſive plan of vengeance, however, was in agitation againſt England, which was at once to overturn her government, to deſtroy her commerce, and to reduce the people to the degrading ſervitude in which the directory held the people of France. To execute the proud and empty boaſts of an invaſion, they were to build immenſe rafts or rather floating iſlands of wood to tranſport their troops into England. This ridiculous enterpriſe was not however attempted, they had been probably intimidated by the ardour and alacrity of the Britiſh nation in defence of their country.

The complicated baſeneſs, meanneſs, and duplicity of the Gallic tyrants was likewiſe very conſpicuous in their tranſactions with America. For the purpoſe of terminating all differences between America and the French republic, three envoys were appointed, to whom full powers were granted to ſettle all diſputes between France and the United Provinces. The envoys, on their arrival, ſent a letter to Talleyrand miniſter for foreign affairs; to which they never received an anſwer. The apoſtate biſhop did, however, ſend his agents to talk with them, and from them they received the following overtures, which it was propoſed to them to accede to, as preliminaries to negociation, and even to their reception.

The agents did not aſſign any other reaſon for the innumerable injuries which America had ſuffered than merely the offence which the directory had taken at the Preſident's ſpeech at the opening of the Congreſs, although by far the greater part of their depredations on the American trade were committed before that time, and that very ſeſſion of the Congreſs was occaſioned by nothing elſe. Yet for this ſpeech ſome atonement was demanded worthy the acceptance of the directory. It is aſtoniſhing that on a ſubject like this the envoys ſhould condeſcend to talk to them a ſingle moment. They did however. They juſtified the conduct of the preſident, inſiſted upon his right to deliver to the Congreſs what ſentiments he pleaſed, and declared that they had neither authority nor inclination to offer any diſavowal of them. This brought on a converſation, which led the agents to the point, and they ſoon found that the wrath of the directory was only to be appeaſed with money. They condeſcended to name the ſums which they wanted.

I. Fifty thouſands pounds was to be paid to Talleyrand, to be ſhared by him and certain of the directory, as the price of an interview, without any promiſe of its producing a reconciliation.

II. America was to purchaſe of them for caſh and at par 32 millions of Batavian Florins, which were then ſelling at fifty per cent. below par, and put up with the loſs. And this tranſaction was to make an article to be kept a ſecret from Great Britain.

III. America was immediately to advance them a loan, double in amount to what they had been robbed of by the French already; but in order to avoid all delay with reſpect to their touching the caſh, and to ſimplify the amount by adhering to round numbers, 15 millions of dollars were to be ſent over immediately; and that France would repay this loan, when convenient.

The envoys ſtated (which is but too true) that the people of America had been warmly concerned for the liberties of France; that when all the

powers

powers of Europe united againſt her, America alone ſtood her friend; that notwithſtanding the ſpoliations which had been committed upon their trade, the government of America, had the moſt ardent diſpoſition to reconcile all exiſting differences. To all this they replied that nothing could be done here without money; that Hamburgh and other ſtates had been obliged to purchaſe a peace, and that it would be prudent for America to imitate their example. They ſaid that ſome of the directory were not ſo well ſupplied with caſh as others of them. Merlin, they ſaid, received a part of the prizes from the maſters and owners of privateers; but others had no ſuch perquiſites. When an objection was ſtated to the demand, and its unreaſonableneſs inſiſted on. "What," ſaid they, "you pay for your treaties with the Indians, and ſhall you not pay for them with us alſo?" Perceiving that good words had no effect they began to threaten. They deſired the envoys to look at Genoa, Holland, Geneva, and Venice; to take a timely warning from their fate, and to avoid it by the only poſſible mode, that of tribute and ſubmiſſion. England, they ſaid, was upon the eve of her ruin; that ſhe was juſt about to fall, and that, when ſhe was overthrown, the terms to be impoſed on America would be ten times more ſevere. "Perhaps," ſaid he, "you believe that in returning and expoſing the unreaſonableneſs of the demands of this government, you will perſuade your fellow citizens to reſiſt thoſe demands; you are miſtaken—you ought to know, that the means which France poſſeſſes in your country are ſufficient to enable her, with the French party in America, to throw the blame which will attend the rupture of the negociation on the Federaliſts, as you term yourſelves, but on the Britiſh Party, as France terms you; and you may aſſure yourſelves this will be done."

After all this conference with the agents, Mr. Gerry obtained an audience of Talleyrand; informed him of the converſation, of the perſons with whom it was held, and aſked him if theſe men really poſſeſſed his confidence, to which Talleyrand unequivocally replied, "They did."

Such are the particulars of this infamous tranſaction, which along with other innumerable crimes, fix indelible infamy on the tyrannic faction, which oppreſs France. As they are not vague reports, but are ſupported by the cleareſt evidence, as they are related officially by the American envoys to the American government, it would be vain to addreſs any arguments to thoſe who ſhut their eyes againſt this inſtance of Gallic baſeneſs; their minds muſt be corrupted by the infectious poiſon of Jacobinical principles. We cannot refrain from tranſcribing the addreſs of an American journaliſt to his readers after a ſhort ſummary of theſe diſpatches.

"They ſpeak in a language that needs neither preface nor commentary—Whoever reads muſt underſtand them, and whoever underſtands, muſt hate, deteſt, abhor, and execrate, the baſe, inſolent, and perfidious Nation, whoſe projects they develope.

"Reader, if you are an American, never loſe, nor for a moment miſlay, this paper. Meditate on it through the labours of the day and let it be the firſt thing that revisits your mind when you awake from your nightly ſlumbers. Guard it as you would the apple of your eye—Preſerve it amongſt the hallowed gifts of your parents: and, when you die leave it as the firſt, moſt valuable, and moſt precious legacy, to your children. So ſhall they learn to ſhun the blindneſs of their fathers; ſo ſhall they learn to diſtinguiſh their friends from their foes; ſo ſhall the name of a *Frenchman* become a bye-word, a reproach and a curſe amongſt them, from generation to generation!"

Being diſappointed by the magnanimity with which Great Britain beheld their

their preparations, the French directory ſeem to have relinquiſhed their viſionary ſcheme of invading England. The fleet which they had equipped, ſet ſail from Toulon May 19. under the command of admiral Brueys. It conſiſted of fifteen ſhips of the line and eighteen frigates. An immenſe number of infantry, with artillery, vaſt quantities of mortars, howitzers, furnaces, bombs, grape, and canniſter ſhot with ammunition have been put on board. Men of letters, geometricians and artiſts of every ſort accompany them. Various conjectures were formed throughout all Europe concerning the deſtination of this fleet, which was very uncertain. The firſt certain account of them was, that they had taken poſſeſſion of Malta, which they plundered. After collecting and ſending away the booty which they found there, they ſet ſail for Egypt and arrived ſafely in the harbour of Alexandria. Their ſubſequent tranſactions in that country together with their memorable defeat by admiral Nelſon, have been related in the hiſtories of England and Egypt.

The joy which that defeat diffuſed through all Europe has produced the happieſt effects; it infuſed ſpirit into the council of Raſtadt, and, inſtead of that timid, irreſolute policy which the emperor had invariably purſued, he began to ſhew ſome faint appearances of courage and reſolution, and being aſſured of the aſſiſtance of Ruſſia, he at laſt determined to take the field, and to make one laſt attempt to check that inordinate ambition of France, and to maintain his rank as a ſovereign prince among the ſtates of Europe. The moſt brilliant victories have attended his arms. The French have been driven from moſt of their conqueſts, and the Auſtrians have entered Switzerland; while Suwarrow in Italy has met with the moſt complete ſucceſs, and cleared great part of that country of the enemy.

To trace, with preciſion, the military operations of the Ruſſians and Auſtrians, under the command of Suwarrow, whoſe conduct in Italy has fully anſwered the high character which Europe entertained of his talents, and the full confidence which the two emperors have repoſed in him, would require a much greater portion of room than our narrow limits will allow. All that military knowledge, perſonal courage, vigilance, activity, perſeverance, and addreſs could effect, has been atchieved by this celebrated general. Before his arrival, the Auſtrian general Kray, expelled the French from the Mantuan, and compelled them, after having ſuſtained conſiderable loſſes, to relinquiſh their ſtrong holds on the Mincio and the Adige, and to retreat to the Adda. On the banks of this river, the French general Moreau, prepared for a vigorrous defence. Nothing that could give courage and confidence to his troops was neglected. Entrenchments were thrown up wherever the river was conſidered as paſſable; and a ſituation remarkably ſtrong by nature, was ſtrengthened by every means which art could ſupply. In this poſition, however, Suwarrow, after having driven in all his out-poſts, reſolved to attack him. Accordingly, on the morning of the 27th of April he forced the paſſage of the river, at different points, attacked the French in their entrenchment, and, after a moſt deſperate action, obtained a complete victory. The French left ſix thouſand men on the field; and upwards of five thouſand priſoners, including four generals, fell into the hands of the allies, together with eighty pieces of cannon. The conſequence of this action was the total expulſion of the French from the Milaneſe.

A dreadful battle was fought on the 19th of June which ended in the complete defeat, and almoſt total diſperſion of General Macdonald's army. The engagement continued for three days, when the enemy were at laſt obliged to fly. They left 3000 men dead upon the field of battle, and 10,000 priſon-

ers. The enemy have never been able to make reſiſtance againſt the Ruſſians, ſince this memorable defeat, but continue flying before them. Turin has ſurrendered, with a number of other fortreſſes; the enraged peaſants roſe up every where againſt the French, and received the Auſtrians as their protectors and friends. In ſeveral places, all thoſe ſymbols of liberty which the French had been ſo careful to erect, have been deſtroyed by the enraged populace.

In Egypt they ſeem to have no better ſucces; Buonaparte has been repulſed with great loſs in ſeveral deſperate attacks, which he made on St. John d'Acre, and has been obliged to fall back with great loſs, ſo that his deſtruction does not ſeem to be far diſtant.

In the interior of France nothing appears friendly to the genuine principles of liberty; the directory appear to poſſeſs the ſame unlimited power over a ruined, diſtreſſed people, whom they oppreſs without mercy. At preſent they ſeem to be at variance with the councils, who are ſupported by the people. Which of theſe two contending parties will gain the aſcendancy, is doubtful, and indeed immaterial. For we will look in vain for the ſmalleſt ſpark of honour or virtue from the colliſion of Jacobinical factions.

Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French, was born Auguſt 23, 1754, married, April 9, 1770, to Maria Antoinetta, archduchefs of Auſtria, born November 2, 1755; ſucceeded his grandfather, Lewis XV. May 10, 1774; crowned at Rheims June, 11, 1775, beheaded Jan. 21, 1793. The iſſue of Lewis XVI. and Marie Antoinetta are,

1 Madame-Maria-Thereſa-Charlotta, born December 19, 1778.

2. Lewis-Charles, born March 27, 1785.

Brothers and ſiſters to his late Majeſty.

1. Lewis Staniſlaus-Xavier, count de Provence, born November, 17, 1755; married May, 14, 1771, Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born September 2, 1753.

2. Charles-Philip count d'Artois, born October, 9, 1757, married, November, 6, 1773, to Maria-Thereſa, daughter of the king of Sardinia, born Jan. 31, 1706, by whom he has iſſue:

Louiſa-Antoine, born Jan. 24, 1778.

A princeſs born Auguſt 5, 1780.

Another princeſs born Jan. 8, 1783.

3. Maria Adelaide-Clotilda-Xaveria, born Sept. 23, 1759.

4. Madame Elizabeth-Philippa-Marie-Helena, born May 3, 1764.

Iſſue of Lewis XV. now living are,

1. Maria-Adelaide, ducheſs of Lorrain and Bar, born 1732.

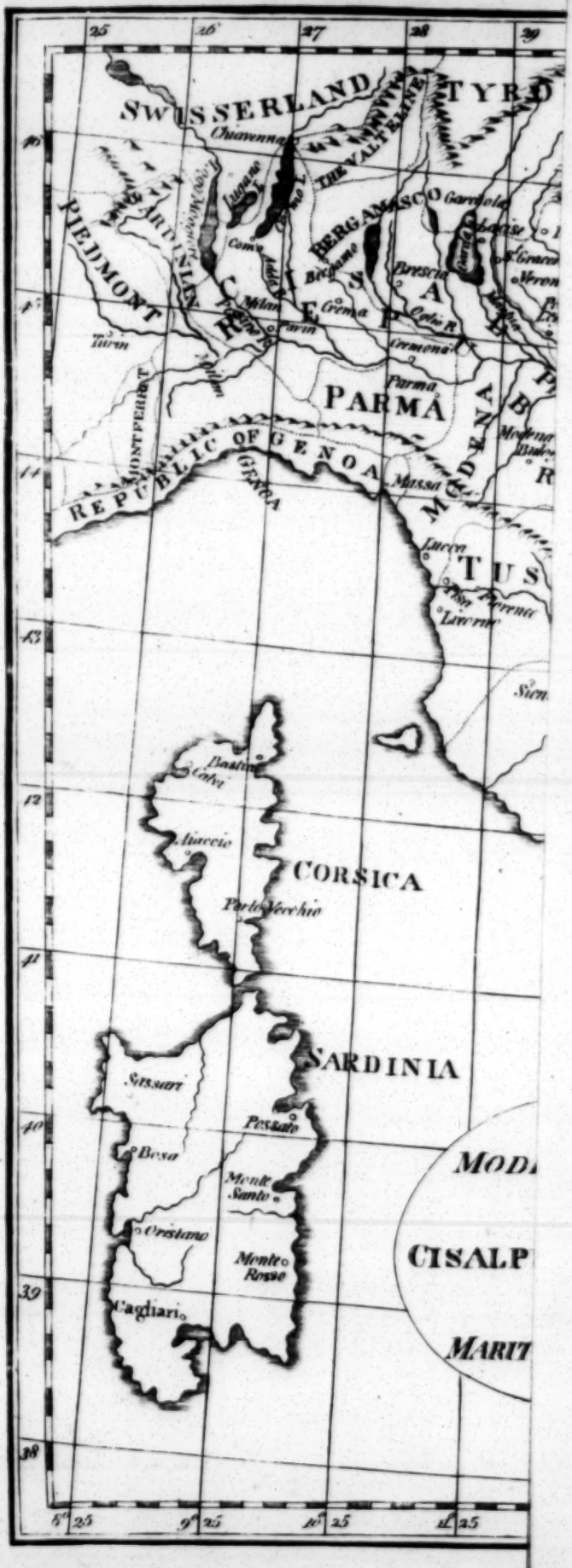
2. Victoria-Louiſa-Marie-Thereſa, born 1733.

3. Sophia-Philippina-Elizabeth-Juſtinia, born 1734.

4. Louiſa Maria, born 1737, who went into a convent of Carmelites, and took the veil in 1770.


SWISSERLAND
TYROL
CARINTHIA
CARNIOLA
PIEDMONT
PARMA
VENICE
TUSCANY
STATES OF
THE
CORSICA
SARDINIA
ROME
CHURCH
REPUBLIC OF GENOA
MODENA
ROMAGNE
Turin
Milan
Parma
Genoa
Massa
Lucca
Leghorn
Siena
Ancona
Loretto
Ravenna
Rimini
Bologna
Modena
Verona
Padua
Trieste
Udine
Belluno
Bassano
Brescia
Bergamo
Como
Lugano
Chiavenna
Ajaccio
Bastia
Porto Vecchio
Civita Vecchia
Sassari
Bosa
Oristano
Cagliari
Monte Santo
Monte Rosso
Posada
MODERN CHART
of the
CISALPINE REPUBLIC
and
MARITIME AUSTRIA.


CARINTHIA
STERIA
CARNIOLA
CROATIA
MORLACHIA
ESTERREICH
VENETA
HUNGARY
SCLAVONIA
BOSNIA
TURK. DJLMATIA
IPROLOG
DALMATIA
SERVIA
TURK. UPPER ALBANIA
MONTENEGRI
LOWER ALBANIA
ITALY
NAPLES
CALABRIA
Drau R.
Mur R.
Save R.
Danube R.
Bosna R.
Drina R.
Morava R.
Merosch R.
Theiss R.
Peter Wardein
Trieste
Capo d'Istria
Fiume
Carlobago
Lucera
Gradisca
Ancona
Loretto
Abruzzo
Pesaro
Lissa
Selta
Lesina
Curzola
Cittadella
Lagusa
Meleda
Cattaro
Dulcigno
Durazzo
Montenegro
Belgrad
Valona
Brindisi
Tarento
Salerno
Reggio
Messina
Corfu I.
Paxo I.
Maura I.
Venice
Zephalonia I.
Ithaca
Zante I.
Cerigo I.
Green for Maritime Austria
Red the Cisalpine Republic
Blue the French Republic


SWISSERLAND
TYRO
PIEDMONT
PARMA
REPUBLIC OF GENOA
MODENA
TUS
CORSICA
SARDINIA
Bastia
Ajaccio
Porto Vecchio
Sassari
Bosa
Oristano
Cagliari
Monte Santo
Monte Rosso
Turin
Milan
Brescia
Parma
Massa
Lucca
Leghorn
Siena
CISALP
MARIT

NETHERLANDS.

THE ſeventeen provinces which are known by the name of the Netherlands, were formerly part of Gallia Belgica, and afterwards of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy, in the German empire. They obtained the general name of Netherlands, Pais-Bas, or Low Countries, from their ſituation in reſpect of Germany.

EXTENT, SITUATION, AND BOUNDARIES OF THE SEVENTEEN PROVINCES.

Length 360, Breadth 260 } between { 49 and 54 North lat. / 2 and 7 Eaſt lon.

They are bounded by the German ſea on the North; by Germany, Eaſt; by Lorrain and France, South; and by the Britiſh Channel, Weſt.

I ſhall, for the ſake of perſpicuity, and to avoid repetition, treat of the ſeventeen provinces under two great diviſions: firſt the *Northern*, which contains the Seven United Provinces, uſually known by the name of HOLLAND: ſecondly, the *Southern*, containing the Auſtrian and French Netherlands. The United Provinces are, properly ſpeaking, eight, viz. Holland Overyſſel, Zealand, Frieſland, Utrecht, Groningen, Gelderland, and Zutphen; but the two latter forming only one ſovereignty, they generally go by the name of the Seven United Provinces.

SITUATION AND EXTENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Length 150, Breadth nearly the ſame. } between { 51 and 54 North lat. / 3 and 7 Eaſt lon.

Containing 10,000 ſquare miles, with 275 inhabitants to each.

The following, from Templeman's ſurvey of the globe, is the moſt ſatisfactory account we meet with of the geographical diviſion, including the Texel, and other iſlands:

Countries Names. United Provinces.		Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calviniſts.	Overyſſel	1,900	66	50	Deventer
	Holland	1,800	84	52	AMSTERDAM
	Gelderland	986	50	40	Nimeguen
	Frieſland	810	44	34	Leuwarden
	Zutphen	644	37	33	Zutphen
	Groningen	540	45	37	Groningen
	Utrecht	450	41	22	Utrecht
	Zealand	303	29	24	Middleburg
	Texel and other iſlands	113			
	Total —	7,546			

AIR, SEASONS, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] These provinces lie oppoſite to England, at the diſtance of 90 miles, upon the eaſt ſide of the Engliſh Channel, and are only a narrow ſlip of low ſwampy land, lying between the mouths of ſeveral great rivers, and what the induſtry of the inhabitants have gained from the ſea by means of dykes, which they have raiſed and ſtill ſupport with incredible labour and expence. The air of the United Provinces is therefore foggy and groſs, until it is purified by the froſt in winter, when the eaſt wind uſually ſets in for about four months, and their harbours are frozen up. The moiſture of the air cauſes metals to ruſt, and wood to mould, more than in any other country, which is the reaſon of their perpetually rubbing and ſcouring, and of the brightneſs and cleanlineſs in their houſes, ſo much taken notice of. The ſoil is unfavourable to vegetation, but, by the induſtry of the inhabitants in making canals, it is rendered fit for paſture, and in many places for tillage. Holland, with all its commercial advantages, is not a deſirable country to live in, eſpecially to foreigners. Here are no mountains nor riſing grounds, no plantations, purling ſtreams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or ſteeple, has the appearance of a continued marſh or bog, drained at certain diſtances by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in that country ſerve as high-roads, are in the ſummer months no better than offenſive ſtagnated waters.

RIVERS AND HARBOURS.] The rivers are an important conſideration to the United Provinces; the chief of which are the Rhine, one of the largeſt rivers in Europe; the Maeſe, the Scheldt, and the Vecht. There are many ſmall rivers that join theſe, and a prodigious number of canals; but there are few good harbours in the United Provinces; the beſt, are thoſe of Rotterdam, Helvoetſluys, and Fluſhing; that of Amſterdam, though one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in Europe, has a bar at the entrance of it, over which large veſſels cannot paſs without being lightened.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The quantity of grain produced here is not ſufficient for home conſumption; but by draining their bogs and marſhes they have many excellent meadows, which fatten lean German and Daniſh cattle to a vaſt ſize; and they make prodigious quantities of the beſt butter and cheeſe in Europe. Their country produces turf, madder, tobacco, ſome fruit and iron; but all the pit-coal and timber uſed there, and indeed moſt of the comforts, and even the neceſſaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of ſheep, whoſe wool is highly valued; and their horſes and horned cattle are of a larger ſize than in any other nation in Europe. It is ſaid that there are ſome wild bears and wolves here. Storks build and hatch on their chimnies; but, being birds of paſſage they leave the country about the middle of Auguſt, with their young, and return the February following. Their river-fiſh is much the ſame as ours, but their ſea-fiſh is generally larger, owing perhaps to their fiſhing in deep water. No herrings viſit their coaſts; but they have many excellent oyſter-beds about the iſlands of the Texel, producing very large and well-taſted oyſters. Notwithſtanding all theſe inconveniences, the induſtry of the Hollanders furniſhes as great a plenty of the neceſſaries and commodities of life, and upon as eaſy terms (except to travellers and ſtrangers) as they are to be met with in any part of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Seven United Provinces are perhaps the beſt peopled of any ſpot of the ſame extent in the world. They contain, according to the beſt account 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and about two millions



true, the people of the seven provinces, with their [illegible]

when


THE
Seven
UNITED PROVINCES
from the best
AUTHORITIES
Engraved for
The General Magazine.
— 1795 —
Scale of British Miles.
NORTH SEA
Schelling I.
Vlieland I.
Eyerlandt I.
Harlingen
Vessel L.
Texel I.
Enkuysen
Medemblik
Alkmaar
Edam
Beverwick
Haerlem
AMSTERDAM
Leyden
Alphen
Gouda
Delft
The Hague
Rotterdam
Dort
Holland's Hook
Maas Mouth
Goree
Brouwershaven
Schowen
Dumburg
West Capelle
Flushing
Zuyde Beveland
Cadsand
Blankenberg
Ostend
Damme
Ghent
Bruges
Sluys
Sas of Ghent
Capryck
Canal
AUSTRIAN FLANDERS
Scheldt R.
Malines or Mechlin
Utrecht
Amersfort
Woerden
Leerdam
Gorcum
Schoonhoven
Oudewater
Vianen
Culemburg
Aquerek
Bommel
Heusden
Breda
Tilbery
Steenbergen
Thoten
Rosendale
Sprundel
Strybat
Bergen op zoom
Mastel
S. Sebastian
Hantbergen
Merxplas
Wesdel
Rumpt
Turnhout
Brecht
Herenthal
Lillo
ANTWERP
den Doorn
DUTCH BRABANT
AUSTRIAN BRABANT


Schelling I.
Barlingen
Vlaam
Texingen I.
Lauwerst I.
Enkhuysen
ZUYDER
ZEE
AMSTERDAM
Elburgh
Harderwyck
Elspeet
Deventer
DUTCHY
OF GELDERS
LORDSHIP of UTRECHT
Arnheim
Zevenaer
Nimeguen
Grieth
CLEVES
DUTCH
CLEVES
TCH BRABANT
BRABANT
Tilburg
Turnhout
Lierre
BISHOPR. OF LIEGE
Maestricht
FRIESE
LAND
GRONINGEN
EAST WESTPHALIA
CIRCLE OF
Norden
Aurich
Leer
Emden
Papenburg
Rhede
Lathen
Meppen
Haar R.
Warendorf
Limpen
Lingen
Munster
Dulmen
Recklinghausen
Essen
Werden
ELECTORATE
COLOGNE

lions of inhabitants; beſides the twenty-five towns, and the people in what is called the Lands of the Generality, or conquered countries and towns of other parts of the Netherlands *. The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch (for ſo the inhabitants of the United Provinces are called in general) ſeem to be formed by their ſituation, and to ariſe from their natural wants. Their country, which is preſerved by mounds and dykes, is a perpetual incentive to labour; and the artificial drains with which it is every where interſected, muſt be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheeſe, are produced by a conſtant attention to the laborious parts of life. Their principal food they earn out of the ſea by their herring-fiſheries; for they diſpoſe of moſt of their valuable fiſhes to the Engliſh, and other nations, for the ſake of gain. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, ſlow diſpoſitions, both of body and mind; and yet they are iraſcible, eſpecially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues are owing to their coldneſs, with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own intereſts; for in all other reſpects they are quiet neighbours and peaceable ſubjects. Their attention to the conſtitution and independency of their country is owing to the ſame principle; for they were never known to effect a change of government but when they thought themſelves on the brink of perdition.

The valour of the Dutch becomes warm and active when they find their intereſt at ſtake; witneſs their ſea-wars with England and France. Their boors, though ſlow of underſtanding, are manageable by fair means. Their ſeamen are plain, blunt, but rough, ſurly, and an ill natured ſort of people, and appear to be inſenſible of public ſpirit, and affection for each other. Their tradeſmen in general are reckoned honeſt in their dealings, and very ſparing of their words. Smoaking tobacco is practiſed by old and young of both ſexes; and as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are ſo unſociable. A Dutchman of low rank, when drunk, is guilty of every ſpecies of brutality. The Dutch have alſo been known to exerciſe the moſt dreadful inhumanities for intereſt abroad, where they thought themſelves free from diſcovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffenſive in their own country, which exhibits but few inſtances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual tippling and drinking charged upon both ſexes, it is owing in a great meaſure to the nature of their ſoil and climate. In general all appetites and paſſions ſeem to run lower and cooler here than in moſt other countries, that of avarice excepted. Their tempers are not airy enough for joy, or any unuſual ſtrains of pleaſant humour, nor warm enough for love; ſo that the ſofter paſſions ſeem no natives of this country; and love itſelf is little better than a mechanical affection, ariſing from intereſt, conveniency or habit; it is talked of ſometimes among the young men, but as a thing they have heard of rather than felt, and as a diſcourſe that becomes them rather than affects them.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the moſt expert of any people; as to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no leſs neceſſary ſcience of preſerving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to ſpend leſs than his income, be that what it will; nor does it often enter into the heads of this ſagacious people, that the common courſe of expence ſhould equal the revenue; and

* Monſ. de Wit, at the beginning of this century, computed the people of Holland as 2,500 000, but Mr. Templeman eſtimates them only at 2,000,000, which in proportion to the populouſneſs of England, is more than ſix to one, conſidering the extent of the country. Holland is alſo reckoned to have as many ſouls as the other ſix provinces, which if true, the people of the ſeven provinces, with their appendages, muſt be very numerous.

when

when this happens, they think at leaſt they have lived that year to no purpoſe; and the report of it uſed to diſcredit a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not ſo univerſal among the Dutch as it was formerly; for a greater degree of luxury and extravagance has been introduced among them, as well as the other nations of Europe. Gaming is likewiſe practiſed by many of their faſhionable ladies, and ſome of them diſcover more propenſity to gallantry than was known here in former times. No country can vie with Holland in the number of thoſe inhabitants, whoſe lot, if not riches, is at leaſt a comfortable ſufficiency; and where fewer failures or bankruptcies occur. Hence, in the midſt of a world of taxes and contributions, ſuch as no other country does experience, they flouriſh and grow rich. From this ſyſtematic ſpirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the moſt obſtinate perſeverance, they ſucceeded in the ſtupendous works of draining their country of thoſe immenſe deluges of water that had overflowed ſo large a part of it during many ages, while at the ſame time they brought under their ſubjection and command the rivers and ſeas that ſurround them, by dykes of incredible thickneſs and ſtrength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which they rely for the protection and ſafety of their territories againſt the danger of an enemy. This they have done by covering their frontiers, and cities, with innumerable ſluices; by means of which, at the ſhorteſt notice, the moſt rapid inundations are let in, and they become in a few hours inacceſſible. From that frugality and perſeverance by which they have been ſo much characteriſed, they were enabled, though labouring under the greateſt difficulties, not only to throw off the Spaniſh yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the moſt tender parts, by ſeizing her rich galleons, and forming new eſtabliſhments in Africa and the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, at the expence of Spain, and thereby becoming, from a deſpicable province, a moſt powerful and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the riſe of their military and marine eſtabliſhments, maintaining, during their celebrated contention with Lewis XIV. and Charles II. of England, not leſs than 150,000 men, and upwards of eighty ſhips of the line. But a ſpirit of frugality being now leſs univerſal among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of Engliſh and French dreſſing and living; and their nobility and high magiſtrates, who have retired from trade, rival thoſe of any other part of Europe in their table, buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diverſions of the Dutch differ not much from thoſe of the Engliſh, who ſeemed to have borrowed from them the neatneſs of their drinking-booths, ſkittle, and other grounds, and ſmall pieces of water, which form the amuſements of the middling ranks, not to mention their hand-organs, and other muſical inventions. They are the beſt ſkaters upon the ice in the world. It is amazing to ſee the crowds in a hard froſt upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying with inconceivable velocity.

Dress.] Their dreſs formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men: and the jerkins, plain mobs, ſhort petticoats, and other oddities of the women; all which, added to the natural thickneſs and clumſineſs of their perſons, gave them a very groteſque appearance. Theſe dreſſes now prevail only among the lower ranks, and more particularly amongſt the ſeafaring people.

Religion.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Preſbyterian and Calviniſm; none but Preyſbterians are admitted to any office or poſt in the go-

vernment, excepting the army; yet all religions and ſects are tolerated, and have their reſpective meetings or aſſemblies for public worſhip, among which the Papiſts and Jews are very numerous. And, indeed, this country may be conſidered as a ſtriking inſtance of the benefits ariſing to a nation from univerſal toleration. As every man is allowed to worſhp God according to the dictates of his own conſcience, perſons of the moſt oppoſite opinions live together in the moſt perfect harmony and peace. No man in this republic has any reaſon to complain of being oppreſſed on account of his religious principles, nor any hopes, by advancing his religion, to form a party, or to break in upon the government; and therefore, in Holland, men live together as citizens of the world; their differences in opinion make none in affection, and they are aſſociated together by the common ties of humanity and bonds of peace, under the protection of the laws of the ſtate, with equal encouragement to arts and induſtry, and equal freedom of ſpeculation and enquiry.

LANGUAGE.] The natural language of the United Provinces is low Dutch, which is a corrupted dialect of the German; but the people of faſhion ſpeak Engliſh and French. The Lord's Prayer runs thus: *Onſe Vader, die in de hemelin zyn uwen naam worde geheylight: uw'koningkryk kome: uwe wille geſchiede gelyck in den hemel zoo ook op den arden, ons dagelicks broot geef ons heeden, ende vergeeft onſe ſchulden gelyk ook wy vergeeven onſe ſchuldenaaren: ende en laat ons neit in verſoeſ kingemaer vertoſt on van der booſen.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Eraſmus and Grotius, who were both natives of this country, ſtand at the head of modern learning, as Boerhaave does of medicine. Haerlem diſputes the invention of printing with the Germans, and the magiſtrates keep two copies of a book intitled *Speculum Salvationis*, printed by Koſter in 1440; and the moſt elegant editions of the claſſics came from the dutch preſſes of Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and other towns. The Dutch have excelled in controverſial divinity, which inſinuated itſelf ſo much into the ſtate, that before principles of univerſal toleration prevailed, it had almoſt proved fatal to the government; witneſs the violent diſputes about Arminianiſm, free will, predeſtination, and the like. Beſides Boerhaave, they have produced excellent writers, in all branches of medicine. Grævius and Burman ſtand at the head of their numerous commentators upon the claſſics. Nothing is more common than their Latin poems and epigrams; and latter times have produced a Van Haaren, who is poſſeſſed of ſome poetical abilities, and about the year 1747 publiſhed poems in favour of liberty, which were admired as rarities, chiefly becauſe their author was a Dutchman. In the other departments of literature, the Dutch publications are mechanical, and ariſe chiefly from their employments, in univerſities, church, or ſtate.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Leyden, Utrecht, Groningen, Harderwicke, and Franeker.

The univerſity of Leyden, which was founded in 1575, is the largeſt and moſt ancient in all the United Netherlands. Its library, beſides a number of printed books, has two thouſand oriental manuſcripts, many of which are in Arabic; and a large ſphere adapted to the Copernican ſyſtem, and moving by clock-work. Here is alſo a phyſick-garden, and an anatomical theatre.

The univerſity of Utrecht, in the province of the ſame name, was changed from a ſchool into an univerſity, in 1636; but it has not all the privileges

of

of the other univerſities, being entirely ſubject to the magiſtrates of the city. The phyſic-garden here is very curious: and for the recreation of the ſtudents, on the eaſt ſide of the city juſt without the gate, is a beautiful mall, conſiſting of ſeven ſtraight walks, two thouſand paces in length, regularly planted with limes; but that in the middle is properly the mall.

There are abundance of youth, of the principal nobility and gentry, from moſt countries in Europe, at theſe ſeminaries of literature; and as every one may live as he pleaſes, without being obliged to be profuſe in his expences, or ſo much as quitting his night-gown for either weeks or months together, foreigners of all ranks and conditions are to be ſeen here. The force of example is ſtrikingly exhibited at theſe univerſities; for frugality in expence, order, a compoſed behaviour, attention to ſtudy, and aſſiduity in all things, being the characteriſtics of the natives, ſtrangers who continue amongſt them, ſoon adopt their manners and forms of living. And though the ſtudents live as they pleaſe, and ſtudy as much or as little as they think fit, yet they are in general remarkable for their ſobriety and good manners, and the aſſiduity and ſucceſs with which they apply themſelves to their ſtudies. No oaths are impoſed, nor any religious teſts; ſo that Roman catholic parents, and even Jews, ſend their children here, with as little ſcruple as proteſtants.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICAL. } The prodigious dykes, ſome of which are ſaid to be ſeventeen ells in thickneſs, mounds, and canals conſtructed by the Dutch, to preſerve their country from thoſe dreadful inundations by which it formerly ſuffered ſo much, are ſtupendous, and hardly to be equalled. A ſtone quarry near Maeſtricht, under a hill, is worked into a kind of ſubterraneous palace, ſupported by pillars twenty feet high. The ſtadthouſe of Amſterdam is perhaps the beſt building of that kind in the world: it ſtands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inſide is equally convenient and magnificent. Several muſeums, containing antiquities and curioſities, artifical and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the univerſity of Leyden; ſuch as the effigies of a peaſant of Ruſſia, who ſwallowed a knife ten inches in length, and is ſaid to have lived eight years after it was taken out of his ſtomach: but the truth of this ſeems to be doubtful: A ſhirt made of the entrails of a man. Two Egyptian mummies, being the bodies of two princes of great antiquity. All the muſcles and tendons of the human body curiouſly ſet up, by profeſſor Stalpert Vander Weil.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. } Amſterdam, which is built upon piles of wood, is thought to contain 241,000 people, and to be, the next to London, the moſt commercial city in the world. Its conveniences for commerce, and the grandeur of its public works, are almoſt, beyond deſcription. In this, and all other cities of the United Provinces, the beauty of the canals, and walks under trees planted on their borders, are admirable; but above all, we are ſtruck with the neatneſs and cleanlineſs that is every where obſerved within doors. This city, however, labours under two great diſadvantages: bad air, and the want of freſh wholeſome water, which obliges the inhabitants to preſerve the rain water in reſervoirs. Rotterdam is next to Amſterdam for commerce and wealth; its inhabitants are computed at 56,000. The Hague, though but a village, is the ſeat of government in the United Provinces, and is celebrated for the magnificence and beauty of its buildings, the reſort of foreign

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ambaſſadors and ſtrangers of all diſtinctions who live in it, the abundance and cheapneſs of its proviſions, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants, who are computed to be about 40,000; it is no place of trade, but it has been for many years noted as an emporium of pleaſure and politics. Leyden and Utrecht are fine cities, as well as famous for their univerſities. Saardam, though a wealthy trading place, is mentioned here as the workſhop where Peter the Great of Muſcovy, in perſon, ſerved his apprenticeſhip to ſhip-buiſding, and laboured as a common handicraft. The upper part of Gelderland is ſubject to Pruſſia, and the capital city Gelder.

INLAND NAVIGATION, CANALS, AND MANNER OF TRAVELLING.] The uſual way of paſſing from town to town is by covered boats called treckſcuits, which are dragged along the canals by horſes on a ſlow uniform trot, ſo that paſſengers reach the different towns where they are to ſtop, preciſely at the appointed inſtant of time. This method of travelling, though to ſtrangers rather dull, is extremely convenient to the inhabitants, and very cheap. By means of thoſe canals, an extenſive inland commerce is not only carried on though the whole country, but as they communicate with the Rhine and other large rivers, the productions of the whole earth are conveyed at a ſmall expence into various parts of Germany, and the Auſtrian and French Flanders. A treckſcuit is divided into two different apartments, called the roof and the ruim; the firſt for gentlemen, and the other for common people, who may read, ſmoke, eat, drink, or converſe with people of various nations, dreſſes, and languages. Near Amſterdam and other large cities, a traveller is aſtoniſhed when he beholds the effects of an extenſive and flouriſhing commerce. Here the canals are lined for miles together with elegant, neat country houſes, ſeated in the midſt of gardens and pleaſure grounds intermixed with figures, buſts, ſtatues, temples, &c. to the very water's edge. Having no objects of amuſement beyond the limits of their own gardens, the families in fine weather ſpend much of their time in theſe little temples, ſmoaking, reading, or viewing the paſſengers, to whom they appear complaiſant and polite.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The commerce of the Dutch previous to their falling under the dominion of France, and the conſequent revolution of their government, might be ſaid to be almoſt unlimited; for there is ſcarcely a manufacture they did not carry on, or a ſtate to which they did not trade. In this, they were aſſiſted by the populouſneſs of their country, the cheapneſs of their labour, and above all, by the water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond all other nations. The United Provinces were the grand magazine of Europe; and goods were purchaſed here ſometimes cheaper than in the countries where they were produced. Their Eaſt India company had the monopoly of the fine ſpices for more than a hundred years, and was extremely opulent and powerful. Their capital city in India is Batavia, which is ſaid to exceed in magnificence, opulence, and commerce, all the cities of Aſia. Here the viceroys appeared in greater ſplendour than the ſtadtholder; and ſome of the Dutch ſubjects in Batavia ſcarcely acknowledged any dependence on the mother-country. They had other ſettlements in India, but none more pleaſant, healthful, or uſeful, than that on the Cape of Good Hope, the grand rendezvous of the ſhips of all nations, outward or homeward bound. Not to mention their herring and whale fiſheries, which they had carried off from the native proprietors, they excelled at home in numberleſs branches of trade; ſuch as their pottery, tobacco-pipes, delf-ware, finely refined ſalt: their oil-mills, and ſtarch manufactures; their hemp, and fine paper

paper-manufactures; their fine linen and table damaſks; their ſaw-mills for timber, either for ſhipping or houſes, in immenſe quantities; their great ſugar-baking; their vaſt woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; wax-bleaching; leather-dreſſing; the great quantity of coin and ſpecie, aſſiſted by their banks, eſpecially by that of Amſterdam; their Eaſt India trade; and their general induſtry and frugality. But ſince their connection with France, every thing has ſuffered a melancholy reverſe. The rich inhabitants have either been plundered or forced to ſeek an aſylum in foreign countries, they have been ſtripped of almoſt all their rich and invaluable poſſeſſions both in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, their trade has been ruined, and their conſequence as a commercial and maritime people totally annihilated. When Lewis XIV. invaded Holland with an army of 80,000 men, the Dutch made ſome diſpoſitions to ſhip themſelves off to their ſettlements in India; ſo great was their averſion to the French government. Had they poſſeſſed the ſame averſion to a government more powerful, and infinitely more miſchievous; had they poſſeſſed a portion of that genuine patriotiſm and love of liberty which inſpired their anceſtors they had ſtill been happy.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.] Of theſe, the capital is the Eaſt India, incorporated in 1602, by which formerly the Dutch acquired immenſe wealth, divided forty per cent. and ſometimes ſixty, about the year 1660; at preſent the dividends are much reduced; but in a hundred and twenty-four years, the proprietors on an average, one year with another, divided ſomewhat above twenty-four per-cent. But the Dutch Weſt India company, the ſame year divided no more than two and a half per-cent. This company was incorporated in 1621. The bank of Amſterdam is thought to be inexhauſtibly rich, and is under an excellent direction; it is ſaid by Sir William Temple, to contain the greateſt treaſure, either real or imaginary, that is known any where in the world. What may ſeem a paradox is, that this bank is ſo far from paying any intereſt, that the money in it is worth ſomewhat more than the current caſh is, in common payments. Mr. Anderſon ſuppoſes, that the caſh, bullion, and pawned jewels in this bank, which are kept in the vaults of the ſtadthouſe, amount to thirty-ſix (though others ſay only to thirty) millions ſterling.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] France like another deſtroying angel has ſo disjointed and broken the whole ſyſtem of Europe, and overthrown ſo many of its ancient governments, that it may ſeem prepoſterous to ſpend time in deſcribing what no longer exiſts; but as it is impoſſible to underſtand the hiſtory of Europe without a previous knowledge of its ancient governments and laws, and as the erections made upon the ruins of its former eſtabliſhments, are built upon a ſyſtem which is abſurd, and deſtructive of every principle that gives coherence and firmneſs to ſociety; the horrors of war, moreover, ſtill continuing to rage and rendering the ſtate of Europe every day more unſettled and diſaſtrous; we ſhall continue to deſcribe the conſtitutions of the different kingdoms of Europe ſuch as they were before the revolution in France, leaving it to the future hiſtorian who ſhall have the good fortune to ſee a period put to the calamities of Europe to deſcribe that ſtate of tranquility and permanent ſecurity upon which it may ultimately ſettle.

The conſtitution of the United Provinces is very intricate; for though they ſubſiſt in a common confederacy, yet each province has an internal government or conſtitution independent of the others: this government is called

called the *ſtates* of that province; and the delegates from them formed the *ſtates-general*, in whom the ſovereignty of the whole confederacy was veſted; but though a province ſhould ſend two or more delegates, yet ſuch province had no more than one voice in every reſolution; and before that reſolution could have the force of a law, it was approved of by every province, and by every city and republic in that province. This formality in times of great danger and emergency had been ſet aſide. Every reſolution of the ſtates of a particular province was carried unanimouſly.

The *council of ſtate* conſiſted likewiſe of deputies from the ſeveral provinces: but its conſtitution was different from that of the ſtates-general: it was compoſed of twelve perſons, whereof Gelderland ſent two; Holland, three; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Frieſland, one; Overyſſel, one; and Groningen, one. Theſe deputies, however, did not vote provincially, but perſonally. Their buſineſs was to prepare eſtimates, and ways and means for raiſing the revenue, as well as other matters that were to be laid before the ſtates-general. The ſtates of the provinces were ſtiled "Noble and Mighty "Lords," but thoſe of Holland, "Noble and Moſt Mighty Lords," and the ſtates-general, "High and Mighty Lords," or, "The Lords the States "general of the United Netherlands;" or, "Their High Mightineſſes." Subordinate to theſe two bodies, was the chamber of accounts, which was likewiſe compoſed of provincial deputies, who audit all public accounts. The admirality formed a ſeparate board, and the executive part of it was committed to five colleges in the three maritime provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Frieſland. In Holland the people had nothing to do either in chuſing their repreſentatives or their magiſtrates. In Amſterdam, which took the lead in all public delibrations, the magiſtracy was lodged in thirty ſix ſenators, who were choſen for life; and every vacancy among them was filled up by the ſurvivors. The ſame ſenate alſo elected the deputies to repreſent the cities in the province of Holland.

In the year 1747, the ſtadtholderſhip of the United provinces was made hereditary in the male and female repreſentatives of the family of Orange. This office in a manner ſuperſeded the conſtitution already deſcribed. The ſtatholder was preſident of the ſtates of every province and city. By this he had the moulding of the aſſembly of the ſtates-general, though he had no voice in it; in ſhort, though he had not the title, he had more real power and authority than ſome kings; for beſides the influence and revenue he derived from the ſtadtholderſhip, he had ſeveral principalities and large eſtates of his own. The preſent ſtadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, ſon of the late ſtadtholder William Charles, who married Anne, princeſs royal of Great Britain, and died 1751. After the French entered Holland, and it was evident that the whole country muſt fall under their power, he, on the 19 Janry. 1795 embarked from Schevelingen in an open boat with only three men to navigate her and arrived ſafe at Harwich.

Though Holland was a republic, yet its government was far from being of the popular kind; nor did the people enjoy that degree of liberty which might at firſt view be apprehended. It was, indeed, rather an oligarchy than a commonwealth; for the bulk of the people were not ſuffered to have the leaſt ſhare in any part of the government, not even in the choice of the deputies. It may alſo be obſerved, that very few perſons in this ſtate dared to ſpeak their real ſentiments freely; and they were generally educated in principles ſo extremely cautious, that they could not relinquiſh them when they entered more into public life.

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of juſtice in this country, every province had its tribunal, to which, except in criminal cauſes, appeals lay from the petty and county courts; and it is ſaid that juſtice was no where diſtributed with more impartiality.

REVENUES.] The government of the United Provinces proportioned their taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Thoſe taxes conſiſted of an almoſt general exciſe, a land tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; ſo that the public revenue amounted annually to about two millions and a half ſterling. The province of Holland payed nearly half of this revenue. The following is the rate at which each of the Seven United Provinces was ſaid to contribute towards the public expence:

Of every million of ducats the Province of Holland contributes	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Friesland	170,000
Utrecht	85,000
Groningen	75,000
Gelderland	70,000
Overyſſel	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducates paid by the province of Holland, the city of Amſterdam furniſhed upwards of 320,000. The taxes in theſe provinces were ſo heavy, and ſo many, that it is not without reaſon a certain author aſſerts, that the only thing which had eſcaped taxation there, was the air they breathed. But for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandiſe were exceedingly low. Holland, before the breach with England, was in a very flouriſhing condition. The immenſe ſums in the Britiſh funds have given reaſon for ſome people to imagine that Holland laboured under heavy debts; but the chief reaſon was, the ſtates only paid two and a half per cent. intereſt for money.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The number of land forces in the United Provinces in time of peace, commonly amounted to about forty thouſand; twenty-five thouſand of whom ſerved in garriſons; many of them were Scots and Swiſs; and, in time of war, they hired whole regiments of Germans. The chief command of the army was veſted in the ſtadtholder, under whom was the field-marſhal general. The marine force of the United provinces uſed to be very great, and they formerly fitted out very formidable fleets: but ſince that period their navy has been much neglected. In the preſent war ſince they made a common-cauſe with France, the capture of one fleet at the Cape of Good Hope and of another on their own coaſt by Admiral Duncan has almoſt annihilated their naval power.

ORDER OF TEUTONIC KNIGHTS.] This was one of the moſt powerful as well as ancient orders in Europe, now divided into two branches; the firſt for papiſts, and the ſecond branch for proteſtants. This branch has a houſe at Utrecht, where they tranſact their buſineſs. The nobles of Holland, if they propoſe a ſon to be a knight, enter his name in the regiſter, and pay a large ſum of money to the uſe of the poor maintained by the order, and the candidate ſucceeds in rotation, if he brings with him proof of his nobility for four generations on the father's and mother's ſide. The enſign is a croſs pattie, enamelled white, ſurmounted with another, black; above the croſs is a ball twiſted, white and black. It is worn pendent to a broad black watered riband, which is worn about the neck. The ſame croſs

croſs is embroidered on the left breaſt of the upper garment of each knight.

ARMS.] The enſigns armorial of the Seven United Provinces, or the States of Holland, are, *Or*, a lion, gules, holding with one paw a cutlaſs, and with the other a bundle of ſeven arrows cloſe bound together, in alluſion to the ſeven confederate provinces, with the following motto, *Concordia res parvæ creſcunt.*

HISTORY.] See the Auſtrian Netherlands.

William V. prince of Orange and Naſſau, Hereditary Stadtholder, Captain-general and Admiral of the Seven United Provinces, and knight of the Garter, was born March 19th, 1748, married in 1767, the princeſs Frederica Sophia Wilhelmina of Pruſſia, born in 1751; by whom he has iſſue.

1. Frederica-Louiſa-Wilhelmina, born Nov. 28, 1770; married to the hereditary Prince of Brunſwick.

2. William-Frederic, hereditary Prince, born Aug. 2. 1772; married Oct. 1. 1791, to Princeſs Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina of Pruſſia.

3. William-George-Frederic, born Feb. 15, 1774.

The Stadtholder hath one ſiſter, Wilhelmina-Carolina, born 1743, and married to the Prince of Naſſau Wielburgh.

AUSTRIAN AND FRENCH NETHERLANDS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles		Degrees.	
Length 200	between	49 and 52	North latitude
Breadth 200		2 and 7	Eaſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the United Provinces on the North; by Germany, Eaſt; by Lorrain, Champaign, and Picardy, in France, South; and by another part of Picardy, and the Engliſh ſea, Weſt.

As this country belongs to three different powers, the Auſtrians, French, and Dutch, we ſhall be more particular in diſtinguiſhing the provinces and towns belonging to each ſtate.

1. Province of BRABANT.

Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.		Sq. M.
1. Dutch Brabant	—	Boiſleduc, Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom	N.	1374
		Grave, N. E.		
		Lillo, Steenbergen.	N. W.	
2. Auſtrian Brabant	—	Bruſſels, E. lon. 4. deg. 6 min. N. lat. 50-50		1892
		Louvain, Vilvorden, Landen	in the middle.	

2. ANTWERP; and, 3. MALINES, are provinces independent of Brabant, though ſurrounded by it, and ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria.

4. Province of LIMBURG, S. E.

Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.		Sq. M.
Chief Towns	—	Limburg, E. lon, 65. N. lat. 50-37. ſub. to Auſtria.		312
		Maeſtricht, Dalem, Fauquemont, or Valkenburg	ſubj. to the Dutch.	300

5. Province of LUXEMBURG.

Auſtrian Luxemburg	—	Luxemburg, E. lon. 6-8. N. lat. 49-45.		
French Luxemburg	—	Thionville, Montmedy	S. E.	2408, 292

6. Province of NAMUR, in the middle, ſubject to Auſtria.

Chief Towns	—	Namur, on the Sambre and Maeſe, E. lon. 4-50. lat. 50-30.	425
		Charleroy on the Sambre.	

7. Province of HAINAULT.

Auſtrian Hainault	—	Mons, E. lon. 3-33. N. lat. 50-30.	in the middle	640
		Aeth, Enguien		
French Hainault	—	Valenciennes, Bouchain, Condé, Landrecy	S. W.	800

8. Province of CAMBRESIS.

Subject to France	—	Cambray, E. of Arras, E. lon. 3-15. N. lat. 50-15.	150
		Crevecour, S. of Cambray.	

9. Province of ARTOIS.

Subject to France	—	Arras, S. W. on the Scarpe, E. lon. 2-5. N. lat. 50-20.	990
		St. Omer, E. of Boulogne	
		Aire, S. of St. Omer	
		St. Venant, E. of Aire	
		Bethune, S. E. of Aire	
		Terouen, S. of S. Omer	

10. Province of FLANDERS.

Dutch Flanders	—	Sluys, N.		280
		Axel, N.		
		Hulſt, N.		
		Sas van Ghent, N.		
Auſtrian Flanders	—	Ghent, on the Scheldt, E. lon. 3-36. N. lat 51.		1905
		Bruges, Oſtend, Newport	N. W. near the ſea.	
		Oudenard on the Scheldt.		
		Courtray, Dixmude	on the Lis	
		Ypres, N. of Liſle		
		Tournay on the Scheldt		
		Menin on the Lis		

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
French Flanders	Liſle, W. of Tournay Dunkirk on the coaſt E. of Calais Douay, W. of Arras Mardike, W. of Dunkirk St. Amand, N. of Valenciennes Gravelin, E. of Calais.	760

AIR SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of Brabant, and upon the coaſt of Flanders, is bad; that in the interior parts is more healthful, and the ſeaſons more ſettled, both in winter and ſummer, than they are in England. The ſoil and its produce are rich, eſpecially in corn and fruits. They have abundance of paſture; and Flanders itſelf has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and ſometimes of England. The moſt barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. Upon the whole, the Auſtrian Netherlands, by the culture, commerce, and induſtry of the inhabitants, was formerly the richeſt and moſt beautiful ſpot in Europe, whether we regard the variety of its manufactures, the magnificence and riches of its cities, the pleaſantneſs of its roads and villages, or the fertility of its land. If it has fallen off in later times, it is owing partly to the neglect of its government, but chiefly to its vicinity to England and Holland; but it is ſtill a moſt deſirable and agreeable country. There are few or no mountains in the Netherlands: Flanders is a flat country, ſcarcely a ſingle hill in it. Brabant, and the reſt of the provinces, conſiſt of little hills and vallies, woods, incloſed grounds, and Campaign fields.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] The chief rivers are the Maeſe Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Nethe, Geet, Sanne, Ruppel Scheldt, Lis Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The principal canals are thoſe of Bruſſels, Ghent and Oſtend.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Mines of iron, copper, lead and brimſtone, are found in Luxemburg, and Limburg, as are ſome marble quarries; and in the province of Namur there are coal-pits, and a ſpecies of bituminous fat earth proper for fuel, with great plenty of foſſile nitre.

INHABITANTS, POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Flemings (for ſo the inhabitants of Flanders and the Auſtrian Low Countries are generally called) are thought to be a heavy blunt, honeſt people; but their manners are ſomewhat indelicate. Formerly they were known to fight deſperately in defence of their country; at preſent they make no great figure. The Auſtrian Netherlands are extremely populous; but authors differ as to their numbers. Perhaps we may fix them at a medium at a million and a half. They are ignorant, and fond of religious exhibitions and pageants. Their other diverſions are the ſame with thoſe of the peaſants of the neighbouring countries.

DRESS AND LANGUAGE.] The inhabitants of the French Flanders are mere French men and women in both theſe particulars. The Flemings, on the frontiers of Holland, dreſs like the Dutch boors, and their language is the ſame; but the better ſort of the people ſpeak French, and dreſs in the ſame taſte.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion here is the Roman catholic but proteſtants, and other ſects, are not moleſted.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are Cambray, Malines or Mechlin: the biſhoprics, Ghent, Bruges, Antwerp, Arras Ypres, Tournay, St. Omer, Namur, and Ruremonde.

LEARN

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND ARTISTS.] The societies of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many comfortable settlements. Works of theology, and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. Fiamingo, or the Flemings models for heads, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed tapestry-weaving to themselves.

UNIVERSITIES.] Louvain, Douay, Tournay, and St. Omer. The first was founded in 1426, by John IV. duke of Brabant, and enjoys great privileges. By a grant of pope Sixtus IV. this university has the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands, which right they enjoy, except in Holland.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Some Roman monuments of temples and other buildings are to be found in these provinces. Many curious bells, churches, and the like, ancient and modern, are also found here; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, seen through all their cities, give evidences of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals of Antoninus Pius, Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

CITIES.] This article has employed several large volumes published by different authors, but in times when the Austrian Netherlands were far more flourishing than now. The walls of Ghent, formerly the capital of Flanders, and celebrated for its linen and woollen manufactures, contained the circuit of ten miles; but now unoccupied, and great part of it in a manner a void. Bruges, formerly so noted for its trade and manufactures, but above all for its fine canals, is now dwindled to an inconsiderable place. Ostend is a tolerable convenient harbour for traders; and soon after the last rupture between Great Britain and Holland, became more opulent and populous. In 1781 it was visited by the emperor, who granted to it many privileges and franchises, and the free exercise of the protestant religion. As to Ypres, it is only a strong garrison town. The same may be said of Charleroy and Namur.

Louvain, the capital of the Austrian Brabant, instead of its flourishing manufactures and places of trade, now contains pretty gardens, walks, and arbours. Brussels retains somewhat of its ancient manufactures; and being the residence of the governor or viceroy of the Austrian Netherlands, it is a populous, lively place. Antwerp, once the emporium of the European continent, is now reduced to be a tapestry and thread lace-shop, with the houses of some bankers, jewellers, and painters adjoining. One of the first exploits of the Dutch, soon after they threw off the Spanish yoke, was to ruin at once the commerce of Antwerp, by sinking vessels, loaded with stone, in the mouth of the Scheldt; thus shutting up the entrance of that river to ships of large burden. This was the more cruel, as the people of Antwerp had been their friends and fellow sufferers in the cause of liberty, but they foresaw that the prosperity of their own commerce was at stake.

It may be observed here, that every gentleman's house is a castle or *chateau*; and that there are more strong towns in the Netherlands than in all the rest of Europe; but since the decline of their trade, by the rise of the English and Dutch, these towns are considerably diminished in size, and whole streets, particularly in Antwerp, are in appearance uninhabited. In the

the Netherlands, provisions are extremely good and cheap. A stranger may dine in Brussels, on seven or eight dishes of meat, for less than a shilling English. Travelling is safe, reasonable and delightful in this luxurious country. The roads are generally a broad causeway and run for some miles in a straight line, till they terminate with the view of some noble buildings. At Cassel, in the French Netherlands, may be seen thirty two towns, itself being on a hill.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief manufactures of the French and Austrian Netherlands, are their beautiful linens and laces; in which, notwithstanding the boasted improvements of their neighbours, they are yet unrivalled; particularly in that species called cambrics, from Cambray, the chief place of its manufacture. These manufactures form the principal article of their commerce.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Austrian Netherlands are still considered as a circle of the empire, of which the Archducal house, as being sovereign of the whole, is the sole director and summoning prince. This circle contributes its share to the imposts of the empire, and sends an envoy to the diet, but is not subject to the judicatories of the empire. It is under a governor general, appointed by the court of Vienna, who is at present the archduchess Christiana, sister to the late emperor Joseph II. and her husband the duke of Saxe Teschen. The face of an assembly, or parliament, for each province, is still kept up, and consists of the clergy, nobility, and deputies of towns, who meet at Brussels. Each province claims particular privileges, but they are of very little effect; and the governor seldom or never finds any resistance to the will of his court. Every province has a particular governor, subject to the regent: and causes are here decided according to the civil and canon law.

After what we have already premised, *page*, 520. it may be reckoned almost needless to remind the reader that this description of the constitution and government of the Austrian Netherlands is only applicable to their situation when subject to the emperor, at present they are annexed to France, and make a part of her territories.

REVENUES.] These rise from the demesne lands and customs: but so much is the trade of the Austrian Flanders now reduced, that they are said not to defray the expence of their government; but by the late reduction of the garrison, this is now altered. The French Netherlands bring in a considerable revenue to the nation.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The troops maintained here by the emperor are chiefly employed in the frontier garrisons. Though, by the barrier treaty, the Austrians were obliged to maintain three fifths of those garrisons, and the Dutch two; yet both of them were miserably deficient in their quotas, the whole requiring at least 30,000 men, and in time of war above 10,000 more. But the emperor Joseph II. demolished the fortifications of most of the places, and rendered the garrisons useless.

ARMS.] The arms of Flanders are, or, a lion sable, langued gules.

HISTORY.] The seventeen provinces, and that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine, was called Belgica Gallia by the Romans. About a century before the Christian æra, the Battæ removed from Hesse to the marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maese. They gave the name of Batavia to their new country. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great respect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military services. Upon the decline of that empire, the Goths, and other northern people, possessed

ſeſſed themſelves of theſe provinces firſt, as they paſſed through them in their way to France, and other parts of the Roman empire; and afterwards being erected into ſmall governments, the heads of which were deſpotic within their own dominions. Batavia and Holland became independent on Germany, to which it had been united under one of the grandſons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century, when the ſupreme authority was lodged in the three united powers, of a Count, the Nobles, and the Towns. At laſt they were ſwallowed up by the houſe of Burgundy, anno, 1433.

The emperor Charles V. the heir of that family, transferred them, in the year 1477, to the houſe of Auſtria, and ranked them as part of the empire, under the title of the Circle of Burgundy. The tyranny of his ſon Philip II. who ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, made the inhabitants attempt to throw off his yoke, which occaſioned a general inſurrection. The counts Hoorn, and Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the ſame time in the Netherlands, his diſciples were forced by perſecution to join the malecontents. Whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquiſition, which from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the "Council of blood," in order to ſuppreſs them; and many thouſands were put to death by that court, beſides thoſe that periſhed by the ſword. Count Hoorn and count Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, whom they elected to be their Stadtholder, retiring into Holland, that and the adjacent provinces entered into treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in the year 1579. And though theſe revolters at firſt were thought ſo deſpicable as to be termed *Beggars* by their tyrants, their perſeverance and courage were ſuch, under the prince of Orange, and the aſſiſtance afforded them by queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain to declare them a free people, in the year 1609; and afterwards they were acknowledged by all Europe to be an independent ſtate, under the title of THE UNITED PROVINCES. By their ſea wars with England, under the Commonwealth, Cromwell, and Charles II. they juſtly acquired the reputation of a formidable naval power. When the houſe of Auſtria, which for ſome ages ruled over Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, with which they afterwards continued to carry on bloody wars, was become no longer formidable; and when the public jealouſy was directed againſt that of Bourbon, which was favoured by the government of Holland, who had diſpoſſeſſed the prince of Orange of the ſtadtholderſhip; the ſpirit of the people was ſuch, that they revived it in the perſon of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of queen Anne, they were principals in the grand confederacy againſt Lewis XIV. king of France.

Their conduct towards England in the wars of 1742 and 1756 hath been diſcuſſed in the hiſtory of that country, as alſo the occurences which led to a rupture between them and the Engliſh in the year 1780. As it was urged, that they refuſed to fulfil the treaties which ſubſiſted between them and Great Britain, ſo all the treaties which bound Great Britain to them were declared null and void, as if none had ever exiſted. By the war, their trade ſuffered conſiderably, but Negapatnam, in the Eaſt Indies, is the only place not reſtored to them by the late peace.

Probably, to their ſeparation from Great Britain, may be attributed the late differences between the States General and the late emperor Joſeph II. who, from the exhauſted ſtate of ſeveral of the European powers, ſeemed to have a favourable opportunity of accompliſhing his ambitious deſigns. In the year 1781, he had been allowed to demoliſh the Dutch barrier in his do-

dominions, for which they had contended ſo deſperately in the time of queen Anne, and he now ſeemed willing to encroach upon their territories. A conference concerning the boundaries of their reſpective nations was propoſed to the ſtates; but before this could take place, he began to commit ſome acts of hoſtility, and extend his dominions a little by way of preliminary. Two ſmall forts, St. Donat, and St. Paul, were ſeized upon, as well as ſome part of the marſhes in the neighbourhood of Sluys. A formal demand was then made of a free navigation beyond fort Lillo, as far as the land of Saftingen, ſome miles up the Scheldt; and it was inſiſted as a preliminary to the enſuing conferences, that the guard-ſhip, which had uſually been ſtationed at fort Lillo ſhould be immediately withdrawn. A liſt of his demands was delivered in to the plenipotentiaries at Bruſſels on the fourth of May 1784: of theſe the moſt important ſeems to have been, the claim upon the town of Maeſtricht and the territory of Outre Meuſe, a country disjoined from the reſt of the Dutch poſſeſſions on the ſide of Flanders.

The claims of the emperor were little reliſhed on the part of the republic, and the ſtates were extremely urgent to obtain the mediation of the court of Verſailles. In his ultimatum which was delivered on the 23d. of Auguſt, under the pretence of amity and a deſire of conciliating all differences, he offered to reliuquiſh his claim upon Maeſtricht, and to moderate his other requiſitions, in conſequence of the free and unlimited navigation of the Scheldt in both its branches to the ſea, expreſſing at the ſame time his confidence, that the ſtates would with eagerneſs, accept ſo decided a mark of his good will; and that he had therefore thought proper to regard the Scheldt as open, and to declare its navigation free from the date of this paper, and finally he further declared that ſhould the imperial flag in the execution of theſe views, ſuffer any inſult, he would be under the neceſſity of regarding ſuch inſult as an act of direct hoſtility, and a formal declaration of war on the part of the republic.

The anſwer of the Dutch to this memorial of the Emperor was deciſive and peremptory. They regarded the reſtrained navigation of the Scheldt as the moſt valuable of their poſſeſſions; they declared it was a pretenſion from which they could never depart; and they proteſted againſt any ſtep they might be obliged to take in vindication of their rights, being conſtrued as a violation of thoſe pacific diſpoſitions they wiſhed always to preſerve towards his imperial majeſty. The Emperor though not haſty in the execution of his deſign, appeared notwithſtanding to be reſolute. Early in October a ſmall veſſel ſailed from Antwerp; on arriving before Lillo and Saftingen, it was ſtopped by the Dutch naval officer, and after preſſing and amicable ſolicitations were in vain made uſe of to prevail on the commander to deſiſt from his purpoſe, he diſcharged his whole broad ſide into the imperial veſſel, in conſequence of which ſhe ſurrendered. A few days after this tranſaction, another Auſtrian veſſel advanced on the ſide of the ſea, and was detained by the Dutch admiral at the mouth of the Scheldt. This conduct on the part of the Dutch was perhaps unexpected by the Emperor, but having advanced ſo far, it was impoſſible that he ſhould immediately retreat. He recalled his ambaſſador from the Hague, he ordered his plenipotentiary at Bruſſels to break up the conferences, and he wrote circular letters to the courts of Europe ſtating the unjuſtifiable and hoſtile proceedings of the united provinces. The Dutch were no leſs active in their own vindication; their circular letter is dated on the third, as the Auſtrian is dated on the ſecond of November. They inſiſt upon their rights as unqueſtionable and their proceedings as moderate beyond all example, and they farther declare

that ſo far from meriting to be conſidered as a power that had acted offenſively, they ſtill perſiſted in their peaceable diſpoſitions, but if unfortunately ſuch diſpoſitions can have no influence on the mind of his Imperial Majeſty, though the States ſtill preſerved ſome hopes to the contrary, the Republic will find itſelf in the diſagreeable neceſſity of having recourſe to ſuch means as the rights of nature and nations entitled them to; hoping that Divine Providence, and the applauding voice of the neutral powers, will aſſiſt in maintaining the Republic in the juſt defence of its deareſt rights."

Such conduct ſeemed to prognoſticate an immediate war, and we may almoſt venture to ſay that hoſtilities commenced on the ſeventh of November, when the garriſons of Lillo, Frederic-Henry and Cruckſhank, fearing a ſudden attack on the part of the Auſtrians, cut their dykes, opened their ſluices and inundated the flat country for many miles around the Scheldt, and great preparations were made on both ſides for opening the campaign early next ſpring; but by the mediation of France and Ruſſia, Europe was prevented from being again involved in the calamities and horrors of war, from which ſhe had but lately been freed.

During the progreſs of theſe contentions with the emperor, the united States were harraſſed and torn with diſſentions and animoſities among themſelves. The late war with Great Britain had originally been brought on by the French or patriotic party in Holland, as it was called, and had never been acceptable to the maſs of the people; the conduct of the war had moreover been ſpiritleſs, injudicious and unſucceſsful; all their ſettlements in the Weſt Indies fell into the hands of the Britiſh without reſiſtance; their ſhips were captured and their trade ruined; the patriotic party were induſtrious to throw the blame of all their miſcarriages on the Stadtholder, and they ſucceeded in raiſing a violent ſpirit of animoſity againſt the Houſe of Orange.

The Stadtholder was accuſed of not having exerted the force with which he was entruſted by the ſtate, with that energy, which he ought to have done, and which would have been moſt effectual for counteracting the deſigns, and fruſtrating the efforts of the enemy; that the naval department had been ſhamefully neglected; its force misapplied and withheld; and that to theſe cauſes alone was to be imputed the ruin of their commerce and the loſs of their colonies. The Stadtholder's known averſeneſs to any political connection with France, and above all to entering into any treaty with, or affording any ſupport to the American colonies, then in open rebellion againſt the mother country, afforded ſuch a plauſible foundation for theſe accuſations as ſufficiently anſwered the purpoſes of the party. The prince repreſented to his adverſaries that the weak and bad condition of their navy had rendered it totally incapable of performing the ſervices expected from it; and that the blame of this negligence and the conſequent misfortunes reſted ſolely with the ſtates themſelves, to whom he had often remonſtrated for their inattention to this department, frequently warned them, ſince they were purſuing meaſures tending to a war, to be in due preparation to withſtand its conſequences; but theſe repreſentations were all in vain, the ferment was ſuch as neither reaſon nor conciliatory meaſures could allay. On the other hand the monarchical party accuſed the patriots of having involved their country in a war, when they were totally unprepared for it.

During theſe mutual recriminations the republic was torn to pieces and convulſed in all its parts and members. Nothing could be more deplorable than the face of tumult, riot and confuſion which was every where exhibited.

The

The Stadtholder was treated with public indignity and inſult; the acting committee of the States of Holland iſſued a decree by which they deprived him of his government and command, forbidding the troops to obey his orders in any manner, or even to pay him the cuſtomary military honours; theſe with other marks of diſgrace and degradation put upon the firſt magiſtrate of the republic ſeemed to announce their near approach to ſome violent criſis. This however was not ſilently acquieſced in by the ſtadtholder. He tranſmitted a ſtrong letter to the ſtates of Holland, in which, after taking notice that he could conſider this reſolution as nothing leſs than a violent outrage upon his dignity and authority, and an uſurpation upon a right which did not admit of being doubted; after obſerving the defect of unanimity among themſelves, and the cloſeneſs of the diviſion upon which a queſtion of ſuch importance was carried; he denies the legality of any one member of the confederacy depriving him of rights which had been unanimouſly conferred upon him by the whole nation. While the tide of affairs ſeemed to be ſetting ſo ſtrong againſt the Stadtholder, his brother in law, the new king of Pruſſia was unceaſing in his endeavours to promote every meaſure that ſeemed to have the moſt diſtant tendency to effect a reconciliation. The offer of his joint mediation with that of Great Britain having been rejected by the adverſe party, he propoſed that France along with himſelf ſhould undertake the kind office, which being agreed to, the negociation commenced, but under ſuch doubtful and indeed inauſpicious circumſtances, as gave but little room to hope for a favourable termination; the event ſoon juſtified theſe fears; the correſpondence betwixt Nimeguen, where the Stadtholder kept his court, and the Hague, was continued for ſome weeks; but was at laſt abruptly broken off by M. de Rayneval, the repreſentative of the French king, who ſet out on his return to Paris about the middle of January 1787. The failure of this negociation, was followed by the moſt bitter recriminations on both ſides; but our limits will not permit us to enter into a particular account of the various movements of the different parties.

Towards the end of the year 1786 the republican cauſe ſuſtained almoſt a mortal blow from the defection of the ſenate of Amſterdam. Soon after they experienced a ſhock, no leſs important in the revolution of ſentiment and conduct of the ſtates of Holland. The city of Utrecht was the centre and ſpring of democratic principles, there the ancient government was entirely overthrown, and the democratical eſtabliſhed; and things were arrived at ſuch a criſis as to preclude all hope of ſucceſs from negociation; the provincial ſtates therefore reſolved to proceed to the laſt extremities to reſtore the government of their turbulent capital; they determined therefore to poſſeſs themſelves of Vreeſwick near Utrecht, a poſt of the utmoſt importance to both parties. Here a ſkirmiſh took place which terminated in favour of the Burghers. Soon after a violent commotion took place in the city of Amſterdam betwixt the adverſe parties, the ſcenes of rapine and deſtruction which enſued, filled the peaceable inhabitants with confuſion and terror.

This was followed by the revolt of moſt of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the ſtadtholder; but notwithſtanding theſe advantages the diſputes were ſtill carried on with extreme violence. Our limits do not permit us to enter in a particular deſcription of all the unimportant hoſtilities which took place; we ſhall therefore only add that on the 13th. Sept. 1787, a Pruſſian army entered the province of Guelderland under the command of the duke of Brunſwick, the progreſs of this army was rapid; it ſpread itſelf

on all ſides and every thing fell before it; the fortified towns and garriſons ſurrendered without reſiſtance, and laſt of all Amſterdam opened its gates to the conquerors. The aſſembly of the ſtates at the Hague, at which all the deputies attended, except thoſe of Amſterdam, reſtored the ſtadtholder to all thoſe offices and rights from which he had been ſuſpended. The deputies from Amſterdam after the ſurrender of that city joined the aſſembly of the ſtates of Holland, and aſſented to all the reſolutions that had been paſſed during their abſence; and thus the differences which threatened ſuch dreadful conſequences were happily terminated and tranquillity completely reſtored. Treaties of defenſive alliance were negociated between Holland and Great Britain, and Holland and Pruſſia; by which all attempts to diſturb the domeſtic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, appeared at that time to be effectually guarded by the cloſe union that ſubſiſted between thoſe two important powers.

Nothing very remarkable occurs in the hiſtory of the United Provinces till the breaking out of the French revolution which has been attended with circumſtances very important to that nation.

After the French armies had over-run the Netherlands and perſiſted in opening the navigation of the Scheldt, contrary to exiſting treaties, a correſpondence on this ſubject took place betwixt the courts of Great Britain and France, which iſſued in the latter country declaring war againſt Great Britain and the United Provinces. We have given in our hiſtories of France and England, ſuch a detail of the operations of the French and allied armies as our limits permitted us, and to theſe we refer our readers, only obſerving that the unparalleled ſucceſſes of the French armies and the deplorable misfortunes attending the allies enabled them in the winter of 1794 to enter and make themſelves maſters of Holland, which tho' allowed to retain the ſhadow of an independent government, can now only be conſidered as an appendage to France. By the retreat of the allies the moſt important places in the United Provinces were left open to the conquerors. Utrecht, Rotterdam, and Dort ſucceſſively ſurrendered to the enemy, and on the 20th of January, Pichegru entered Amſterdam, at the head of 5000 men. The ancient government was immediately overturned and a new one eſtabliſhed after the model and under the protection of France, and ſoon after they declared war againſt their old friends; they have however dearly paid for that total want of ſpirit and principle which ſuffered them ignominiouſly to bow their necks under the yoke of an inſulting and deſolating foe; their country has been impoveriſhed by requiſitions, the new name for plunder, their trade has been ruined, their navy deſtroyed and their colonies loſt; ſuch are the happy effects of French principles and French connections. Before taking leave of this ſubject we cannot help dropping a tear over the melancholy fate of this once induſtrious brave and virtuous people, who by a long and noble ſtruggle, having reſcued themſelves from the galling fetters of a barbarous and unfeeling tyrant, have now tamely ſubmitted themſelves to a ſlavery the moſt ignominious and degrading.

After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained poſſeſſed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low COUNTRIES, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in the year 1706. After which Bruſſels, the capital, and great part of theſe provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. afterwards emperor of Germany, for their ſove-

reign

reign; and his daughter, the late empreſs-queen, remained poſſeſſed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and would have ſtill poſſeſſed them, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the Engliſh, in favour of the houſe of Auſtria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be ſeen in the preceeding general table of diviſions.

It was not long after the ſettlement of the diſturbances in Holland, that an inſurrection broke out in the provinces of the Netherlands, belonging to the emperor. The quarrel originated, like thoſe in other countries, about the prerogatives aſſumed by the emperor, and which were more extenſive than his ſubjects were willing to ſubmit to; and the emperor making uſe of force to aſſert his claims, the diſcontented Brabanters ſought refuge in the territories of the United Provinces.

On the part of his imperial majeſty, the inſurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was iſſued by count Trautmanſdorff, governor of Bruſſels, intimating, that no quarter ſhould be given them, and that the villages, in which they concealed themſelves ſhould be ſet on fire. A general Dalton marched with 1000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become maſter of them by aſſault, and would put every ſoul he found in them to the ſword.

In oppoſition to this ſanguinary proclamation, the patriots iſſued a manifeſto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority by reaſon of his various oppreſſions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, and infringing the conſtitution. Baniſhment was threatened to ſuch as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country, though ſtrict orders were given that no crowds or mobs ſhould be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing ſo, ſhould be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogſtraten, in Brabant, October the 24th, 1789. Almoſt every town in Auſtrian Flanders ſhewed its determination to oppoſe the emperor, and the moſt enthuſiaſtic attachment to military affairs diſplayed itſelf in all ranks of men. Even the eccleſiaſtics manifeſted their valour on this occaſion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was ſoon raiſed, which after ſome ſucceſsful ſkirmiſhes, made themſelves maſters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Oſtend: ſo that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Bruſſels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loſs of 1000 men, beſides women and children. It reflects indelible diſgrace on the imperial character, as well as on the commanders of the troops, that they committed the moſt dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. By ſuch barbarous conduct they enſured ſucceſs to their adverſaries; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders, and Maes, almoſt inſtantly declared in their favour. They publiſhed a memorial for their juſtification, in which they gave, as reaſons for their conduct, the many oppreſſive edicts with which they had been harraſſed ſince the death of the empreſs-queen; the unwarrantable extenſion of the imperial prerogatives, contrary to his coronation oath, and which could not be done without perjury on his part; the violence committed on his ſubjects by forcibly entering their houſes at midnight, and ſending them priſoners to Vienna, to periſh in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly maſſacred his ſubjects; he had conſigned towns and villages,

villages to the flames, and entered into a design of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. These things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and easily impose upon weak minds, but "the natural courage of a nation roused by repeated injuries, and animated by despair, would rise superior to those last efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reasons they declared themselves INDEPENDENT, *and for ever released from the house of* AUSTRIA.

The emperor now perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, published proclamations of indemnity, &c. but they were treated with the utmost contempt. The patriots made the most rapid conquests, insomuch, that before the end of the year they were masters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg.

Notwithstanding they thus appeared for ever separated from the house of Austria, yet the death of Joseph, happening soon after, produced such a change in the conduct of government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the situation of affairs; and the mild and pacific disposition of Leopold, who succeeded his brother, the conciliating measures he adopted, together with the mediation of Great Britain, Prussia, and Holland, made a material alteration in the affairs of these provinces; and a convention, which was signed at Reichenbach on the 27th of July 1790, by the above mentioned high contracting powers, had for its object the re-establishment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his imperial majesty.

Their majesties of Great Britain and Prussia, and the states-general of Holland, became in the most solemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his successors for the sovereignty of the Belgic Provinces, now re-united under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties within two months from the date of signing, which was executed at the Hague on the 10th of December, 1790.

The Netherlands have since become the scene of that desolating war which has been kindled in the world, and have been over-run by the numerous armies of France, but as all these events have been detailed in the history of that country, it is unnecessary to trouble the reader with them in this place.

GERMANY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	600	between	5 and 19 East long.		181,631
Breadth	520		45 and 55 North lat.		

GERMANY and BOHEMIA contain 191, 573 square miles, with 135 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] THE empire of Germany, properly so called, is bounded by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the

the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the east; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the West, from which it is separated by the Rhine, Moselle, and the Maese.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The divisions of Germany, as laid down even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. I shall therefore adhere to those that are most generally received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or Southern, and the Lower, or Northern. The emperor Maximilian, predecessor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V. divided it into ten great circles; and the division was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourselves to nine of those divisions, as they now subsist.

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south.

The northern circles — —	Upper Saxony Lower Saxony Westphalia
The circles in the middle — —	Upper Rhine Lower Rhine Franconia
The southern circles — —	Austria Bavaria Swabia

1. UPPER SAXONY CIRCLE.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Pomerania in the North.	Pruss. Pomerania, N. E.	Stettin. E. l. 14. 50 N. lat. 53-30.	4820
	Swed. Pomer. N. W.	Stralsund	2991
Brandenburg in the middle, sub. to its own elector the K. of Prussia.	Altmark, west Middlemark Newmark, east.	Stendel Berlin, Potsdam Francf. Custrin	10901
Saxony, Proper, in the south, sub. to its own elector.	Duchy of Saxony, N. Lusatia marq. east. Misnia, marq. south.	Wirtenberg Bautzen, Gorlitz Dresf. E. lon. 13. 36. N. lat. 52. Meissen	7500
Thuringia, langr. west — — —		Erfut	3620
The duchies of—	Saxe Meinungen Saxe Zeitz Saxe Altenb. S. E. Saxe Weimar, W. Saxe Gotha, W. Saxe Eisn. S. W. Saxe Saalfeldt	Meinungen Zeitz Altenburg Weimar Gotha Eisnach Saalfeld	240 1500

Subject to their own dukes.

The

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
The counties of—	Schwartf. W. } Subject to Belchin. N. } their respec- Mansfel. N. } tive counts.	Schwartfburg Belchingen Mansfeldt.	96
The duchies of—	Hall, mid. fub. to Pruf. Saxe Naumburg, fubject to its own duke.	Hall Naumburg	210
The counties of—	Stolberg, north-weft Hohenftein, weft.	Stolberg Northhaufen	
Principality of—	Anhalt north —	Deffau, Zerbft Bernberg Kothen	966
Bifhopric of —	Saxe Hall, weft	Hall	
	Voigtland, fouth, fubject to the elector of Saxony	Plawen	696
Duchy of —	Merfburgh, middle, fubject to the elector of Saxony	Merfburg	336

2. Lower SAXONY Circle.

Holftein D. north of the Elbe.	Holftein Proper, N. Ditmarfh, weft Stormaria, fouth Hamburgh, a fovereign ftate Wagerland, eaft	Partly fub. to Denmark, and partly to the Duke of Holftein Gottorp	Kiel, fub. to Holftein Gottorp. Meldorp fubject to Glucftat Denm. Hamburg, E. l. 10-35. N. L. 54. an imperial city Lubec, an imperial city.	1850
Lauenburg Duchy, north of the Elbe, fubject to Hanover —			Lauenburg	450
Subject to the duke of Brunfwic Wolfenbuttle.	D. Brunfwick Proper. D. Wolfenbuttle C. Rheinftein, fouth C. Blackenburg	middle	Brun. E. L. 10. 30. N. Lat. 52. 30 Wolfenbuttle Rheinftein Blackenburg	860
Subject to the elector of Hanover. K. of G. Britain	D. Calenberg D. Grubenhagen Gottingen		Hanover Grubenhagen Gottinghen	8024
Luneburg D. fub. to Hanover.	D. of Luneburg proper D. Zell		Luneburg Zell, E. lon. 10 N. lat. 52-52.	
Bremen D. and Verden D. fub. to Hanover, north —			Bremen, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 53-30, an imperial city Verden	2040 693
Mecklenburg D.	D. Schwerin, north, fubject to its duke D. Guftrow, north, fubject to its duke		Schwerin, E. lon. 11-30-N. lat. 54. Guftrow.	4400
Hilderfheim bifhoprick, in the middle, fubject to its bifhop — —			Hilderfheim, an imperial city.	1302
Magdeburg dutchy, king of Pruffia. — —	fouth-eaft, fubject to the		Magdeburg,	1535
Halberftadt dutchy,	fubject to Pruffia, fouth-eaft		Halberftadt.	450

3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
North Diviſion.	Embden C. or East Frieſ. ſub. to the king of Pruſſia		Embden, an imperial city	720
	Oldenburg, C.	ſub. to the K. of Den.	Oldenburg	
	Delmenhurſt		Delmenhurſt	
	Hoye	ſubject to Hanover	Hoye	624
	Diepholt		Diepholt	220
Weſtern Diviſion.	Munſter B, ſub. to its biſhop		Munſter, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52.	3600
	Paderborn B. ſub. to its bp.		Paderborn	800
	Oſnaburg, B. ſub to its bp.		Oſnaburg	870
	Lippe C. ſub. to its count.		Lippe, Pyrmont	400
	Minden D.	ſub. to Pru.	Minden	595
	Ravenſberg C.		Ravenſberg	525
	Weſtphalia D. ſub. to the elector of Cologn		Arenſburg	1444
	Tecklenb. C.	ſub. to their reſpective counts.	Tecklenburg	840
	Ritberg C.		Ritberg	120
	Schawenb. C.		Schawenburg	
Middle Diviſion.	Cleves D. ſub. to the king of Pruſſia		Cleves. E. lon. 5-36 N. lat. 51-40.	630
	Berg. D.	ſub. to the elector Palatine.	Duſſeldorf	
	Juliers D.		Juliers, Aix	1300
	Mark C. ſub. to Pruſſia		Ham	980
	Liege B. ſub. to its own bp.		Liege, E. lon. 5-56 N. lat. 50-40	1942
			Huy	
	Benth. C. ſub. to Hanover		Bentheim	418
	Steinfort C. ſub. to its count		Steinfort	114

4. UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

Heſſe	Heſſe Caſſel, landg. N.		Caſſel, E. lon. 9-20 N. lat. 51-20	3500
	Heſſe Marpurgh, landg. N.		Marpurgh	
	Heſſe Darmſtadt, landg.		Darmſtadt	396

Each of the above ſubdiviſions are ſubject to their reſpective landgraves.

	Heſſe Homberg		Homberg	
	Heſſe Rhinefeldt		Rhinefeldt	180
	Wonfield		Wonfield	
Counties in the Wetteraw ſouth	Naſſau Dillenburg	Eaſt county ſubject to its own count of the houſe of Naſſau.	Dillenburg	1200
	Naſſau Diets		Diets	
	Naſſau Hadamar		Hadamar	
	Naſſau Kerberg		Kerberg	
	Naſſau Siegen		Siegen	
	Naſſau Idſtein		Idſtein	
	Naſſau Weilburg		Weilburg	
	Naſſau Wiſbaden		Wiſbaden	
	Naſſau Bielſteid		Bielſteid	
	Naſſau Otweiler		Otweiler	
	Naſſau Uſingen		Uſingen	
Territory of Frankfort, a ſovereign ſtate			Frankfort on the Maine, E. lon. 8-30 N. lat. 50-10. an imperial city	120

Divisions		Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
County of Erpach, sub. to its own count		Erpach east.	230
Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state		Spire on the Rhine, an imperial city.	245
Duchy of Zuebruggen, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts		Deuxponts in the Palat.	700
County of Catzenelbogen, sub. to Hesse Cassel,		Catzenelbogen on the Lhon.	
Counties of	Waldec, sub. to its own count	Waldeck	368
	Solms, sub. to its own count	Solms	
	Hanau, sub. to Hesse Cassel	Hanau	432
	Isenburg, sub to its own C.	Isneburg	
	Sayn	Sayn	
	Wied	Wied	
	Witgenstein	Witgenstein	
	Hatzfield	Hatzfield	
	Westerburg	Westerburg	
Abbey of Fulda, subject to its abbot	—	Fulda	621
Hirschfeld, subject to Hesse Cassel	—	Hirschfeld	

5. Lower RHINE Circle.

Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, sub. to the Elector Palatine.		Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20. Philipsburgh, Manheim and Frankendal on the Rhine	2618.
Archbishoprics and Electorates of	Cologn	Cologne, on the Rhine, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat. 50-50	
		Bonn, on the Rhine.	1964
	Mentz	Mentz, on the Rhine, Aschaffenb. on the Maine.	1405
	Triers	Triers, on the Moselle.	1765
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state		Worms on the Rhine, an imperial city.	154
Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke.		Simmeren.	
Counties of	Rhinegravestein	Rhinegravestein	
	Meurs, subject to Prussia	Meurs	
	Veldentz, subject to the Elector Palatine	Velentz	
	Spanheim	Creutznach	
	Leyningen	Leyningen	

6. FRANCONIA Circle.

Bishoprics of	Wurtsburgh, W.	Subject to their resp. bishops.	Wursburg	1645
	Bamberg, N.		Bamberg	1700
	Aichstat, S.		Aichstat	513
Marquisates of	Cullenback, north-east	Sub. to their respective margraves.	Cullenback	900
	Anspach, S.		Anspach	1000

Subdivisions.	Chief Towns	
Principality of Henneberg, N. —	Henneberg	
Duchy of Coburg, N. subject to its duke	Coburg	406
Duchy of Hilburghausen, subject to its duke	Hilburghausen	
	Burgravate	

Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Burgrative of Nuremberg, S. E. an independent ſtate — —		Nuremberg, an imperial city.	640
Territory of the great-maſter of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, S. W.		Mergentheim.	56
Counties of	Reineck, W.	Reineck	
	Bareith, E. ſub. to its own mar.	Bareith	188
	Papenheim, S. ſ. to its own C.	Papenheim	
	Wertheim, W.	Wertheim	
	Caſſel, middle	Caſſel	120
	Schwartzburg, ſubject to its own count	Schwartzburg middle	96
	Holach, S. W.	Holach	220

7. AUSTRIA Circle

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria.

Diviſions.		Chief Towns.	
Archduchy of Auſtria Proper		Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat. 48-20. Lints, Ens, weſt.	7106
Duchies of	Stiria and Cilley, C.	Gratz, Cilly, S. E.	5000
	Carinthia	Glagenfurt, Lavem. S. E.	3000
	Carniola	Laubach, Zerknit, Trieſte, St. Veits, S. E.	4576
	Goritia	Gorits, S. E.	
County of Tyrol	—	Inſpruck	S. W. on the confines of Italy and Switzerland. 3900
Biſhoprics of	Brixen	Brixen	1300
	Trent	Trent	210

8. BAVARIA Circle.

Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.	
Duchy of Bavaria Proper on the Danube. Palatinate of Bavaria.	Subject to the elector Palatine as ſucceſſor to the late elector of Bavaria.	Munich, E. lon, 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landſhut, Ingoldſtat, N. W. Donawert [Ratiſ. N. an imperial city.] Amberg [Sultzbach], N. of the Danube.	8500
Freffingen, ſubject to its biſhop		Freffingen —	240
Biſhopric of Paſſau, ſubject to its own biſhop,		Paſſau, E. on the Danube	240
Duchy of Neuberg, ſubject to the Elector Palatine —		Neuberg, W. on the Danube	456
Archbiſhopric of Saltzburg, ſubject to its own archbiſhop —		Saltzburg. S. E. Hallen.	2540

9. SWABIA Circle.

Duchy of Wurtemberg, ſubject to the duke of Wurtemberg Stutgard	Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N, lat. 48-40. Tubingen, Hailbron.		On or near the Neckar.	3364
Marquiſates of Baden Baden	ſub. to their own reſpective marg.	Baden	On or near the Rhine	258
Baden Durlach		Baden-Durlach		490
Biſhopric of Augſburg, ſubject to its own biſhop —	Augſburg, an imperial city, Hochſtet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube.			765
Territory of Ulm, a ſovereign ſtate	Ulm, on the Danube, an imperial city.			280

Biſhopric of Conſtance, ſubject to its own biſhop under the Houſe of Auſtria			Conſtance on the lake of Conſtance	60
Principalities of	Mindelheim	Subject to their reſpective princes.	Mindelh. S. of Augſ.	216
	Furſtenberg		Furſtenberg, S.	788
	Hohenzollern		Hohenzollern, S.	150
Counties of	Oeting		Oeting, eaſt.	580
	Konigſeck		Konigſeck, ſouth eaſt	
	Hohenrichburg		Gemund, north	379
Baronies of	Waldburg		Waldburg, ſouth eaſt.	
	Limpurg		Limpurg, north.	120
Abbies of	Kempten		Kempten, on the Iller.	
	Buchaw		Buchaw, S. of the Danube.	
	Lindaw		Lindaw, on the lake of Conſtance, imperial cities.	
Imperial cities, or ſovereign ſtates			Nordlingen, N. of the Danube.	
			Memmingen, eaſt.	
			Rotweil, on the Neckar, and many more.	
Subject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Black foreſt, N. W. Rhinefield C.		Rhinefield and Lauffenb.	480
	Marquiſate of Burgaw		Burgaw, eaſt.	650
	Territory of Briſgaw, on the Rhine.		Friburg and Briſac.	380

NAME.] Great part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, as I have already mentioned: and the word Germany is of itſelf but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word; the moſt probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger* or *Gar*, and *Man*; which, in the ancient Celtic, ſignifies a warlike man. The Germans went by various other names, ſuch as Allemanni, Teutones; which laſt is ſaid to have been their moſt ancient deſignation; and the Germans themſelves call their country Teutchland.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the ſituation, north, eaſt, ſouth, and weſt, but according to the improvement of the ſoil, which has a vaſt effect on the climate. The moſt mild and ſettled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal diſtance from the ſea and the Alps. In the north it is ſharp; towards the ſouth it is more temperate.

The ſoil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and ſterile, though in others it is ſurpriſingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving, which muſt neceſſarily change the moſt barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The ſeaſons vary as much as the ſoil. In the ſouth and weſtern parts, they are more regular than thoſe that lie near the ſea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north wind and the eaſtern blaſts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the ſeaſons of Germany and thoſe of Great Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and thoſe which ſeparate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The great paſſion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is the reaſon why perhaps there are more woods and chaces yet

ſtanding in Germany than in many other countries. The Hyrcanian foreſt, which in Cæſar's time was nine days journey in length, and ſix in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Moſt of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beech. There is a vaſt number of foreſts of leſs note in every part of this country; almoſt every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chaſe or park adorned with pleaſure-houſes, and well ſtocked with game, viz, deer, of which there are ſeven or eight ſorts, as roebucks, ſtags, &c. of all ſizes and colours, and many of a vaſt growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound ſo much alſo with wild fowl, that in many places the peaſants have them, as well as veniſon, for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boaſt a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head ſtands the Danube or Donaw, ſo called from the ſwiftneſs of the current, and which ſome pretend to be naturally the fineſt river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is ſo broad, that in the wars between the Turks and Chriſtians, ſhips of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it paſſes is inconceivable.—The Danube, however, contains a vaſt number of cataracts and whirlpools; its ſtream is rapid, and its courſe, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weſer, and Moſelle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are thoſe of Conſtance and Bregentz. Beſides theſe are the Chiemſee, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-ſee in the duchy of Carniola, whoſe waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Beſides theſe lakes and rivers, in ſome of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of ſtanding water, which are next to peſtilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable diſorders.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is ſaid to contain more of theſe than all Europe beſides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters and thoſe of Pyrmont. Thoſe of Aix la Chapelle are ſtill more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath, and the ſprings of both are ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. Each of thoſe, and many other waters have their partizans in the medical faculty; and if we are to believe all they ſay, they cure diſeaſes internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wiſbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are likewiſe reported to perform their wonders in almoſt all diſeaſes. The mineral ſprings at the laſt mentioned place are ſaid to intoxicate as ſoon as wine, and therefore they are incloſed. Carlſbad and Baden baths have been deſcribed and recommended by many great phyſicians, and uſed with great ſucceſs by many royal perſonages.

After all many are of opinion, that great part of the ſalutary virtues aſcribed to theſe waters is owing to the exerciſes and amuſements of the patients. It is the intereſt of the proprietors to provide for both; and many of the German princes feel the benefit of the many elegant and polite inſtitutions for the diverſion of the public. The neatneſs, cleanlineſs, and conveniency of the places of public reſort are inconceivable; and though at firſt they are attended with expence, yet they more than pay themſelves in a few years, by the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world: many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amuſement and converſation.

METALS

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Many places in the circle of Auſtria, and other parts of Germany, contains mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, ſalt-mines, and ſalt-pits are found in Auſtria, Bavaria, Sileſia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethyſts, jaſper, ſapphire, agate, alabaſter, ſeveral ſorts of pearls, turquois ſtones, and the fineſt of rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greateſt princes and virtuoſi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege, are quarries of curious marble, ſlate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum and bitumen; beſides other foſſils. In ſeveral places are dug up ſtones, which to a ſtrong fancy repreſent different animals and ſometimes trees of the human form. Many of the German circles furniſh coal pits; and the *terra ſigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote againſt poiſon.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries already deſcribed; but naturaliſts are of opinion, that had the Germans, even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the moſt fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its preſent, that we may call rude ſtate, proviſions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witneſs the prodigious armies which the moſt uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richeſt and moſt fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rheniſh and Moſelle wines, differ from thoſe of other countries in a peculiar lightneſs, and deterſive qualities, more ſovereign in ſome diſeaſes than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs, and is four times as large. Their fleſh, and the hams made of it, are preferred by many, even to thoſe of Weſtmoreland, for flavour and grain. The *glutton* of Germany is ſaid to be the moſt voracious of all animals. Its prey is almoſt every thing that has life, which it can maſter, eſpecially birds, hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they ſurpriſe artfully, and devour greedily. On theſe the glutton feeds ſo ravenouſly, that it falls into a kind of a torpid ſtate, and not being able to move, he is killed by the huntſmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horſes; but their horſes, oxen, and ſheep, are not comparable to thoſe of England, probably owing to their want of ſkill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of ſinging birds, which are ſent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.] As the empire of Germany is a collection of ſeparate ſtates, each having a different government and police, it hath been difficult to ſpeak with preciſion as to the number of its inhabitants; but lately the following eſtimate hath been formed of them.

Moravia	1,100,000
Auſtrian Sileſia	200,000
High and Low Luſatia	380,000
Circle of Auſtria	4,150,000
Bavaria	1,148,438
Archbiſhopric of Saltzburgh	250,000
Wurtemberg	565,890
Baden	200,000

Augſburg

Augſburg	40,000
Bamberg and Wurtſburg	460,000
Nuremberg	70,000
Juliers and Berg	260,000
Munſter	130,000
Oſnaburgh	116,664
The Pruſſian Eſtates in the Circle of Weſtphalia	550,000
Naſſau, Dillenberg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman	74,699
Oldenbourg	79,071
Mayence	314,000
Palatinate of Rhine	289,614
Heſſe Caſſel and Darmſtadt	700,000
Fulda	7,600
Frankfort on the Main	42,600
High Saxony, and Circle of Franconia	1,326,041
Swediſh Pomerania	100,549
Pruſſian Pomerania	462,970
Brandenburg	1,007,232
Gotha	77,898
Schwartzburgh, Magdeburg, and Mansfield	271,461
Halberſtadt and Hohenſtein	130,761
Hanover	750,000
Brunſwick	166,340
Holſtein	300,000
Mecklenburgh	220,000
Mulhauſen	13,000
Hamburgh	100,000
	17,166,868

This calculation extends only to the principal parts of Germany, and when the inferior parts are added, the number in all, including the kingdom of Bohemia, is now computed at twenty-ſix millions; and when the land-holders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population muſt naturally increaſe among them.

The Germans in their perſons are tall, fair, and ſtrong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and ſome of them, eſpecially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and ſhape that are ſo bewitching in ſome other countries

Both men and women affect rich dreſſes, which, in faſhion, are the ſame as in France and England; but the better ſort of men are exceſſively fond of gold and ſilver lace, eſpecially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dreſs from the French and Engliſh, only they are not ſo exceſſively fond of paint as the former. At ſome courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers families, in many of the German towns, dreſs in a very different manner, and ſome of them inconceivably fantaſtic, as may be ſeen in many prints publiſhed in books of travels; but in this reſpect they are gradually reforming, and many of them

make quite a different appearance in their dreſs from what they did thirty or forty years ago. As to the peaſantry and labourers, they dreſs as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumſtances. The ſtoves made uſe of in Germany are the ſame with thoſe already mentioned in the northern nations, and are ſometimes made portable, ſo that the ladies carry them to church. In Weſtphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they ſleep between two feather-beds, with ſheets ſtitched to them, which by uſe becomes a very comfortable practice. The moſt unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who ſqueeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general, the circumſtances of the common people are more comfortable than thoſe of their neighbours.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. The higher orders are ridiculouſly proud of titles, anceſtry, and ſhew. The Germans in general, are thought to want animation, as their Perſons promiſe more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, eſpecially the Italians, ſuch as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things both againſt the Turks and the French. The imperial arms have ſeldom made any remarkable figure againſt either of thoſe two nations, or againſt the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This poſſibly might be owing to the arbitrary obſtinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two laſt wars, the Auſtrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Induſtry, application, and perſeverance, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation, eſpecially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, where they not viſible, eſpecially in watch and clock making, jewelery, turnery, ſculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, ſome of which I ſhall have occaſion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt plenty of their country in wine and proviſions of every kind. But thoſe practices ſeem now to be wearing out. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee, after three or four public toaſts have been given. But no people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of ſo much honour that a ſharper in other countries, eſpecially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than any other nation. All the ſons of noblemen inherit their father's titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogiſts of that country. The German huſbands are not quite ſo complaiſant as thoſe of ſome other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to anypre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they ſeem to affect it, being farfrom either ambition or loquacity, though they are ſaid to be ſomewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premiſed, it may eaſily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary eſtate than a high-ſounding title, eaſily enter into their armies, and thoſe of other ſovereigns. Their fondneſs for title is attended with many other inconveniencies. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a ſpecies of beings ſuperior to labourers of every kind, they would demean themſelves in being concerned in the improvement of their grounds.

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The domeſtic diverſions of the Germans are the ſame as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In ſummer, people of faſhion repair to places of public reſort, and drink the waters. As to their field diverſions, beſides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear-baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriouſly, a great part of their time being ſpent in feaſting and carouſing; and in winter, when the ſeveral branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges of different ſhapes, ſuch as griffins, tygers, ſwans, ſcollop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits, dreſſed in velvet, lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the ſledge is drawn by one horſe, ſtag, or other creature, ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribands, and bells. As this diverſion is taken chiefly in the night-time, ſervants ride before the ſledges with torches, and a gentleman ſtanding on the ſledge behind, guides the horſe.

RELIGION.] This is a copious article, but I ſhall confine myſelf to what is moſt neceſſary to be known. Before the Reformation introduced by Luther, the German biſhops were poſſeſſed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their ſuperſtition. The Bohemians were the firſt who had an idea of reformation, and made ſo glorious a ſtand for many years againſt the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the ſacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romiſh church. This was in a great meaſure owing to the celebrated Engliſhman John Wickliffe, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himſelf, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliffe was ſeconded by John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithſtanding the emperor's ſafe-conduct, were infamouſly burnt at the council of Conſtance.

The Reformation introduced afterwards by Luther *, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, though it ſtruck at the chief abuſes in the church of Rome, was thought in ſome points (particularly that of conſubſtantiation, by which the real body of Chriſt, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is ſuppoſed to be taken in the ſacrament) to be imperfect. Calviniſm †, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practiſed in the church of Scotland), was introduced into Germany, and is the religion profeſſed in the territories of the king of Pruſſia, the landgrave of Heſſe, and ſome other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some go ſo far as to ſay, that the numbers of proteſtants and papiſts in the empire are now almoſt equal. Germany, particularly Moravia and the Palatinate, as alſo Bohemia, is over-run with ſectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At preſent, the modes of worſhip and forms of church goverment are by the proteſtant German princes conſidered in a civil rather than a religious light. The proteſtant clergy are learned and exemplary in ther deportment, but the popiſh, ignorant and libertine.

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to diſpute the doctrines of the Romiſh church, 1517, and died, 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he ſettled at Geneva, in 1559, where he eſtabliſhed a new form of church diſcipline, which was ſoon after embraced by ſeveral nations and ſtates, who are now denominated Preſbyterians, and, from their doctrinal articles, Calviniſts. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

ARCH

ARCHBISHOP AND BISHOP SEES.] Theſe are differently repreſented by authors; ſome of whom repreſent Vienna as being a ſuffragan to the archiepiſcopal ſee of Saltzburg; and others, as being an archbiſhopric, but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbiſhop of Mentz, who has under him twelve ſuffragans; but one of them, the biſhop of Bamberg, is ſaid to be exempted from its juriſdiction:—Triers has three ſuffragans;—Cologne has four:—Magdeburg has five;—Saltzburg has nine, beſides Vienna;—and Bremen three.

At different periods ſince the Reformation, it has been found expedient to ſatisfy the claims of temporal princes, to ſeculariſe the following biſhop-ſees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberſtadt, Minden, Lubec, and Oſnaburg, which laſt goes alternately to the houſes of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at preſent held by his Britannic majeſty's ſecond ſon. Such of thoſe ſees as were archbiſhoprics are now conſidered as duchies, and the biſhoprics as principalities.

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies ſo much in its dialect, that the people of one province ſcarcely underſtand thoſe of another. Latin and French are the moſt uſeful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater Noſter is as follows: *Unſer Vater, der du biſt im himmle. Geheiliget werd den name. Zukomme dein reich. Dein wille geſchehe, wie im himmel alſo auch auf erden. Unſer taglich brodt gib uns heute. Unde vergib uns unſer ſchuld, als wir vergeben unſern ſchuldigern. Unde fuhre uns nicht in verſuchung. Sondern erleſe uns von dem boſen. Den dein is das reich, und die krafft, und die herr lichkeit, en ewigheit.* Amen.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND UNIVERSITIES, } No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taſte for reading, eſpecially in the proteſtant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; almoſt every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number; thouſands of theſes and diſputations are annually publiſhed; for no man can be a graduate in their univerſities, who has not publiſhed one diſputation at leaſt. In this country there are 36 univerſities, of which 17 are proteſtant, 17 Roman catholic, and two mixed; beſides a vaſt number of colleges, gymnaſia, pedagogies, and Latin ſchools. There are alſo many academies and ſocieties for promoting the ſtudy of natural philoſophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, painting, ſculpture, architecture, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *naturæ curioſi*; the academy of ſciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipſic, at Diuſburg, at Gieſen, and at Hamburg. At Dreſden and Nuremberg are academies for painting; at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augſburg is the Imperial Franciſcan academy of fine arts; to which we may add the Latin ſociety at Jena. Of the public libraries the moſt celebrated are thoſe of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weymar, and Leipſic.

Many of the Germans have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in various branches of learning and ſcience. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Stork, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed greatly to the improvement of phyſic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heiſter, of anatomy and ſurgery; and Newman, Zimmerman, Pott, and Margraff, of chemiſtry. In aſtronomy, Kepler deſervedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the firſt writers on the

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the law of nature and nations, and has alſo merit as an hiſtorian. But at the end of the laſt century, and the beginning of the preſent, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious ſects, was ſo much involved in diſputes about ſyſtematic theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language alſo, and the ſtyle of writing in German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; and though they were not underſtood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of ſuperiority to the writers, and were therefore much affected. For an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet diveſted themſelves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberleſs quotations from all ſorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true teſt of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantical, and were in conſequence diſregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730, that the proſpects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfius opened the way to a better philoſophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottſched, an author and profeſſor at Leipſic, who has been greatly honoured by the preſent king of Pruſſia, introduced a better taſte of writing, by publiſhing a German grammar, and by inſtituting a literary ſociety, for poliſhing and reſtoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the ſtudy of the *belles lettres*. We may conſider this as the epocha, from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language, upon learned ſubjects, and to free themſelves, in a conſiderable degree, from that verboſeneſs and pedantry by which they had been characteriſed. About this time ſeveral young men in the univerſity of Leipſic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publiſhing ſome periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of perſons of a literary taſte. Some of theſe gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high eſtimation.

The ſtyle of preaching among the German divines alſo now underwent a conſiderable change. They began to tranſlate the beſt Engliſh and French ſermons, particularly thoſe of Tillotſon, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by theſe models: and Moſheim, Jeruſalem, Spalding, Zolikofer, and others, have publiſhed ſermons which would do credit to any country; though they ſtill retain too much of that prolixity, for which German divines and commentators have been ſo much cenſured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are ſtill too much diſtinguiſhed by vulgar language, abſurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reaſon and good ſenſe.

Some of the Engliſh periodical writings, ſuch as the Spectator, Tatler, and Guardian, being tranſlated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the firſt and beſt was publiſhed at Hamburgh, under the title of "The Patriot;" in which Dr. Thomas, the late biſhop of Saliſbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Hamburg, and a conſiderable maſter of the German language. The late profeſſor Gillert, who is one of the moſt elegant of the German authors, and one of the moſt eſteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taſte. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inſpire ſentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verſe, his letters, and his moral romances,

are ſo much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them almoſt by heart. His comedies are alſo very popular; though they are rather too ſentimental, and better adapted for the cloſet than for the ſtage.

Haller, the famous phyſician, Hagedorn, Uz, Cronegh, Leſſing, Gleim, Gerſtenberger, Kleiſt, Klopſtock, Ramler, Zacarie, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Cronegh, Leſſing, Wieland, and Wieſe, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his ſatirical works, immortalized his name among the Germans; though ſome of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German cuſtoms, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleaſure by perſons of other nations. Geſner, whoſe Idylls and Death of Abel have been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, is known among us in a more favourable light.

In chemiſtry, and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very conſpicuous: and Reimarus, Zimmermann, Abt, Kaeſtner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philoſophical writings. Buſching is an excellent geographical writer; and Maſco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, and Gebaur, have excelled in hiſtorical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Moſt of their publications of this kind are imitations of ours, or elſe very dry and unintereſting; which perhaps is owing to education, to falſe delicacy, or to a certain taſte of knight-errantry, which is ſtill predominant among ſome of their novel writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Leſſing, are familiar with thoſe who are ſkilled in this branch of literature. In eccleſiaſtical, philoſophical, and literary hiſtory, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Moſheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous, in ſacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubmam, Reiſhe, Erneſti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne, have publiſhed ſome of the beſt editions of Greek and Latin claſſics.

It is an unfavourable circumſtance for German literature, that the French language ſhould be ſo faſhionable in the German courts inſtead of the German, and that ſo many of their princes ſhould give it ſo decided a preference. Even the late king of Pruſſia had ordered the Philoſophical Tranſactions of his royal ſociety at Berlin, from the beginning of its inſtitution, to be publiſhed in the French tongue: by which, ſome of the Germans think, his majeſty has caſt a very undeſerved reproach upon his native language.

With reſpect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themſelves tolerably well. Germany has produced ſome good painters, architects, ſculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the firſt inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if firſt invented in Holland, was ſoon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to be the firſt inventors of great guns; as alſo of gunpowder in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewiſe produced ſome excellent muſicians; Handel, Bach, and Haſſe, of whom Handel ſtands at the head; and it is acknowledged, that he arrived at the ſublime of muſic, but he had not the ſmalleſt idea of the difference between muſic and ſentimental expreſſion.

CITIES, TOWNS, PORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occaſional eſtimates of REVENUES AND POPULATION.

This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly ſo in Germany, on account of the numerous independent ſtates it contains.

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The reader therefore muſt be contented with the mention of the moſt capital places, and their peculiarities.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Pruſian majeſty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the moſt illuſtrious example of ſudden improvement that this age can boaſt of; yet, during the late war, it was found a place of no ſtrength, and fell twice, almoſt without reſiſtance, into the hands of the Auſtrians, who, had it not been for the politeneſs of their generals, aud their love of the fine arts, which always preſerves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, beſides a royal palace, has many other ſuperb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutherian, and eleven Calviniſt churches, beſides a popiſh one. Its ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious, and built in a very regular manner. But the houſes, though neat without, are ill-finiſhed, and ill-furniſhed within, and very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-houſe is alſo a beautiful ſtructure: and the arſenal, which is handſomely built in the form of a ſquare, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are ſundry manufactures in Berlin, and ſeveral ſchools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Buſching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garriſon. In the ſame year, and according to the ſame author, there were no fewer than 443 ſilk looms, 149 of half ſilks, 2858 for woolen ſtuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for ſilk ſtockings, and 310 for worſted ones. They have here manufactures of tapeſtry, gold and ſilver-lace and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is, by nature, the richeſt country in Germany, if not in Europe; it contains 210 walled towns 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the lateſt accounts of the Germans themſelves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and the revenue, eſtimating each rix dollar at four ſhillings and ſix-pence, amonnts to 1,350,000l. This ſum is ſo moderate, when compared to the richneſs of the ſoil, which, if we are to believe Dr. Buſching, produces even diamonds, and almoſt all the precious ſtones to be found in the Eaſt Indies and elſewhere, and the variety of ſplendid manufactures, that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the moſt moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can ſay little more of Dreſden, the elector of Saxony's capital, than hath been already ſaid of all fine cities, that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, and charitable foundations, and, above all, its ſuburbs, are magnificent beyond all expreſſion; that it is beautifully ſituated on both ſides the Elbe; and that it is the ſchool of Germany for ſtatuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and founderies for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dreſden, by the lateſt accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Leipſic in Upper Saxony, 46 miles diſtant from Dreſden, is ſituated in a pleaſant and fertile plain on the Pleiſſe, and the inhabitants are ſaid to amount to about 40,000. There are alſo large and well built ſuburbs, with handſome gardens. Between theſe ſuburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompaſſes the city. Mulberry-trees are alſo planted in the town ditches; but the fortifications ſeem rather calculated for the uſe of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The ſtreets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with ſeven hundred lamps. They reckon 436

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merchant houſes, and 192 manufactures of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipſic has long been diſtinguiſhed for the liberty of conſcience allowed here to perſons of different ſentiments in religious matters. Here is an univerſity, which is ſtill very conſiderable, with ſix churches for the Lutherans, theirs being the eſtabliſhed religion, one for the Calviniſts, and a chapel in the caſtle for thoſe of the Romiſh church. The univerſity-library conſiſts of about 26,000 volumes, 6,000 of which are folios. Here is alſo a library for the magiſtrates, which conſiſts of about 36,000 volumes and near 2,000 manuſcripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curioſities of art and nature. The Exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, ſtands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. In contains about twelve hundred houſes among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on ſome manufactures; in its neighbourhood lie the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and ſixty market-towns, beſides villages. The city and ſuburbs of Bremen, belonging by purchaſe to the ſaid elector, contain about fifty thouſand inhabitants, who have a conſiderable trade by the Weſer. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures; but in general, it muſt be remarked, that the electorate has ſuffered greatly by the acceſſion of the Hanover family to the crown of Great Britain. I ſhall here juſt mention, on account of its relation to our royal family the ſeculariſed biſhopric of Oſnaburg, lying between the rivers Weſer and Ems. The chief city, Oſnaburgh, has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The whole revenue of the biſhopric amounts to about 30,000l.

Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all ſects of Chriſtians and Jews are tolerated, but the magiſtracy is Lutheran. Since Sileſia, fell under the Pruſſian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, being very inconſiderable before. The manufactures of Sileſia which principally centre at Breſlau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by ſome ſaid to bring his Pruſſian majeſty in near a million ſterling; but this ſum ſeems to be exaggerated; if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought into the houſe of Auſtria above 500,000l. yearly.

Frankfort on the Maine, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from another of the ſame name on the Oder, is ſituated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country, on the river juſt mentioned, by which it is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhauſen. The former of theſe, being the largeſt, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thouſand houſes. The fortifications, which are both regular and ſolid, form a decagon, or figure conſiſting of ten baſtions, faced with hewn ſtone; the ditches are deep, and filled with freſh water; and all the outworks are placed before the gates. Frankfort is the uſual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is alſo a free and imperial city. It is a circular form, without any ſuburbs; but the ſtreets are generally narrow, and the houſes are moſtly built of timber and plaiſter, and covered with ſlate; though there are ſome handſome private ſtructures, of a kind of red marble, that deſerve the name of palaces; as the buildings called the Compeſtel and Fronhof, the

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Trierſhof, the Cullenhof, the German-houſe, an auguſt edifice, ſituated near the bridge over the Maine, the Heſſe Darmſtadthof, the palace of the prince de la Tours, and the houſes of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schonborn; and there are three principal ſquares.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Auſtria, and, being the reſidence of the emperor, is ſuppoſed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a ſtrong city, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent univerſity, a bank, which is in the management of her own magiſtrates, and a court of commerce immediately ſubject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a ſixth part of the town; but the ſuburbs are larger than the city. It would be endleſs to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its ſquares, academies, and libraries; and among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curioſities. Among its rich convents is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Auſtria; and one of the ſix gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of ſome notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the ſuburbs, are computed at about three hundred thouſand; and the encouragement given them by their ſovereigns, has rendered this city the rendezvous of all the nations around.

After all that has been ſaid of this magnificent city, the moſt candid and ſenſible of thoſe who have viſited it, are far from being laviſh in its praiſe. The ſtreets, excepting thoſe in the ſuburbs, are narrow and dirty: the houſes and furniture of the citizens are greatly diſproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, ſquares, and other public buildings; but above all, the exceſſive impoſts laid by the houſe of Auſtria upon every commodity in its dominions, muſt always keep the manufacturing part of their ſubjects poor. The emperor Joſeph II became ſenſible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predeceſſors and their counſellors: he examined things with his own eyes, and deſcended from that haughtineſs of demeanor which rendered the imperial court ſo long diſagreeable, and even ridiculous, to the reſt of Europe. In general, the condition of the Auſtrian ſubjects has been greatly meliorated ſince his acceſſion to the imperial throne; great encouragement hath been given to the proteſtants, and many of the popiſh religious houſes, convents, &c. were ſuppreſſed by him

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. In deſcribing the mineral and other ſprings, I anticipated great part of this article, which is of itſelf very copious. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curioſities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern. The tun at Heidelburgh holds 800 hogſheads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine, from which ſtrangers are ſeldom ſuffered to retire ſober. Vienna itſelf is a curioſity; for here you ſee the greateſt variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Tranſylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The Imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuſcrips. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptic, and Chineſe; but the antiquity of ſome of them is queſtionable, particularly a New Teſtament in Greek, ſaid to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple.

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Here are likewiſe many thouſand Greek, Roman, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vaſt collection of other curioſities in art and nature. The vaſt Gothic palaces, cathedrals, caſtles, and above all, town-houſes in Germany, are very curious: they ſtrike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and ſometimes they have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houſes in great cities and villages have the ſame appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally conſiſt of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and baſtions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curioſities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave near Blackenburg in Hartz-foreſt, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles; but the moſt remarkable curioſity of that kind is near Hammelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where at the mouth of a cave ſtanda a monument which commemorates the loſs of 130 children who were there ſwallowed up in 1284. Though this fact is very ſtrongly atteſted, it has been diſputed by ſome critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly repreſenting two monks in their proper habits; and of many ſtones which ſeem to be petrifactions of fiſhes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vaſt advantages in point of commerce, from its ſituation in the heart of Europe, and perforated as it were with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce (beſides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, aniſe, cummin, tobacco, ſaffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to thoſe of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries, corn, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen yarn, ribands, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-ſkins, wool, timber both for ſhip-building and houſes, cannon and bullets, bombs and bomb ſhells, iron plates and ſtoves, tinned plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs-wire, porcelain the fineſt upon earth, earthen-ware, glaſſes, mirrors, hogs, briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalts, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printer's ink, and many other things. Some think that the balance of trade between England and Germany is to the diſadvantage of the former; but others are of a different opinion, as they cannot import coarſe woollen manufactures, and ſeveral other commodities, ſo cheap from any other country.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV. which obliged the French proteſtants to ſettle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite ſervice to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, ſilks, ſtuffs of all kinds, fine and coarſe; linen and thread, and every thing neceſſary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meiſſen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Aſiatic company of Embden, eſtabliſhed by his preſent Pruſſian majeſty, was, excluſive of the Hanſeatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but no ſhips have been ſent out ſince the year 1760. The heavy taxes that his majeſty laid on the company, has been the cauſe of its total annihilation. In the great cities of Germany very large and extenſive partnerſhips in trade ſubſiſt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almoſt every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own eſtates; but the whole of them form a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whoſe

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power in the collective body, or the diet, is not directorial, but executive: but even that gives him vaſt influence. The ſupreme power in Germany is the diet, which is compoſed of the emperor, or, in his abſence, of his commiſſary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The firſt of theſe is the electoral college; the ſecond is the college of princes; and the third, the college of Imperial towns.

The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but after this became elective; and in the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V. the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239 the number of electors was reduced to ſeven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for ſome centuries belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, as being the moſt powerful of the German princes; but by French management, upon the death of Charles VI. grandfather, by the mother's ſide, to the emperor Joſeph II, the elector of Bavaria was choſen to that dignity, and died, as it is ſuppoſed, heart-broken, after a ſhort uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he ſigns at his election; and the perſon, who in his lifetime is choſen king of the Romans, ſucceeds without a new election to the empire. He can confer titles and infranchiſements upon cities and towns; but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the conſent of the diet. When that conſent is obtained, every prince muſt contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the martriculation roll, though perhaps as an elector or prince, he may eſpouſe a different ſide from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German conſtitution; for George II. of England, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furniſh his quota againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and alſo againſt the king of Pruſſia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for his ambaſſadors in all Chriſtian courts.

The nine electors of the empire have each a particular office in the Imperial court, and they have the ſole election of the emperor. They are in order,

Firſt, The archbiſhop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbiſhop of Triers, who is high chancellor of the empire in France.

Third, the archbiſhop of Cologne, who is the ſame in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand ſewer, or officer who ſerves out the feaſts.

The elector of Saxony, who is the great marſhal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Pruſſia), who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great ſteward: and,

The elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain,) who claims the poſt of arch-treaſurer.

It is neceſſary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of thoſe members; and during the vacancy of the Imperial throne, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have juriſdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the ſouthern circles.

The eccleſiaſtical princes are as abſolute as the temporal ones in their ſeveral dominions. The chief of theſe, beſides the three eccleſiaſtical elec-

tors already mentioned, are the archbiſhop of Saltzburgh, the biſhops of Liege, Munſter, Spire, Worms, Wurtzburgh, Straſburgh, Oſnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Beſides theſe, are many other eccleſiaſtical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeſſes, whoſe juriſdictions are likewiſe abſolute, and ſome of them very conſiderable, and all of them are choſen by their ſeveral chapters. The chief of the ſecular princes are the Landgrave of Heſſe, the dukes of Brunſwick, Wolfenbuttle, Wirtemberg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquiſſes of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Naſſau, Anhalt, Furſtenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are ſovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewiſe ſovereign ſtates; thoſe which are Imperial, or compoſe part of the diet, bear the Imperial eagle in their arms; thoſe which are Hanſe-towns, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, have ſtill great privileges and immunities, but they ſubſiſt no longer as a political body.

The Imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic-council, are the two ſupreme courts for determining the great cauſes of the empire, ariſing between its reſpective members. The Imperial council conſiſts of 50 judges or aſſeſſors. The preſident and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chuſes one, and the other princes and ſtates the reſt. This court is at preſent held at Wetzlar, but formerly reſided at Spire; and cauſes may be brought before it by appeal. The Aulic-council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria. As that family's power increaſed, the juriſdiction of the aulic-council was extended; and at laſt, to the great diſguſt of the princes of the empire, it uſurped upon the powers of the Imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, and a certain number of aulic-counſellors, of whom ſix are proteſtants, beſides other officers, but the emperor in fact is maſter of the court. Theſe courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Paſſau, and the civil law.

Beſides theſe courts of juſtice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. Theſe directors are commonly as follow: For Weſtphalia, the biſhop of Munſter, or duke of Neuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover, or Brandenburgh. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbiſhop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine, or biſhop of Worms. For Franconia, the biſhop of Bamberg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Swabia, the duke of Wirtemburgh, or biſhop of Conſtance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbiſhop of Saltzburgh; and for Auſtria, the archduke of Auſtria, his imperial majeſty.

Upon any great emergency, after the votes of the diet are collected, and ſentence pronounced; the emperor, by his prerogative, commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princeſs, whoſe troops live at free quarters upon the eſtates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences; upon the whole, the conſtitution of the Germanic body is of itſelf a ſtudy of no ſmall difficulty. But however plauſibly invented the ſeveral checks upon the imperial power may be, it is certain that the houſe of Auſtria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and they have been ſaved by France. Lately, indeed, the houſe of Auſtria has met with a powerful oppoſition from the houſe of Brandenburgh, in conſequence

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of the activity and abilities of the preſent king of Pruſſia. Before I cloſe this head, it may be neceſſary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German hiſtory, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a proviſion made by the emperor Charles VI. for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions in the perſon of the next deſcendant of the laſt poſſeſſor, whether male or female. This proviſion has been often diſputed by other branches of the houſe of Auſtria, who have been occaſionally ſupported by France from political views, though the pragmatic ſanction is ſtrongly guarantied by almoſt all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, as being deſcended from the daughters of the emperor Joſeph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewiſe been again and again oppoſed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are ſo large as to be aſſigned to viceroys, to be oppreſſed and fleeced at pleaſure; nor are they entirely without redreſs when they ſuffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. The ſubjects of the petty princes, in Germany are generally the moſt unhappy; for theſe princes, affecting the grandeur and ſplendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domeſtics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curioſities, guards, bands of muſic, tables, dreſs, and furniture, are obliged to ſupport all this vain pomp and parade, at the expence of their vaſſals and dependents. With reſpect to the burghers and peaſants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter alſo, in ſome parts, as in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain ſervices to their ſuperiors, and pay the taxes; whereas in the marquiſate of Brandenburgh, Pomerania, Luſatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Auſtria, &c. they may juſtly be denominated ſlaves, though in different degrees.

REVENUES.] The only revenue falling under this head is that of the emperor, who, as ſuch, hath an annual income of about 5 or 6000 pounds ſterling, ariſing from ſome inconſiderable fiefs in the Black Foreſt. The Auſtrian revenues are immenſe, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000 ſterling in Germany and Italy; a ſum that goes far in thoſe countries. The father of the late king of Pruſſia, whoſe revenues were not near ſo extenſive as thoſe of his ſon, though he maintained a large army, was ſo good an œconomiſt that he left 7,000,000 ſterling in his coffers; and ſome have thought that Sileſia alone brings above half a million ſterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a ſtranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes; which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and conſequently the low price of proviſions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that ſome princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot ſpeak with any tolerable preciſion on a ſubject of ſuch variety and uncertainty, and which comprehends ſo many independent ſtates.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two laſt wars, very little regard was paid in carrying them on, to the ancient German conſtitutions, the whole management being engroſſed by the head of the houſe of Auſtria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book or regiſter, which, among other letters, contains the aſſeſſments of men and money, which every prince and ſtate who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly aſſeſſments, paid to the

the emperors when they viſited Rome. Thoſe aſſeſſments, however, are ſubject to great mutability. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that upon a moderate computation the ſecular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the eccleſiaſtical 74,500, in all 453,500; of thoſe the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria, is ſuppoſed to furniſh 90,000.

The elector of Mentz may maintain	6000
The elector of Triers	6000
The elector of Cologne	6000
The biſhop of Munſter	8000
The biſhop of Liege	8000
The archbiſhop of Saltzburg	8000
The biſhop of Wurtzburg	2000
The biſhop of Bamberg	5000
The biſhop of Paderborn	3000
The biſhop of Oſnaburg	2500
The abbot of Fulda	6000
The other biſhoprics of the empire	6000
The abbies and provoſtſhips of the empire	8000
Total of the eccleſiaſtical princes	74500
The emperor, for Hungary	30000
for Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia	30000
for Auſtria, and other dominions	30000
The king of Pruſſia	40000
The elector of Saxony	25000
The elector Palatine	15000
The duke of Wirtemburg	15000
The landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel	15000
The prince of Baden	10000
The elector of Hanover	30000
The duke of Holſtein	12000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15000
The prince of Anhalt	6000
The prince of Lawenburg	6000
The elector of Bavaria	30000
The dukes of Saxony	10000
The prince of Naſſau	10000
The othe princes and imperial towns	50000
The ſecular princes	379000
The eccleſiaſtical princes	74500
	453500

By this computation, which is far from being exaggerated, it appears that the emperor and empire form the moſt powerful government in Europe; and if the whole force was united, and properly directed, Germany would have nothing to fear from any of its ambitious neighbours. But the different intereſts purſued by the ſeveral princes of Germany, render the power of the emperor of little conſquence, except with regard to his

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own forces, which are indeed very formidable. The imperial army was computed in 1775, to amount to two hundred thouſand.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The emperor of Germany pretends to be ſucceſſor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occaſions among the powers of Europe. Auſtria is but an archdukedome; nor has he, as the head of that houſe, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is veſted as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is ſeen the imperial crown. On the breaſt of the eagle is an eſcutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jeruſalem, Arragon, Anjou, Gelders, Brabant, and Barr. It would be as uſeleſs as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of inſtituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admiſſible unleſs confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as deſcended from the houſe of Burgundy. The empreſs dowager Eleonora in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late empreſs queen inſtituted the order of St. Tereſa.

The order of the *Golden Fleece* was inſtituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January 1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his third wife. It is ſuppoſed that he choſe the badge, it being the chief of the ſtaple manufactures of his country. It at firſt conſiſted of thirty knights, including the ſovereign, who were of the firſt families in the Low Countries, and it ſtill continues to be claſſed with the moſt illuſtrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At preſent there are two branches of it; of the one, the emperor is ſovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all muſt prove their noble deſcent from the twelfth century. The motto of the order is "*Pretium non vile laborum.*" The *Teutonic order* owed its origin to ſome religious Germans in Jeruſalem during the cruſades, who aſſumed the title of "Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hoſpital of our Lady of the Germans of Jeruſalem." Conrade duke of Swabia invited them into Pruſſia about the year 1230, ſoon after they conquered Pruſſia for themſelves, and became one of the moſt powerful orders in Europe. By the order dividing againſt itſelf they afterwards loſt their power and poſſeſſions; and Albert marquis of Brandenburgh, grand-maſter of the order, on his abjuring popery, abdicated the grand-maſterſhip, ſubdued Pruſſia, and expelled all the papiſts who followed not his example. The order is now divided into two branches: the proteſtant branch, who have a houſe at Utrecht, hath been noticed in our accounts of orders in the Netherlands—that for papiſts, hath a houſe at Mergenheim in Germany, and the members muſt take the oath of celibacy. The enſign worn by this branch is worn round the neck, pendent to a gold chain.

The time of the inſtitution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncertain. The margrave of Bareith is ſovereign thereof, and it is generally beſtowed on general officers. In the year 1690, John George, elector of Saxony, and Frederick III. elector of Brandenburgh, on terminating their diſputes, eſtabliſhed the "*Order of Sincerity*," as a confirmation and ſecurity hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold; on one ſide

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are the names of the two princes, with this device, *Amitié ſincere*; on the other ſide are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two ſwords, with two palm branches croſſed, with this motto, *Unis pour jamais*.

John George, duke of Saxe Weiſſenfels, inſtituted the "*Order of the Noble Paſſion*," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the ſovereign. Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed ſoldiers in the ſervice of the ſovereign. In the year 1709, Louiſa Elizabeth, widow of Philip duke of Saxe Merſburg, revived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," firſt inſtituted in 1652, by her father the duke of Wirtemburg. A princeſs of that houſe alone can be ſovereign of it, and none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded) can be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amuſements, and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, ſurmounted with a croſs pattée black: above the croſs pattée, another croſs compoſed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black ribband edged with white, and on the ribband theſe words, *memento mori*, worn at the breaſt.

The great order of Wirtemburg, is that "*of the Chace*," inſtituted in the year 1702, by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. On the left ſide of the coat is a ſilver ſtar embroidered, of the ſame figure as the bage, in the middle of a green circle, with the motto, *Amicitiæ, Virtutiſque Fœdus*. The feſtival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, he being the patron of ſportſmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "*Order of St. Hubert*," firſt inſtituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory, gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. All the knights have either military employments or penſions. The archbiſhop of Saltzburgh in 1701, inſtituted the "*Orders of St. Rupert*," in honour of the founder and parton of the ſee he held, and as the apoſtle of his country. As the archbiſhop is the richeſt and moſt powerful prince of Bavaria next to the elector, his order is in good eſteem. In the year 1729, Albert, elector of Bavaria, inſtituted the "*Order of St. George, the Defender of the Immaculate Conception.*" The knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generataions.

The "*Order of the Golden Lion*," inſtituted by the preſent landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, is equally a military and civil order, but moſtly conferred on general officers. The preſent landgrave hath alſo inſtituted the military "*Order of Merit*," the badge of which, is a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, and in the centre this motto, *Pro Virtue et Fidelitate*;" it is worn at the coat button-hole, pendent to a blue riband edged with ſilver.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well deſcribed by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. They were a brave and independent race of men, and particularly diſtinguiſhed by their love of liberty and arms. They oppoſed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and ſtill continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independent of each other, though occaſionally connected by a military union for defending themſelves againſt ſuch enemies as threatened the liberties of them all. At length the Roman power, connected with artifice, prevailed over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was ſhattered by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks about the year 480, and a conſiderable part of it long remained in ſubjection to earls and mar-

marquiſſes of that nation. In this ſituation Germany continued, notwithſtanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the reſt into ſubjection, until the b ginning of the ninth century: then it was that Charlemagne, one of thoſe eccentric and ſuperior geniuſes who ſometimes ſtart up in a barbarous age, firſt extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority over the whole of this empire. The poſterity of Charlemage inherited the empire of Germany untill the death of Lewis. III. in the year 911, at which time the different princes, aſſuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovinian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been conſidered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their intereſt and arms, have mounted the throne. Of theſe the moſt conſiderable, until the Auſtrian line acquired the imperial power, were the houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of theſe emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the conteſts between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, aroſe the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope and the latter to the emperor; and both by their violence and inveteracy, tended to diſquiet the empire for ſeveral ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks, and ſometimes the German princes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the ſucceſſion. But what more deſerves the attention of a judicious reader than all thoſe noiſy but unintereſting diſputes, is the progreſs of government in Germany, which was in ſome meaſure oppoſite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire, raiſed by Charlemagne, fell aſunder, all the different independent princes aſſumed the right of election; and thoſe now diſtinguiſhed by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in a appointing a ſucceſſor to the impertial throne; they were only the officers of the king's houſhold, his ſecretary, his ſtewards, chaplain, marſhal, or maſter of his horſe, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's perſon, and, like all other princes, had independent territories belonging to them, they increaſed their influence and authority; and in the reigu of Otho III. of the houſe of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the ſole right of electing the emperor *. Thus, while in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independent barons, was diminiſhed by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raiſed upon the ruins of the emperor's ſupremacy, and of the people's juriſdiction. Otho I. having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy that he and his ſucceſſors ſhould have the power of nominating the pope, and of granting inveſtitures to biſhops. Henry V. a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1127, ſurrendered up the right of inveſtiture and and other powers, to the diſgrace of the imperial dignity: but pope Benedict XII. refuſing abſolution to Lewis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared, in the diet of the empire, that the majority of ſuffrages of the electoral college ſhould confer the empire without the conſent of the pope, that he had no ſuperiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II. archduke of Auſtria, was elected emperor, and the im-

* Wiquefort ſaith, that nothing was ſettled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV. who was choſen emperor in 1347, and made that famous, conſtitution for the election of emperors, called the *Golden Bull*, from the emperor's golden-ſeal (*bulla*) affixed to it.

perial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his ſucceſſors, Maximilian, married the heireſs of Charles duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the houſe of Auſtria. Charles V. grandſon of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in ſeveral parts of Germany, which however was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V. was continually diſturbed by his wars with the German princes and the French king Francis I. Though ſucceſsful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune toward the concluſion of it began to forſake him; which, with other reaſons, occaſioned his abdication of the crown.

His brother, Ferdinand I. who, in 1558, ſucceeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the addreſs to get his ſon Maximilian declared king of the Romans in his own lifetime, and died in 1564. By his laſt will he ordered, that if either his own male iſſue, or that of his brother Charles, ſhould fail, his Auſtrian eſtates ſhould revert to his ſecond daughter Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her iſſue.

I mention this deſtination, as it gave riſe to the late oppoſition made by the houſe of Bavaria to the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of the late empreſs queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II. was diſturbed with internal commotions, and an invaſion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Auſtria in his life-time. He was ſucceeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calviniſts, were ſo much divided among themſelves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias at laſt reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the imperial commiſſaries out of a window at Prague. This gave riſe to a ruinous war, which laſted thirty years. Matthias thought to have exterminated both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias dying in 1618, was ſucceeded by his couſin Ferdinand II. but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector Palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and ſon-in-law to his Britannic majeſty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he loſt it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague: and he was alſo deprived of his own electorate, the beſt part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The proteſtant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with great firmneſs and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach; Chriſtian duke of Brunſwick, and count Mansfield; the laſt was one of the beſt generals of the age. Chriſtian IV. king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French miniſter, was not fond of ſeeing the houſe of Auſtria aggrandized. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Chriſtian having put himſelf at the head of the evangelical league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialiſt of great reputation in war. Ferdinand made ſuch a uſe of his advantages obtained over the proteſtants, that they formed a freſh confederacy at Leipſic, of which the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was at the head. I have already deſcribed his amazing

mazing victories and progreſs, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the proteſtant cauſe did not die with him. He had brought up a ſet of heroes ſuch as the duke of Saxe Weimar, Torſtenſon, Banier, and others, who ſhook the Auſtrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munſter, in the year 1648; which forms the baſis of the preſent political ſyſtem of Europe.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand III. who died 1657, and was ſucceeded by the emperor Leopold, a ſevere unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one ſide, and the Turks on the other; and was a loſer in his war with both. France took from him Alſace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the ſiege been raiſed by John Sobieſki, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms about the year 1697; and being one of the imperial generals, gave the Turks the firſt checks they received in Hungary, and by the peace of Carlowitz in 1699, Tranſylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withſtood the power of France, had not the prince of Orange, afterwards king William III. of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy againſt the French power, the conſequences of which have been already deſcribed. The Hungarians, ſecretly encouraged by the French, and exaſperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were ſtill in arms, under the protection of the Porte or Turks, when that prince died in 1705.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill ſerved by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithſtanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very ſplendid victories, had not all the ſucceſs he expected or deſerved. Joſeph himſelf was ſuſpected of a deſign to ſubvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain, by his conduct, that he expected England ſhould take the labouring oar in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The Engliſh were diſguſted at his ſlowneſs and ſelfiſhneſs; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male iſſue, was ſucceeded in the empire by his brother Charles VI. whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in oppoſition to Philip duke of Anjou, grandſon to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place in 1713, Charles at firſt made a ſhew as if he would continue the war; but found himſelf unable, now that he was forſaken by the Engliſh. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden, in 1714, that he might attend the progreſs of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from prince Eugene, at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another of equal importance from the ſame general in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialiſts; and next year the peace of Paſſarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leiſure in making arrangements for increaſing and preſerving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the houſe of Hanover; an event which gave him a very deciſive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I. and II. in the empire. Charles was ſenſible of this, and carried matters with ſo high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach enſued between him and George I.; and ſo unſteady was the ſyſtem of affairs all

over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones, contradictory to their intereſt. Without entering into particulars, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that the ſafety of Hanover, and its aggrandiſement, was the main object of the Britiſh court; as that of the emperor was the eſtabliſhment of the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of his daughter, the late empreſs queen, he having no male iſſue. Mutual conceſſions upon thoſe great points reſtored a good underſtanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony, being prevailed upon by the proſpect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquiſhed the great claims he had upon the Auſtrian ſucceſſion.

The emperor, after this, had very bad ſucceſs in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himſelf for the great ſacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the houſe of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to ſupply his place. The ſyſtem of France under cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and ſhe obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reaſon to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers eaſy, had, before his death, given his eldeſt daughter, the late empreſs queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, a prince who could bring no acceſſion of power to the Auſtrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no ſooner in the grave, than all he had ſo long laboured for muſt have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmneſs of George II. The pragmatic ſanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Pruſſia, with a powerful army entered, and conquered Sileſia, which he ſaid had been wrongfully diſmembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria ſet up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic ſanction and in this they were joined by France; though all thoſe powers had ſolemnly guaranteed it. The imperial throne, after a conſiderable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII. in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Pruſſia, was forced to cede to that prince the moſt valuable part of the duchy of Sileſia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and ſufferings, and the noble fortitude with which ſhe bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whoſe arms ſhe threw herſelf and her little ſon; and though they had been always remarkable for their diſaffection to the houſe of Auſtria, they declared unanimouſly in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II. at the head of an Engliſh and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time miſerable on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions, as had been his anceſtor in queen Anne's reign, for ſiding with France, and would have given the queen of Hungary almoſt her own terms; but ſhe haughtily and impoliticly rejected all accommodation, though adviſed to it by his Britannic majeſty, her beſt, and indeed only friend. This obſtinacy gave a colour for the king of Pruſſia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of ſupporting the imperial dignity: but though he took Prague, and ſubdued the greateſt part of the kingdom, he was not ſupported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conqueſts, and retired to Sileſia. This event confirmed the obſtinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that ſhe might recover Sileſia. Soon after, his imperial majeſty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died; and the duke of Lorrain, then

then grand-duke of Tuſcany, conſort to her Hungarian majeſty, after ſurmounting ſome difficulties, was choſen emperor, by the title of Francis I.

The bad ſucceſs of the allies againſt the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loſs of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empreſs-queen againſt his Pruſſian majeſty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles of Lorrain, who had before driven the Pruſſians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empreſs-queen was ſuch, that his Britannic majeſty thought proper to guarantee to him the poſſeſſion of Sileſia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Pruſſian majeſty pretended that he had diſcovered a ſecret convention which had been entered into between the empreſs queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to ſtrip him of his dominions, and to divide them amongſt themſelves. Upon this his Pruſſian majeſty, all of a ſudden, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took poſſeſſion of Dreſden; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty, by which the king of Pruſſia acknowledged the duke of Lorrain, now become great-duke of Tuſcany, for emperor. The war continued in the Low Countries, not only to the diſadvantage, but to the diſcredit of the Auſtrians and Dutch, till it was finiſhed by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April 1748. By that treaty, Sileſia was once more guaranteed to the king of Pruſſia. It was not long before that monarch's jealouſies were renewed and verified; and the empreſs of Ruſſia's views falling in with thoſe of the empreſs-queen and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally ſupported by France in their new ſchemes, a freſh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1756. The king of Pruſſia declared againſt the admiſſion of the Ruſſians into Germany, and his Britannic majeſty againſt that of the French. Upon thoſe two principles all former differences between theſe monarchs were forgotten, and the Britiſh parliament agreed to pay an annual ſubſidy of 670,000l. to his Pruſſian majeſty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His Pruſſian majeſty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the Imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowoſitz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almoſt impregnably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Pruſſian majeſty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Ruſſians did by another, into Germany. The conduct of his Pruſſian majeſty on this occaſion is the moſt amazing that is to be met with in hiſtory. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Auſtrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marſhal Schwerin was on the ſide of the Pruſſians. He then beſieged Prague, and plied it with a moſt tremendous artillery; but juſt as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Auſtrian general Daun, obliged to raiſe the ſiege, and to fall back upon Eiſenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The Imperialiſts, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops: but they were beaten at the battle of Liſſa, and the Pruſſians took Breſlau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Ruſſians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aſpect of the war; and the cautious, yet enterpriſing genius of count Daun, laid his Pruſſian majeſty under infinite difficulties, notwithſtanding all his amazing victories. At firſt he defeated the Ruſſians at Zorndorf; but an attack made upon his army, in the night time, by count Daun at Hochkirchen

kirchen, had almoſt proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable preſence of mind. He was obliged, however, to ſacrifice Saxony, for the ſafety of Sileſia: and it has been obſerved, that few periods of hiſtory afford ſuch room for reflection as this campaign did; ſix ſieges were raiſed almoſt at the ſame time; that of Colberg, by the Ruſſians; that of Leipſic, by the duke of Deux Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dreſden, by Daun; and thoſe of Neiſs, Coſel, and Torgau, alſo by the Auſtrians.

Brevity obliges me to omit many capital ſcenes which paſſed at the ſame time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the Engliſh, or their allies. The operations on both ſides are of little importance to hiſtory, becauſe nothing was done that was deciſive, though extremely burdenſome and bloody to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the empreſs queen to his Britannic majeſty, and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Ruſſians had taken poſſeſſion of the kingdom of Pruſſia, and laid ſiege to Colberg, the only port of his Pruſſian majeſty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Ruſſians; but he ſoon found them by far the moſt formidable enemies he had, advancing under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Sileſia. In this diſtreſs he acted with a courage and reſolution that bordered upon deſpair; but was, at laſt, totally defeated by the Ruſſians, with the loſs of 20,000 of his beſt men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats ſeemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were ſhut up. He had loſt, ſince the firſt of October 1756, the great marſhal Keith, and forty brave generals, beſides thoſe who were wounded and made priſoners. At Landſhut, the Imperial general, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Auſtrians a ready gate into Sileſia. None but his Pruſſian majeſty would have thought of continuing the war under ſuch repeated loſſes; but every defeat he received ſeemed to give him freſh ſpirits. It is not perhaps very eaſy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealouſy which the Imperial generals entertained of their Ruſſian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialiſts in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the beſt fought action the king of Pruſſia had ever been engaged in, but it coſt him 10,000 of his beſt troops, and was attended with no great conſequence in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Ruſſia, the taking of Colberg by the Ruſſians, and of Schweidnitz by the Auſtrians, ſeemed almoſt to have completed his ruin, when his moſt formidable enemy, the empreſs of Ruſſia, died, January 5, 1762; George II. had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of thoſe illuſtrious perſonages were followed by great conſequences. The Britiſh miniſtry of George III. were ſolicitous to put an end to the war, and the new emperor of Ruſſia recalled his armies.—His Pruſſian majeſty was, notwithſtanding, ſo very much reduced by his loſſes, that the empreſs queen, probably, would have completed his deſtruction, had it not been for the wife backwardneſs of the other German princes, not to annihilate the houſe of Brandenburgh. At firſt the empreſs queen rejected all terms propoſed her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The viſible backwardneſs of her generals to execute her orders, and the ſucceſſes obtained by his Pruſſian majeſty, at laſt prevailed upon her to agree to

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an armiſtice, which was ſoon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, February 15, 1763, which again ſecured to his Pruſſian majeſty the poſſeſſion of Sileſia.

Upon the death of the emperor, her huſband, in 1765, her ſon Joſeph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded him in the empire. Soon after his acceſſion, he diſcovered great talents for government, and for partitioning other countries. He joined in the diſmemberment of Poland, with Ruſſia and Pruſſia. He paid a viſit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy; and had a perſonal interview with his Pruſſian majeſty, though this did not prevent hoſtilities from being commenced between Auſtria and Pruſſia, on account of the ſucceſſion to the electorate of Bavaria. The Auſtrian claims on this occaſion were very unjuſt, but in the ſupport of them, while the conteſt continued, the emperor diſplayed great military ſkill. Though vaſt armies were brought into the field on both ſides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. After this event, the emperor was much better employed than in the operations of war, except in his late demands on the Dutch for the free navigation of the Scheldt, &c. contrary to the ſtipulation of former treaties; in obſervance of which, to ſupport his anceſtors, the Dutch as well as Engliſh ſpent many millions of money, and ſacrificed thouſands of ſoule. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, granted a moſt liberal religious toleration, and ſuppreſſed moſt of the religious orders of both ſexes as being utterly uſeleſs and even pernicious to ſociety; and in 1783, by an edict, aboliſhed the remains of ſervitude and villanage, and fixed alſo the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a penſion in lieu. He alſo aboliſhed the uſe of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peaſants and common people laboured. He was a prince of a philoſophical turn of mind, and mixed with his ſubjects with an eaſe and affability that are very uncommon in perſons of his rank. He loved the converſation of ingenious men, and appeared ſolicitous to cultivate that extenſive knowledge, which ennobles thoſe who adorn the elevated ſtation to which he had been raiſed.

Peter Leopold, grand duke of Tuſcany ſucceeded his brother Joſeph II. and engaged the public praiſe by repeated inſtances of moderation and ſolid principles. His former management of his Italian ſovereignty, which was prudent and beneficent, ſhewed that he aſpired to truer reputation, than can be acquired by the mere ſplendours of royalty.—One of the biſhops of Hungary, having refuſed his licence to a catholic ſubject to marry a proteſtant woman, the emperor diſmiſſed him from his ſee; but pardoned him afterwards upon conceſſion, and deſired the biſhop to exhort his brethren to comply with the imperial ordinances, elſe no favour ſhould be ſhewn.

No ſovereign could ſucceed to a throne at a more difficult criſis, than that in which Leopold II. was inveſted with the Imperial purple. By the temerity of his predeceſſor he found himſelf involved in a diſtant and unprofitable war; while the moſt flouriſhing part of his hereditary dominions appeared for ever alienated from the houſe of Auſtria. The emperor Joſeph II. had by his unneceſſary innovation in the church excited the higheſt diſcontents among his Flemiſh ſubjects, who are ſtrongly attached to their religion. What was effected by violence was enforced by ſeverity. The unrelenting perſecution to which all the opponents of Joſeph were expoſed had depopulated the country by continued emigrations. The exiles in the mean time preſerved a ſtrict correſpondence with each other; they had their agents

in every part of Brabant and Flanders, and it is generally ſuppoſed were not deſtitute of foreign ſupport. On different parts of the Auſtrian frontier, they repeatedly attempted to collect their ſcattered forces, and were as conſtantly diſperſed. It was not till the latter end of 1789 that they were able to take effectual meaſures. Then as if by magic an army of 40,000 men appeared in an inſtant of time, and over-ran the whole of Auſtrian Flanders. It was in vain that the emperor Joſeph threatened, in vain he held forth the moſt flattering and conciliatory language, in vain offered to reſtore their ancient conſtitution, and even to endow them with additional privileges In this inauſpicious criſis did Leopold aſcend the throne of his anceſtors. That prince leſs heated with the rage of innovation than his unfortunate predeceſſor, was able clearly to diſcern that his real intereſt no longer conſiſted in reaping barren laurels in the unprofitable conteſt with the Ottomans, but in conciliating or reducing his revolted ſubjects, and in attending to the actual peace and proſperity of his extenſive hereditary dominions. It was even ſaid that the unfortunate Joſeph when humbled and ſubdued by the approach of death, expreſſed the deepeſt contrition for his imprudent conduct, and recommended to his ſucceſſor in the ſtrongeſt terms, the adoption of pacific meaſures with his Flemiſh ſubjects. One of the firſt ſteps therefore of Leopold, was to iſſue a conciliatory proclamation, inviting the revolted provinces to return to their allegiance, pledging himſelf for the reſtoration of their civil and eccleſiaſtical conſtitutions, and promiſing a complete redreſs of every grievance. While ſuch were his proceedings in public he did not neglect to treat in private with the leaders of the two parties. Whether ſucceſsful or not in gaining them to his intereſts, one effect was certain to follow this mode of negociation; it was certain to increaſe that diſtruſt and diſunion, which already exiſted; each party in fact conſidered and repreſented the other as ſold and devoted to the views of Auſtria.

Not truſting, however, entirely to the effects of this negociation, nor to the diſunion which prevailed in the provinces themſelves, the emperor began to withdraw his troops from the Ottoman frontiers, and prepared to ſubdue the inſurgents by vigorous meaſures. General Bender being ſupplied with a reinforcement of freſh troops prepared to renew the war with activity and vigour; the inſurgents being decoyed into a paſs, were there defeated with great ſlaughter; and Leopold at the commencement of the year 1791 had the ſatisfaction to ſee himſelf completely maſter of the Auſtrian Netherlands.

The conference at Pilnitz, between the emperor, the king of Pruſſia, and the elector of Saxony, is the moſt memorable event ſince the peace with Turkey.

A proportional diminution of the forces of Auſtria and Pruſſia, the exchange of the Netherlands for Bavaria, the ſecularization of many German biſhoprics, are ſome of the articles mentioned. A more probable object was to eſtabliſh an alliance between the above powers for mutual defence, and for the preſervation of the peace of Germany.

The emperor was one of the crowned heads, who alarmed by the proceedings of the democratic party of France reſolved to take up arms againſt them. He was however taken away by death from the calamities and wars which were about to deſolate Europe, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Francis, who was raiſed to the Imperial throne in the middle of July following. The politics of the court of Vienna underwent no change by the death of Leopold; his ſucceſſor Francis continuing as ſtrong an enemy to the French revolution as his father. He ſhortly afterwards together with the king of

Pruſſia

Pruſſia declared war againſt them. The events of this war various and fluctuating, checquered ſometimes by victories, generally diſaſtrous, its unfortunate iſſue and the diſgraceful peace concluded by the emperor have been related under France. The preliminaries were ſigned 18th of April 1797, and a congreſs was appointed ſhortly afterwards at Raſtadt, it is not poſſible in our narrow limits to relate the progreſs of the tedious negociation which followed, to point out the intrigues of the regicidal agents, the unprincipled, inſatiable ambition, the duplicity and artful policy of thoſe crafty tyrants who oppreſs France; to expoſe to view this "theatre of Gallic triumph and "German degradation," to ſtigmatiſe that mean, cringing ſpirit, that wayward, ſelfiſh policy, which governed the councils of Germany, and other ſovereign ſtates of Europe; to mark with infamy the total want of all magnanimity, of all honourable pride, as independent nations; to point out the pernicious tendency of that irreſolution and timidity, which inſtead of rejecting with indignation and ſcorn the inſolent demands of the regicides, made the potentates of Europe ſtrive together in "a wretched rivalſhip of degradation," and humble themſelves to France, their inveterate, irreconcileable and determined foe.

While ſuch was the weakneſs of the Imperial miniſters, the French gained all thoſe ends for the attainment of which they aſſumed for a time the maſk of moderation, and inſidiouſly protracted the conferences for peace. Their requiſitions at home had ſo far ſucceeded as to ſupply a reinforcement of eighty thouſand men for their armies, they had dethroned two monarchs, plundered their territories, and thus acquired the means of renewing the war; they had conſolidated their power in Italy, ſtripped Switzerland, and nearly levied an army of eighteen thouſand Swiſs; they had reduced the important fortreſs of Ehrenbreitſtein, and opened for themſelves a way into the heart of Germany. Having completed all theſe preparatory means, the French at laſt threw off the maſk, and ſtimulated by a deſire of cruſhing the Auſtrians, before their allies the Ruſſians, could co-operate with them, and by the neceſſity of providing for their armies, by the plunder of foreign countries, commenced hoſtilities both in Germany and Italy, before the armiſtice was declared to be at an end. They expected by this treacherous proceeding to take the Auſtrians unawares, to overrun the country between the Rhine and the Danube, to excite by means of their emiſſaries, mutiny among the Imperial troops, inſurrection among the peaſantry, and then, puſhing forward, to drive the archduke to the very walls of Vienna, and ſo to intimidate the emperor as to make him liſten to the evil counſels of the enemies of his worthy miniſter Thugot, and to ſacrifice the honour and ſafety of his crown and people, to a puſillanimous deſire for peace. But, happily for the German empire, and for the whole civilized world, the heroic conduct of prince Charles, and the intrepidity of his troops, have averted the impending calamity, and triumphing over every obſtacle, have overwhelmed their treacherous foes with diſgrace.

In the country of the Griſons the French ſurpriſed a ſtrong body of Auſtrians, and after a deſperate reſiſtance took them all priſoners together with Auffenburgh and the whole of his ſtaff. In order, however, to complete their plan, which was to effect a junction of their two armies, that of Maſſena in Switzerland, with that of Jourdan in Germany, it was neceſſary to carry the important poſt of Feldkirch, which was occupied by the Auſtrian general Hotze, whoſe line extended from the frontiers of the Griſons, to the North-eaſt, by the Vocalberg, to the eaſtern extremity of the lake of Conſtance. Being vigorouſly repulſed in his firſt attack, Maſſena, regardleſs, as

uſual,

uſual, of the lives of men, renewed it five different times, with freſh forces and increaſed impetuoſity. But all could not avail againſt the ſteady valour of the Auſtrians, who drove back the aſſailants with immenſe ſlaughter.

The French, however, being in poſſeſſion of the country of the Griſons, the invaſion of the Engadine and the county of Bormio, by a diviſion of the army of Italy, cantoned in the Valteline, under the orders of general Caſabianca was facilitated. The Auſtrians, too weak in that quarter to reſiſt them, retreated into the Tyrol, whither they were purſued by the French, who, with conſiderable loſs, forced ſome of the defiles by which the entrance of that country was defended, and extended their deſtructive incurſions as far as Glurenz and Vauders. Meanwhile, the van-guard of the main army of the Imperialiſts, puſhed forward to meet the enemy, and on the 21ſt. of March attacked the centre of Jourdan's army, which it compelled to retreat from Sulgau to Engen, a diſtance of about twelve leagues. The French then occupied the line from Schaffhauſen through Engen to Dutlingen; and on the approach of the Auſtrians, Jourdan attacked them with his whole force on the 25th, but after gaining ſome advantage on his left wing, was completely defeated in his right and in his centre and compelled to retreat with precipitation.

Theſe ſucceſſes were followed by others ſtill more brilliant, and the enemy were compelled to retire with precipitation from the victorious Auſtrians. The accounts received are not ſufficiently clear to enable us to ſtate with accuracy either the loſs of the French, in theſe different actions, or the ſituations of their reſpective armies, ſubſequent to their defeat. To rate the number of killed, wounded, and taken at thirty thouſand men, would, as far as we can judge from the documents before us, be no exaggeration. But the good conſequences reſulting from the ſucceſs of theſe firſt operations, in inſpiring the enemies of the French with confidence, and in filling the minds of their own troops with diſmay, are incalculable; every attempt to appreciate the influence, which it is calculated to have on the general affairs of Europe, would at this moment be in vain. What will be the final event of the conteſt no man can preſume to determine; but the late brilliant ſucceſſes of the combined powers, of Suwarrow in Italy, and the archduke Charles in Germany, render it probable that the enemy may be expelled from moſt of the countries, which they have plundered and oppreſſed; an event to which, every friend of ſocial order looks with anxious expectation, and with lively hope, as a prelude to that wiſhed for period, when Europe will be freed from the continual apprehenſion of rapine, atheiſm, and anarchy.

Joſeph Benedict-Auguſtus, emperor of Germany, was born in 1741, crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded his father as emperor in 1765, married the ſame year the princeſs Joſephina Maria, of Bavaria, who died in 1767. He had by his firſt wife (the princeſs of Parma) a daughter, Thereſa-Elizabeth, born in 1762, but ſhe is dead and the emperor had no iſſue by his laſt conſort.

Peter-Leopold, the late emperor, ſucceeded his brother as king of Hungary and Bohemia, on Feb. 10, 1790, and was crowned king of the Romans on the 30th of Sept. following. He was born May 5, 1747; married Feb. 16, 1765, Maria Louiſa of Spain, and died March 1, 1792, not without ſuſpicion of poiſon. His empreſs died the 15th of May following.

Francis-Joſeph-Charles, emperor of Germany, and grand duke of Tuſcany. He was born Feb. 3. 1768; married Jan. 6. 1788, Elizabeth, prin-

ceſs

ceſs of Wertemberg, who died 1790. He married 2dly, Sept. 17, 1790, Maria Thereſa of Naples, his couſin.

On the death of his father Peter-Leopold, late emperor, March 1ſt. 1792, he ſucceeded to the crown of Hungary and Bohemia, and July 14, 1792, was elected emperor of Germany.

He had no iſſue by his firſt marriage. By the latter he has two daughters Maria Thereſa, born Dec. 12, 1791.

The late emperor Peter-Leopold had 15 children, the eldeſt of whom is the preſent emperor; the others are,

Ferdinand-Joſeph, born May 5, 1769; married Sept. 17, 1790, Maria-Amelia of Naples.

Charles Lewis, born Sept. 3. 1771.

Alexander-Leopold-Joſeph, born Aug. 1, 1772.

Maximilian, born Dec. 23, 1774, died May 9, 1778.

Joſeph-Anthony, born May 9, 1776.

Anthony-Victor, born Aug. 31, 1779.

A ſon, born Jan. 20, 1782.

Regnier-Jerom, born Sept. 30, 1783.

Thereſa-Joſepha-Charlotta-Jane, born Jan. 14, 1767

Maria born Jan. 14, 1767; married Oct. 18, 1787, Anthony brother to the elector of Saxony.

Mary Ann-Ferdinanda-Joſepha, born April 21, 1770.

Mary-Clementina-Joſepha, born April 24, 1777; married Sept. 1790.

Francis-Jannarius prince royal of Naples. Has iſſue, Nov. 1798, a ſon.

Maria-Joſepha-Thereſa, born Oct. 15, 1780.

A princeſs, born Oct. 22, 1784.

Maria-Antonietta, born and died in 1786.

The late emperor has living two ſiſters, and one brother *unmarried*. Thoſe *married* are,

Maria-Chriſtiana-Joſepha, born May 13, 1742; married April 8, 1766, to prince Albert of Saxony. Died 24 June 1798.

Maria-Amelia-Joſepha, born Feb. 26, 1746; married to the reigning duke of Parma, June 27, 1769.

Mary-Caroline-Louiſa, born Aug. 13, 1752; married April 7, 1768, to the king of the Two Sicilies.

Ferdinand-Ch.-Antonine, born June 1, 1754; married to the princeſs Maria-Beatrice of Modena, and has iſſue.

Maria-Antonietta, born Nov 2, 1755; married to Lewis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French, murdered, Oct. 1793.

ELECTORS.] Three Eccleſiaſtical Electors, called Electoral Highneſſes; and five ſecular ones, moſt Serene Electoral Highneſſes.

ECCLESIASTICAL ELECTORS.] 1. Frederic-Charles-Joſeph, baron of Erthal, archbiſhop and elector of Mentz, born July 18, 1774.

2. Prince Clement of Saxony (ſon of Aug. III. king of Poland) born Sept. 28, 1739, archbiſhop and elector of Treves, Feb. 10, 1768, alſo biſhop of Treſingen and Augſburg, by diſpenſation from the pope.

3. Maximilian-Francis, brother to the late emperor, grand maſter of the Teutonic order, archbiſhop and elector of Cologne, and biſhop of Munſter, born Dec. 8, 1756.

SECULAR ELECTORS.] 1. Francis-Joſeph-Charles, emperor of Germany, king of Hungary, Bohemia, &c. born Feb. 2, 1768.

2. Frederic-Auguſtus, IV. elector and duke of Saxony, born Dec. 23, 1750; married Jan. 17, 1769, to the princeſs Amelia-Auguſta, de Deux Ponts.

3. Charles-Frederic, elector and marquis of Brandenburg.
4. The prince of Deux Ponts, elector Palatine, &c.
5. George III. king of Great Britain, elector of Hanover, &c.

SAXE-GOTHA.] Erneſt Lewis, duke of, nephew to the late princeſs dowager of Wales, born Jan. 30, 1745; married May 21, 1769, to Maria Charlotte of Saxe-Meningen, by whom he has,

1. Erneſt, born Feb. 27, 1770.
2. Emilius-Leopold, born Nov. 24, 1772.

His brother Auguſtus, born Aug. 14, 1747.

MECKLENBURGH.] The houſe of Mecklenburgh is divided into two branches. viz.

I. Mecklenburgh Schwerin—Frederic, reigning duke, born Nov. 9, 1717; married in 1746, Louiſa Frederica, daughter of Frederic Louis, hereditary prince of Wertemburg Stutgard, born Feb. 3, 1722; they have no iſſue—Iſſue of the late Prince Louis, by the princeſs Charlotte Sophia, of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfield.

Frederic-Francis, born Dec. 10, 1756.

Princeſs Ulrica Sophia, ſiſter to the reigning duke, born July 1, 1723, governeſs of the convent of Ruhne.

II. Mecklenburgh Strelitz.—Adolphus-Frederic, reigning duke (knight of the garter), born May 5, 1738.—His brothers and ſiſters are,

1. Charles Lewis Frederic, a Lieut. general in the Hanoverian ſervice, born Oct 10, 1741; married Sept. 18, 1768, to Frederica-Charlotte-Louiſa, of Heſſe-Darmſtadt, by whom he had iſſue,
   1. Carolina-Georgina Louiſa Frederica, born Nov. 17, 1769.
   2. Thereſa-Matilda-Amelia, born April 5, 1778.
3. Erneſt-Gotlob Albert, major-general in the Hanoverian ſervice and governor of Zell, born Aug. 7. 1742.
4. Chriſtiana Sophia-Albertina, born Dec. 6, 1735. died 1794.
5. Charlotte, queen conſort of Great Britain, born May 19, 1744; married Sept. 8, 1761; crowned Sept. 22, 1761;

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

Lat 52°-40—55°-50 N.
Long. 16°-00—to 23°-23 E.

Containing 22,144 ſquare miles, with 67 inhabitants in each.—The whole dominions 60,000 ſquare miles, with 104 inhabitants to each.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT.] THIS country is bounded to the North by part of Samogitia; to the SOUTH, by Poland Proper and Maſovia; to the Eaſt, by part of Lithuania; and to the Weſt, by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic. Its greateſt length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND RIVERS.] The name of Pruſſia is probably derived from the Boruſſi, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horſes, ſheep, deer, and game, wild boars, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well ſtored with fiſhes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coaſts towards the Baltic. The woods furniſh the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, beſides quantities of pot-aſhes. The rivers here ſometimes do damage by inundations; and the principal are, the Viſtula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Paſſarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As Pruſſia, ſince the beginning of the preſent century has become a moſt reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe, I ſhall for the information of my readers, deviate from my uſual plan, that I may bring before their eyes the whole of his Pruſſian majeſty's territories, which lie ſcattered in other diviſions of Germany, Poland, Switzerland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which they will find in the following table:

Proteſtants.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities	
Poland.	Ducal Pruſſia	9,950	160	112	KONINGSBERG	54 43 N. Lat.
	Royal Pruſſia	6,400	118	104	Elbing	21-35 E. Lon.
Up. Sax.	Brandenburg	10,910	215	110	Berlin	
	Pomerania	4,810	150	63	Camin	
	Swed Pomerania	2,991	90	48	Stetin	
Lo. Sax.	Magdeburg	1,535	63	50	Magdeburgh	
	Halberſtat	450	42	17	Halberſtat	
Bohemia.	Glatz	550	38	23	Glatz	
	Sileſia	10,000	196	92	Breslaw	
	Minden	595	42	26	Minden	
Weſtphalia.	Ravenſberg	525	38	34	Ravenſburg	
	Lingen	120	15	11	Lingen	
	Cleves	630	43	21	Cleves	
	Meurs	35	10	6	Meurs	
	Mark	980	52	43	Ham	
	Eaſt Friesland	690	46	32	Embden	
	Lippe	85	8	4	Lipſtadt	
	Gulich	518	44	24	Gulich	
	Tecklenburg	36	12	6	Tecklenburg	
Netherlands.	Gelder	360	34	23	Gelders	
Switzerland.	Neufchatel	310	32	20	Neufchatel	
	Total—	51,181				

Beſides a great part of Sileſia, which the preſent king of Pruſſia under various pretences has wreſted from Auſtria; availing himself alſo of the internal troubles in Poland, he has, by virtue of no other right than that which a powerful army confers on every tyrant, ſeized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Viſtula, and the Neiſter, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, cloſe to the walls of Dantzic. Theſe acquiſitions may be traced in the map.

I ſhall here confine myſelf to Pruſſia as a kingdom, becauſe his Pruſſian majeſty's other dominions fall under the deſcription of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom alone, were, by Dr. Buſching, computed to amount to 635,998 perſons capable of bearing arms: and if ſo (for I greatly doubt that this computation is exaggerated) it muſt then be more populous than is generally imagined. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 coloniſts have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburghers. Theſe emigrants have built 400 ſmall villages, 11 towns, 86 ſeats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village ſchools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from thoſe of the other inhabitants of Germany. The ſame may be ſaid of their cuſtoms and diverſions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES. } The religion of Pruſſia is very tolerant. The eſtabliſhed religions are thoſe of the Lutherans and Calviniſts, but chiefly the former; but papiſts, antipœdo-baptiſts, and almoſt all other ſects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns,

abounds in ſchools. An univerſity was founded at Koningſberg in 1544; but we know of no very remarkable learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Pruſſia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains 280 pariſhes, and the latter 105.

Koningſberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, ſeated on the river Pregel, over which it has ſeven bridges, is about 84 miles from Dantzick. According to Dr. Buſching, this city is ſeven miles in circumference, and contains three thouſand eight hundred houſes, and about ſixty-thouſand inhabitants. This computation is a little exaggerated, becauſe it ſuppoſes at an average, near 16 perſons in every houſe. Koningſberg has ever made a conſiderable figure in commerce and ſhipping, its river being navigable for ſhips; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, beſides 298 coaſters; and 373 floats of timber were, in the compaſs of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, beſides its college or univerſity, which contains 38 profeſſors, boaſts of magnificent palaces, a town-houſe, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embelliſhments. It has a good harbour and a citadel, which is called Fredericſburg, a regular ſquare.

ANTIQUITIES, AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } See Germany.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The preſent king of Pruſſia has endeavoured to encreaſe the commerce of his kingdom; but the deſpotic nature of his government is not favourable to trade and manufactures. The Pruſſian manufactures, however, are not inconſiderable; they conſiſt of glaſs, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper, and braſs mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, ſilk, ſtockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval ſtores, amber, linſeed, and hempſeed, oatmeal, fiſh, mead, tallow, and caviar; and it is ſaid that 50 ſhips are loaded every year with thoſe commodities chiefly from Koningſberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Pruſſian majeſty is abſolute through all his dominions, and he avails himſelf to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of ſtate, viz. 1. The great maſter; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marſhal. There are alſo ſome other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The ſtates conſiſt, 1. Of counſellors of ſtate; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and 3. From the commons. Beſides theſe inſtitutions, his majeſty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Pruſſian majeſty, by means of the happy ſituation of his country, its inland navigation, and his own ſkilful political regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the ſeat of boors and barbariſm. It is ſaid, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues ariſe from his demeſnes, his duties of cuſtoms and tolls, and the ſubſidies yearly granted by the ſeveral ſtates; but the exact ſum is not known; though we may conclude it is very conſiderable from the immenſe charges of the late war. The revenue which the king draws from Sileſia, amounts annually to 5,854,632 rix dollars, and after deducting the expences of the military eſtabliſhment, and all others, there is a net revenue of 1,554,632 rix dollars. His revenues now, ſince the acceſſion of Poliſh or Royal Pruſſia, muſt be greatly increaſed: excluſive of its fertility, commerce and population, its local ſituation was of vaſt importance, as it lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Pruſſia. By this acquiſition, his dominions are compact, and his troops may march from Berlin to Koningſberg without interruption.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Pruſſian army, even in time of peace, con-

conſiſts of about 180,000 of the beſt diſciplined troops in the world; and, during the laſt war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconſiſtent with the intereſts of the people. The army is chiefly compoſed of provincial regiments; the whole Pruſſian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the ſize and populouſneſs of the diviſions, have been originally raiſed, and from it the recruits continue to be taken; and each particular regiment is always quartered, in the time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of ſons a peaſant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the ſervice except one, who is left to aſſiſt in the management of the farm. The reſt wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are deſtined to be ſoldiers, and obliged to enter into the ſervice whenever they are called upon. But the maintaining ſo large an army in a country naturally ſo little equal to it, has occaſioned ſuch a drain from population, and ſuch a withdrawing of ſtrength from the labours of the earth, that the preſent king has endeavoured in ſome degree to ſave his own peaſantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. Theſe foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Pruſſians have every year ſome months of furlough, during which they return to the houſes of their fathers or brothers, and work at the buſineſs of the farm, or in any other way they pleaſe.

ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Pruſſia are argent, an eagle diſplayed ſable, crowned, or, for Pruſſia. Azure, the imperial ſceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle diſplayed, gules, with ſemicircular wreaths, for the marquiſate of Brandenburg. To theſe are added the reſpective arms of the ſeveral provinces ſubject to the Pruſſian crown.

There are four orders of knighthood, The "Order of *Concord*," inſtituted by Chriſtian Erneſt, margrave of Brandenburgh, in the year 1660, to diſtinguiſh the part he had acted in reſtoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburgh, and afterwards king of Pruſſia, inſtituted in 1685, the "Order of *Generoſity*." The knights wear a croſs of eight points enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Generoſité*," pendent to a blue riband. The ſame prince inſtituted the "Order of the *Black Eagle*," on the day of his coronation at Koningſberg, in the year 1700; the ſovereign is always grand-maſter, and the number of knights excluſive of the royal family, is limited to thirty who muſt all be admitted into the order of "*Generoſity*," previous to their receiving this, unleſs they be ſovereign princes. The Order of "*Merit*," was inſtituted by the late king in the year 1740 to reward the merit of perſons either in arms or arts, without diſtinction of birth, religion, or country; the king is ſovereign, and the number of knights unlimited.

HISTORY.] The ancient hiſtory of Pruſſia, like that of other kingdoms, is loſt in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, deſcended from the Sclavonians, and refuſed to ſubmit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to chriſtianity, wanted to ſubject them to ſlavery. They made a noble ſtand againſt the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleſlaus IV. was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and pagans, till the time of the cruſades, when the German knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their converſion by the edge of the ſword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property

perty of the country when conquered. A long ſeries of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the moſt incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans.—After a vaſt waſte of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Caſimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the cauſe of the oppreſſed people, by which it was agreed, that the part now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-maſter ſhould poſſeſs the other part, but were to acknowledge themſelves vaſſals of Poland. This gave riſe to freſh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unſucceſsfully, to throw off their vaſſalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the laſt grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, laid aſide the habit of his order, and embraced Lutheraniſm, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia (formerly called, for that reaſon, Ducal Pruſſia,) but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to deſcend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male iſſue, to his brother, and their male heirs. Thus ended the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, deſervedly called the Great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him, and by the conventions of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed by John Caſimir, king of Poland, from vaſſalage; and he and his deſcendants were declared independent and ſovereign lords of this part of Pruſſia.

As the proteſtant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that perſuaſion, the Proteſtant intereſt favoured them ſo much, that Frederick, the ſon of Frederick William the Great, was raiſed to the dignity of king of Pruſſia, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates, and proclaimed January 18, 1701, and ſoon after acknowledged as ſuch by all the powers of Chriſtendom. His grandſon, the late king of Pruſſia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this firſt king's talents for government, but expatiates on thoſe of his own father, Frederic William, who ſucceeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of ſtrong natural parts, and performed prodigious ſervices to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is ſaid to have left ſeven millions ſterling in his treaſury, which enabled his ſon, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful reſources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the preſent age. He improved the arts of peace as well as of war, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a poet, philoſopher, and legiſlator. Some of the principal tranſactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the hiſtory of Germany. In the year 1783 he publiſhed a reſcript, ſignifying his pleaſure that no kneeling in future ſhould be practiſed in honour of his perſon, aſſigning for his reaſon, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the Divinity: and near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him in 1782 in draining marſhes, eſtabliſhing factories, ſettling colonies, relieving diſtreſs, and in other purpoſes of philanthrophy and policy.

The preſent king of Pruſſia, who ſucceeded his uncle Auguſt 17, 1786, hath made many wiſe and ſalutary regulations for his ſubjects, and hath eſtabliſhed a court of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of duelling in his dominions.

The exertions of Pruſſia againſt France have been already related in our account of that nation. If we credit the French accounts, the alliance be-

twee

tween Pruſſia and Auſtria is condemned by all the great Pruſſian ſtateſmen; has produced a political ſchiſm in the court of Berlin; and a general diſcontent prevails in Pruſſia. The war exhauſts the treaſures laid up by the great Frederic, and the recruiting of the army has become ſo difficult, that the miniſters cannot, without endangering the interior tranquillity, ſend the king an army of 30,000 men, which he ordered. Jealouſies certainly prevail between the courts of Berlin and Vienna.

The conduct of Pruſſia with regard to Poland we can hardly explain; and it would apparently have been more for the intereſt of the former to have erected the latter as a formidable independent barrier againſt Ruſſia and Auſtria, than to have expoſed itſelf to the enormous and increaſed power of Ruſſia. Pruſſia is no longer guided by the great Frederic; and ſhould that kingdom continue to purſue an impolitic ſyſtem of conduct, the inferiority of its extent and reſources will cauſe it to vaniſh as ſuddenly as it aroſe.

The king of Pruſſia joined the coalition againſt France of which however he ſoon tired, and would have withdrawn, if he had not had a very material object in view, and that was the reimburſement of expences. In the month of January the king had attempted to exact a ſum for the proviſioning of his army from the ſix frontier circles. Being diſappointed in that quarter, however, he reſolved to apply to the Britiſh miniſtry. For this purpoſe, he iſſued a proclamation on the 13th of March, addreſſed to the German empire, declaring his ceſſation from the grand confederacy. In conſequence of this declaration, the Britiſh miniſtry and the States General agreed to take into pay, 62,400 Pruſſians, for which 50,000 pounds a-month was agreed to be paid, beſides the ſum of 300,000, which was paid immediately. Having gained the end, for which he had acted with ſuch duplicity, the king of Pruſſia at length threw off the maſk, made a peace with the French, and recalled all his troops into his own dominions.

From this period the king of Pruſſia has remained an unconcerned ſpectator of the French uſurpations; inſtead of making any attempt to ſupport the emperor in the dreadful conteſt in which he was engaged, he took advantage of his diſtreſſes, and by an act of complicated baſeneſs, ſeized upon part of his dominions. Whether he will ever awake from that falſe ſecurity in which he has hitherto remained, whether he will riſe above the mean intereſted views by which all his motions have hitherto been directed, whether, animated by the glorious ſucceſſes of the combined powers, and their gallant exertions, he will at length unite againſt the common enemy, is a point which can only be determined by his future conduct; his mind muſt be woefully blind, if he can for a moment imagine that Pruſſia will remain an independent nation, amid the ſad wreck of every thing, great and venerable in the world, the fall of thrones, the violation of altars, and the deſtruction of governments; if he can for a moment imagine that by any human prudence the veſſel of ſtate can be ſafely guided through the innumerable perils which threaten her, that any ſkill of the pilot can preſerve her from being ſwallowed up in the troubled ocean, which roars around.

Frederic IV. king of Pruſſia, and Elector of Brandenburgh, born Sept. 25, 1744; married, July, 14th, 1769, to the Princeſs Elizabeth-Chriſtiana Ulrica, of Brunſwick, Wolfenbuttle. 2. On July 14, 1769, to Frederica, Louiſa, of Heſſe Darmſtadt.

Iſſue by the firſt marriage.

Frederica-Charlotta-Ulrica-Catherine, born May 7, 1767; married Sept. 29, 1791, to the Duke of York, the ſecond ſon of his Britannic Majeſty.

Iſſue by the latter marriage.

1. Frederic William, born Aug. 3, 1770.

2. Fre-

2. Frederic-Louis Charles, born Aug. 3, 1773.
3. Frederica-Sophia, Wilhelmina, born Nov. 18, 1774; married Oct. 1. 1791, to the Hereditary Prince of Orange.
4. Frederic-Chriſtian Auguſtus, born May 1, 1780.
5. Another prince, born Dec. 20, 1781.
6. Another prince born July, 1783.

Queen Dowager, Elizabeth Chriſtian of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle, born, Nov. 8, 1715.

Brother and ſiſter to the king.

1. Frederic-Charles-Henry, born Dec. 30, 1747.
2. Frederica-Sophia-Wilhelmina, born in 1751; and married in 1767, to the preſent prince of Orange.

The KINGDOM of BOHEMIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 478	between	48 and 52 north latitude.
Breadth 322		12 and 19 eaſt longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, on the Eaſt; by Auſtria and Bavaria, on the South; and by the palatinate of Bavaria on the Weſt; formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Sileſia; and, 3. Moravia.

Diviſions.	Chief Towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. moſtly ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria.	Prague, E. lon. 14-20. N. lat. 50. Koningſgratz, E. Glatz, E. ſubject to the king of Pruſſia. Egra, W.	Length 162 Breadth 142	12,060
2. Sileſia, Eaſt, moſtly ſubject to the king of Pruſſia.	Breſlaw, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15. Glogaw, N. Croſſen, N. Jagendorf, S. Tropaw, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria. Teſchen, S. ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Length 196 Breadth 92	10,250
3. Moravia, S. entirely ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.	Olmutz, E. lon. 16-45 N lat. 49-40. Brin, middle. Igla, S. W.	Length 120 Breadth 88	5,424

Soil and air.] The air of Bohemia Proper is not thought ſo wholeſome as that of the reſt of Germany, though its ſoil and produce are pretty much the ſame.

Mountains and rivers.] Bohemia, though almoſt ſurrounded with mountains, contains none of note or diſtinction: its woods are many, and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

Metals and minerals.] This kingdom contains rich mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, iron, lead, ſulphur, and ſaltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron and glaſs.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] We have no certain account of the preſent population of Bohemia; about 150 years ago, it was computed to contain near 3,000,000 of inhabitants; but at preſent not above 2,100,000. The Bohemians, in their perſons, habits, and manners, reſemble the Germans. There is, among them, no middle ſtate of people; for every lord is a ſovereign, and every tenant a ſlave. But the emperor Joſeph II. generouſly diſcharged the Bohemian peaſants, on the Imperial demeſnes, from the ſtate of villainage in which they had been ſo long and ſo unjuſtly retained; and it will be happy if his example ſhould be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and they be thereby led to ceaſe to deprive their vaſſals of the rights of human nature. Although the Bohemians, at preſent, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly diſtinguiſhed themſelves as the moſt intrepid aſſertors of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witneſs the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was ſcarcely known in any other; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Auſtrian power, and their generous ſtruggles for independency. Their virtues may be conſidered as the cauſes of their decay, as no means were left unemployed by their deſpotic maſters for breaking their ſpirit: though it is certain their internal jealouſies and diſſenſions greatly contributed to their ſubjection. Their cuſtoms and diverſions are the ſame as in Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the eſtabliſhed religion of Bohemia, yet there are many proteſtants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion; and ſome of the Moravians have embraced a viſionary unintelligible proteſtantiſm, if it deſerves that name, which they have propagated, by their zealous miſſionaries, in ſeveral parts of the globe; ſome of whom a few years ago made proſelytes in Great Britain; they have ſtill a meeting-houſe in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a ſettlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbiſhopric. The biſhoprics are Koningſgratz, Breſlaw, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian, but they generally ſpeak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only univerſity in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is one of the fineſt and moſt magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is ſo large, that the grand Pruſſian army, in its laſt ſiege, never could completely inveſt it. For this reaſon it is able to make a vigorous defence in caſe of a regular ſiege. The inhabitants are thought not to be proportioned to its capaciouſneſs, being computed not to exceed 70,000 Chriſtians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 44 cloiſters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are ſaid to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, ſome of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for ſtrength nor manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia: it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glaſs, paper, and gunpowder. Breſlaw, the capital of Sileſia, hath been already deſcribed.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian conſtitution ſtill ſubſiſt; but the government under the emperor is deſpotic. Their ſtates are compoſed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and repreſentatives of towns. Their ſovereigns of late

have not been fond of provoking them by ill uſage, as they have a general averſion towards the Auſtrians. This kingdom is frequently deſcribed as part of Germany, but with little reaſon, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it ſubject to any of its laws. What gives ſome colour to this miſtake, is, that the king of Bohemia is the firſt ſecular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

Revenues.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the ſovereign is pleaſed to exact from the ſtates of the kingdom, when they are annually aſſembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000l. a year.

Arms.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tail moved, and paſſed in ſaltier, crowned, langued, and armed, or.

History.] The Bohemian nobility uſed to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany ſometimes impoſed a king upon them, and at length uſurped that throne themſelves. In the year 1438, Albert II. of Auſtria, received three crowns, Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414, John Huſs, and Jerome of Prague, two of the firſt reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Conſtance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occaſioned an inſurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Ziſca, aſſembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in ſeveral engagements, and drove the Imperialiſts out of the kingdom. The diviſions of the Huſſites among themſelves enabled the emperors to regain and keep poſſeſſion of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a proteſtant king in the perſon of the prince Palatine, ſon-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and, being ſtripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a ſubſiſtence. After a war of 30 years duration, which deſolated the whole empire, the Bohemians have remained ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

HUNGARY.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length	300	between	16-35 and 26	East long.	36,060
Breadth	200		44-50 and 49-53	North lat.	

Containing 87,575 ſquare miles, with 57 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the houſe of Auſtria (for it formerly included Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Wallachia, and other countries), is bounded by Poland, on the North; by Tranſylvania and Wallachia, Eaſt; by Sclavonia, South; and by Auſtria and Moravia, Weſt.

The

The kingdom of Hungary is uſually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

Upper HUNGARY, North of the Danube. Chief Towns.	Lower HUNGARY, South of the Danube. Chief Towns.
Preſburg, ſituate on the Danube, E. lon. 17-30. N. lat. 48-20.	Buda, on the Danube, E. lon. 19-20. N. lat. 47-40.
Newhauſel, N. W.	Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.
Leopolſtadt, N. W.	Comorra, on the Danube, in the iſland of Schut.
Chremnits, N. W.	Raab, on the Danube, oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Schemnits, in the middle.	Atlenburg, W. oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Eſperies, N.	Weiſſenburg, or Alba Regalis, ſituated E. of the lake, called the Platten ſea.
Caſchaw, N.	Kaniſba, S. W. of the Platten ſea.
Tokay, N. E.	Five Churches, N. of the river Drave.
Zotmar, N. E.	
Unguar, N. E.	
Mongats, N. E.	
Waradin, Great, E.	
Segedin, S. E.	
Agria, in the middle.	
Peſt, on the Danube, oppoſite to Buda.	

To which may be added Temeſwar, which has been conſidered as diſtinct from Hungary, becauſe it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has ſeveral times been in poſſeſſion of the Turks; but the Auſtrians gaining poſſeſſion of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778. The province of Temeſwar is 94 miles long, and 67 broad, containing about 3850 ſquare miles: it has been divided into four diſtricts, Cſadat, Temeſwar, Werſchez, and Lugos. Temeſwar, the principal town, is ſituated E. lon. 22-15. N. lat. 45-54.

Air, soil, and produce.] The air, and conſequently the climate of the ſouthern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, ſtagnated waters, and marſhes; but the northern parts, being mountainous and barren, the air is ſweet and wholeſome. No country in the world can boaſt a richer ſoil, than that plain which extends 300 miles from Preſburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, graſs, eſculent plants, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, pulſe, millet, buck-wheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, cheſnuts, and wood: corn is in ſuch plenty, that it ſells for one ſixth part of its price in England.

Rivers.] Theſe are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

Water.] Hungary contains ſeveral lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains, of conſiderable extent, and abounding with fiſh. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed the moſt ſovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raiſed by the Turks when in poſſeſſion of the country, particularly thoſe of Buda, are ſuffered to go to decay.

Mountains.] The Carpathian mountains which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary, though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their ſides grow the richeſt grapes in the world.

Metals and minerals.] Hungary is remarkably well ſtocked with

both. It abounds not only with gold and ſilver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, chryſocolla, and terra ſigillata. Before Hungary became the ſeat of deſtructive wars between Turks and Chriſtians, or fell under the power of the Houſe of Auſtria, thoſe mines were furniſhed with proper works and workmen, and produced vaſt revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and ſilver employed mint-houſes, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all thoſe mines are now greatly diminiſhed in their value, their works being deſtroyed or demoliſhed: ſome of them however, ſtill ſubſiſt, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of Horſes, generally mouſe-coloured, and highly eſteemed by military officers, ſo that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Preſburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the ſame with thoſe of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to thoſe of any other country at leaſt in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary; and ſome of the deſcendants of their legionary forces are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got poſſeſſion of Conſtantinople, we have reaſon to think that Hungary was one of the moſt populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe: and if the Houſe of Auſtria ſhould give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become ſo again in about a century hence. Both Hungaries, at preſent, excluſive of Tranſylvania and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to ſelves They pique themſelves on being deſcended from thoſe heroes, who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. In their perſons they are well made. Their fur-caps, their cloſe-bodied coats, girded by a ſaſh, and their cloak or mantle, which is ſo contrived as to buckle under the arm, ſo that the right hand may be always at liberty, give them an air of military dignity. The men ſhave their beards, but preſerve their whiſkers on their upper lips. Their uſual arms are a broad ſword, and a kind of pole-ax, beſides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handſomer than thoſe of Auſtria, and their ſable dreſs with ſleeves ſtraight to their arms, and their ſtays faſtened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and Engliſh ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur, and even ſheep-ſkin dreſſes. The inns upon the roads are moſt miſerable hovels, and even thoſe ſeldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peaſants and their poultry, live in the ſame apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, are the predominant diſeaſes in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other ſtrangers ſettled in their country, the flatneſs of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diverſions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their anceſtors, even ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were ſo jealous of their liberties, that rather than be tyranniſed over by the houſe of Auſtria, they often put themſelves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but

but their fidelity to the late empreſs-queen, notwithſtanding the provocations they received from her houſe, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeſwar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at 450,000. There are in this country many faraons, or gypſies, ſuppoſed to be real deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians. They are ſaid to reſemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propenſity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and cuſtoms; and it is aſſerted, that the laſcivious dances of Iſis, the worſhip of onions, many famous Egyptian ſuperſtitions and ſpecifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are ſtill in uſe among the female gypſies in Temeſwar.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of the Hungarians is the Roman catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are proteſtants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exerciſe of their religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are Preſburg, Gran, and Colocza. The biſhoprics are, Great Waradin, Agria, Veſprin, Raab, and five churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is ſaid to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemoſt rank ſpeak German, and almoſt all even of the common people ſpeak Latin, either pure or barbarous, ſo that the Latin may be ſaid to be here ſtill a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the univerſities, (if they can be properly ſo called) of Tirnan, Buda, Raab, and Caſchaw, are profeſſors of the ſeveral arts and ſciences, who uſed generally to be Jeſuits; ſo that the Lutherans, and Calviniſts, who are more numerous than the Roman Catholics in Hungary, go to the German and other univerſities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The artificial curioſities of this country conſiſt of its bridges, baths, and mines. The bridge of Eſſeck built over the Danube, and Drave, is, properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. It was an important paſs during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and about twenty Hungarian miles diſtant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge erected by the Romans, judged to be the moſt magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to diſtinguiſh them from the like works in other countries,

One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities of Hungary, is a cavern, in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad; its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching away farther ſouth than has yet been diſcovered; as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be fifty fathoms, and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article of great curioſity Aſtoniſhing rocks are common in Hungary, and ſome of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE;] Theſe are greatly decayed from their ancient magnificence: but many of the fortifications are ſtill very ſtrong, and kept in good order. Preſburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia were kept, but were

were lately removed to Vienna, the crown was ſent in the year 1000 by pope Sylveſter II. to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of ſolid gold, weighing nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with 53 ſaphires, 50 rubies one large emerald, and 338 pearls. Beſides theſe ſtones, are the images of the apoſtles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a ſilver patriarchal croſs, which was afterwards inſerted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation a biſhop carries it before the king. From the croſs is derived the title of apoſtolic king; the uſe of which was renewed uuder the reign of the empreſs Maria Thereſa. The ſceptre and the globe of the kingdom are Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is ſaid to be the work of Giſele, ſpouſe to St. Stephen, who, they ſay, embroidered in gold the image of Jeſus Chriſt crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apoſtles, with a number of inſcriptions. The ſword is two edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its ſtrength and fortifications; and the ſame may be ſaid of Peſt, which lies on the oppoſite ſide of the Danube. Raab is likewiſe a ſtrong city, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives conſiſt of metals, drugs, and ſalt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians diſlike the term of queen, and even called their late ſovereign king Thereſa. Their government preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which reſembles our chancery, and which reſides at Vienna; as the ſtadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the Britiſh privy-council, but has a municipal juriſdiction, does at Preſburg. Every royal town has its ſenate; and the Geſpan chafts reſemble our juſtices of the peace. Beſides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other ſubordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring to the field at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but ſeldom draws out of it above 10,000; theſe are generally light-horſe, and well known to modern times by the name of Huſſars. They are not ſo large as the German horſe; and therefore the Huſſars ſtand upon their ſhort ſtirrups when they ſtrike. Their expedition and alertneſs have been found ſo ſerviceable in war, that the greateſt powers in Europe, have troops that go by the ſame name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the enemies they pretend to have killed: both horſe and foot are an excellent militia, very good at a purſuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops, in a pitched battle.

COINS.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are ſtill extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete ſeries of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been diſcovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

ARMS.] The emperor, as king of Hungary, for armorial enſigns, bears quarterly, barwiſe argent, and gules of eight pieces.

HISTORY.] The Huns, after ſubduing this country in the middle of the third century communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were ſucceeded by the furious Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards; they by the Avari; and the Sclavi were planted in their ſtead in the beginning of the 9th century. At the

cloſe

cloſe of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took poſſeſſion of the country. Hungary was formerly an aſſemblage of different ſtates, and the firſt who aſſumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Chriſtianity. In his reign, the form of government was eſtabliſhed, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert aſcended the throne, and ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces: but many of thoſe armies were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladiſlaus, bravely repulſed the Turks, when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladiſlaus, the Hungarians, in 1438 raiſed Matthias Corvinus, ſon of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting againſt Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle almoſt proved fatal to Hungary; but the archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V. having married the ſiſter of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he ſucceeded, with ſome difficulty, and that kingdom has ever ſince belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, though by its conſtitution its crown ought to be elective. For the reſt of the Hungarian hiſtory, ſee Germany.

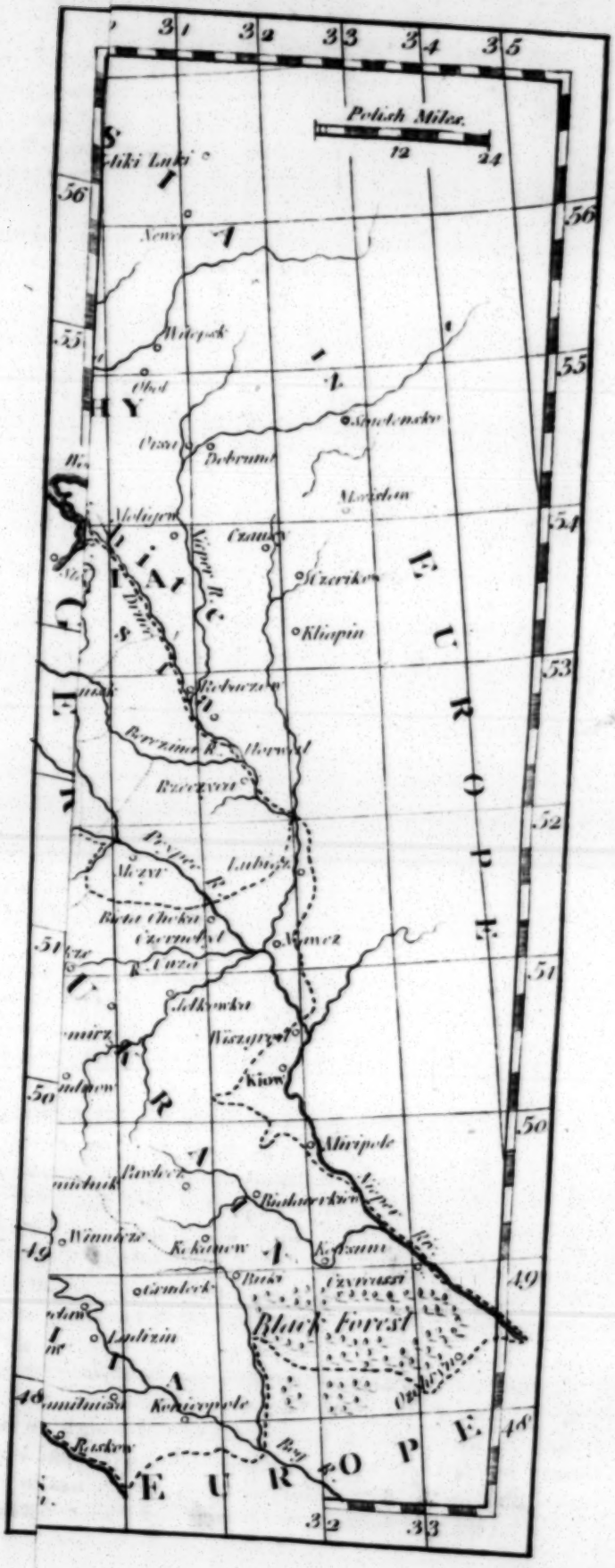
TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

I HAVE thrown thoſe countries under one diviſion, for ſeveral reaſons, and particularly becauſe we have no account ſufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The beſt account of them is as follows; TRANSYLVANIA belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, and is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the eaſt by Moldavia and Wallachia; on the South by Wallachia; and on the Weſt by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 26 degrees of eaſt longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 ſquare miles, but is ſurrounded on all ſides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Hungary. The air is wholeſome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanſtadt, and its interior government ſtill partakes greatly of the ancient feudal ſyſtem, being compoſed of many independent ſtates and princes. They owe not much more than a nominal ſubjection to the Auſtrians, who leave them in poſſeſſion of moſt of their privileges. Papiſts, Lutherans, Calviniſts, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other ſectaries, here enjoy their ſeveral religions. Tranſylvania is thought to add but little to the Auſtrian revenue, though it exports ſome metals and ſalt to Hungary. The other large places are Sageſwar, Millenback, and Newmark. All ſorts of proviſions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanſtadt, is a large, ſtrong, and well built city, as are Clauſenburg and Weiſſenburg. The ſeat of government is at Hermanſtadt, and the governor is aſſiſted by a council made up of Roman Catholics, Calviniſts, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by ſummons, and receives the commands of the ſovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonſtrances and repreſentations in caſe of grievances.

Tran-

Tranſylvania is part of ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms, before they could be ſubdued. It was overrun by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their deſcendants retain the ſame military character. The population of the country is not aſcertained; but if the Tranſylvanians can bring to the field, as has been aſſerted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants muſt be conſiderable. At preſent its military force is reduced to ſix regiments of 1566 men each; but it is well known that during the laſt two wars, in which the houſe of Auſtria was engaged, the Tranſylvanians did great ſervices. Hermanſtadt is its only biſhopric; and the Tranſylvanians at preſent ſeem to trouble themſelves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman catholic is the eſtabliſhed church. Stephen I. king of Hungary, introduced Chriſtianity there about the year 1000, and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vaviod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under ſlavery; and though the treaty of Carlowits in 1699, gave the ſovereignty of Tranſylvania, as alſo of Sclavonia, to the houſe of Auſtria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal ariſtocracy, which their ſovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppreſſions of the nobility, near 10,000 aſſembled, and committed great depredations on thoſe whoſe conduct had been reſented. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to eſcape with their lives. The revolters were diſappointed in their attempt on Clauſenburgh; and afterwards offered to ſeparate, and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vaſſalage. In the preſent ſituation of the Auſtrians, lenient terms have been granted to them, and with the puniſhment of a few, the inſurrection was ſuppreſſed.

Sclavonia lies between the 17th and 21ſt degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 55th and 46th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 ſquare mils. It is bounded by the Drave on the North, by the Danube on the Eaſt, by the Save on the South, and by Kiria in Auſtria on the Weſt. The reaſon why Hungary, Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria in thoſe parts, contain a ſurpriſing variety of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is becauſe liberty here made its laſt ſtand againſt the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into thoſe quarters. The thickneſs of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the ſtrength of the country, favoured their reſiſtance; and their deſcendants, notwithſtanding the power of the Turks, the Auſtrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, ſtill retain the ſame ſpirit of independency. Without minding the arrangement made by the ſovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them moſt at liberty. That they are generous, as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the houſe of Auſtria, which, till the laſt two wars, never was ſenſible of their value and valour; inſomuch that it is well known, that they preſerved the pragmatic ſanction, and kept the imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave ſo much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *ſlave* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, ſo late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Tranſylvania, yet the ravages of war are ſtill viſible in the face of the country, which lies in a great meaſure unimproved. The Sclavonians, from their ignorance perhaps are zealous


Polish Miles.
12
24
31
32
33
34
35
56
55
54
53
52
51
50
49
48
Minsk
Mozyr
Kiow
Miripole
Rzeczyca
Kliupin
Slizerisk
Lubitzin
Black forrest
EUROPE
EUROPE


A New Map of POLAND, LITHUANIA & PRUSSIA. from the best Authorities. 1799
GOTHLAND I.
SWEDEN
OELAND I.
BALTIC SEA
LIVONIA
RIGA
COURLAND
SAMOGITIA
KONINGSBURG
DANTZIC
POLISH PRUSSIA
KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA
GREAT POLAND
LITTLE POLAND
POLAND
RED RUSSIA
VOLHYNIA
HUNGARY
Carpathian Mountains
WARSAW
CRACOW
LEMBURG
Vistula R.
Gulf of Dantzic
Gulf of Riga


LIVONIA
RIGA
Polish Miles.
12
24
Weliki Luki
GREAT DUTCHY
OF LITHUANIA
Black Russia
POLESIA
VOLHINIA
PODOLIA
Black forest
TURKEY IN EUROPE
RUSSIA EUROPEA
Lamg. East from London.

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes it name from Polu, or Pole, a Sclavonian word ſignifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beaſts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is ſuch as may be expected from ſo extenſive but level a climate. In the northern parts it is cold, but healthy, the Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlaſting ſnow, which has been known to fall in the midſt of ſummer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being ſo unſettled, either in winter or ſummer, as might be ſuppoſed from ſo northerly a ſituation; but the air is rather inſalubrious by reaſon of the numerous woods and moraſſes.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the ſoil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vaſt quantities that are ſent from thence down the Viſtula, to Dantzic, and which are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The paſtures of Poland, eſpecially in Podolia, are rich beyond expreſſion; and it is ſaid that one can hardly ſee the cattle that graze in the meadows. Here are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, ſalt, and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron, ochre, black agate, ſeveral ſpecies of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite; falſe precious ſtones, and marine petrefactions. The interior parts of Poland contain foreſts, which furniſh timber in ſuch great quantities, that it is employed in houſe building, inſtead of bricks, ſtones, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and ſome grapes, are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine ſeldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clays fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many ſprings is boiled into ſalt. The virtues of a ſpring in the palatinate of Cracow, which increaſes and decreaſes with the moon, are ſaid to be wonderful for the preſervation of life; and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and ſome of them to 150 years of age. This ſpring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the ſubtleſt ſpirit of wine. The flame, however, dances on the ſurface, without heating the water; and if neglected to be extinguiſhed, which it may eaſily be, it communicates itſelf, by ſubterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees, in a neighbouring wood, which it conſumes; and about 35 years ago, the flames are ſaid to have laſted for three years, before they could be entirely extinguiſhed.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Viſtua or Weyſel, the Neiſter, Neiper, or Boriſthenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the Palatinate of Byzeſty,; and Birals, or, the White Lake, which is ſaid to dye thoſe who waſh in it of a ſwarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though ſome are peculiar to itſelf, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable), which in May and June the inhabitants ſweep into ſieves with the dew, and it ſerves for food dreſſed various ways. A great quantity of yellow amber is frequently dug up in Lithuania, in pieces as large as a man's fiſt, ſuppoſed to be the production of a reſinous pine.

The foreſts of Warſovia or Maſovia contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whoſe fleſh the Poles powder, and eſteem it an excellent diſh. Horſes, wolves, boars, the glouton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are com

common in the Poliſh foreſts; and there is a ſpecies of wild horſes and aſſes, and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, reſembling a hart, with ſpots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the beſt furs in the country; but the elk which is common in Poland, as well as in ſome other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The fleſh of the Poliſh elk forms the moſt delicious parts of their greateſt feaſts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, the feet broad, like a wild goat's. Naturaliſts have obſerved, that upon diſſecting an elk, there was found in its head ſome large flies, with its brain almoſt eaten away; and it is an obſervation ſufficiently atteſted, that in the large woods and wilderneſſes in the north, this poor animal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger ſort of flies, that through its ears attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This perſecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling ſickneſs, by which means it is taken, which would otherwiſe prove no eaſy matter.

Poland produces a creature called bohac: it reſembles a guinea-pig, but ſeems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occaſionally for food, till April: they have ſeparate apartments for their proviſions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by 10 or 12 in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any ſpecies of birds peculiar to itſelf; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and their fleſh is reckoned to be unwholeſome. Lithuania is rich in ornithology; among the birds of prey are the eagle and vulture. The *remiz*, or little ſpecies of titmouſe, is frequently found in theſe parts, famous for the wondrous ſtructure of its pendent neſt, formed in the ſhape of a long purſe, with amazing art.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

From what has been ſaid of the extent of Poland, it is impoſſible to form an eſtimate of the number of its inhabitants; they undoubtedly before the breaking out of the late war, were very numerous; but they are ſo little known, even at preſent, that numbers of them in remoter parts, continue ſtill to be heathens, or have very imperfect notions of Chriſtianity. Some have ſuppoſed Poland and Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 of inhabitants; and when we conſider that the Poles have no colonies, and ſometimes have enjoyed peace for many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,0000 of Jews are ſaid to inhabit there, perhaps this calculation has not been exaggerated. But ſince the partition and diſmemberment of the kingdom, the number is only 9,000,000, of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces taken by Ruſſia are the largeſt, by Auſtria the moſt populous, and by Pruſſia the moſt commercial. The Ruſſian contain 1,500,000. The Auſtrian 2,500,000; and the Pruſſian about 868,000, amounting to about 5,000,000 of ſouls ſeparated from their ancient kingdom.

The Poles, in their perſons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their ſhapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honeſt, and hoſpitable; and their women ſprightly, yet modeſt, and ſubmiſſive to their huſbands. Their mode of ſalute, is to incline their heads, and to ſtrike their breaſt with one of their hands, while they ſtretch the other towards the ground; but when a common perſon meets a ſuperior, he bows his head near to the earth, and with his head touches the leg near to the heel of the perſon to

to whom he pays obeiſance. Their diverſions are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horſe, hunting, ſkaiting, bull and bear baiting. They uſually travel on horſeback; a Poliſh gentleman will not travel a ſtone's throw without his horſe, and they are ſo hardy, that they will ſleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in froſt and ſnow. The Poles never live above ſtairs, and their apartments are not united: the kitchen is on one ſide, the ſtable on another, the dwelling-houſe on the third, and the gate in the front. They content themſelves with a few ſmall beds, and if any lodge at their houſes, they muſt carry their bedding with them. When they ſit down to dinner or ſupper, they have their trumpets and other muſic playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all ſerving with the moſt profound reſpect; for the nobles, who are poor, frequently find themſelves under the neceſſity of ſerving them that are rich; but their patron uſually treats them with civility, and permits the eldeſt to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peaſant boy to wait on him, maintained by the maſter of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor ſpoons, but every gueſt brings them with him; and they no ſooner ſit down to table, than all the doors are ſhut, and not open till the company return home. It is uſual for a nobleman to give his ſervant part of his meat, which he eats as he ſtands behind him, and to let him drink out of the ſame cup with himſelf; but this is the leſs extraordinary, if it be be conſidered that theſe ſervants are eſteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in faſhion, both here and in Ruſſia; nor will they eaſily excuſe any perſon from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to deſcribe the grandeur and equipages of the Poliſh nobility; and the reader may figure to himſelf an idea of all that is faſtidious, ceremonious, expenſive, and ſhewy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance when they appear abroad, even to ridicule; for it is not unuſual to ſee the lady of a Poliſh grandee, beſides a coach and ſix, with a great number of ſervants, attended by an old gentleman uſher, an old gentlewoman for her governante, and a dwarf of each ſex to hold up her train; and if it be night, her coach is ſurrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of their pomp, however, is proportioned to their eſtates; but each perſon goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens, or burghers and peaſants; the peaſants are divided into two ſorts, thoſe of the crown, and thoſe belonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that ariſes from the public poſts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble birth call one another *brothers*. They do not value titles of honour, but think a *gentleman of Poland* is the higheſt appellation they can enjoy. They have many conſiderable privileges; and indeed the boaſted Poliſh liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient cuſtom and preſcription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vaſſals, pay no taxes, are ſubject to none but the king, may chuſe whom they will for their king, and none but they, and the burghers of ſome particular towns, can purchaſe lands. In ſhort, they are almoſt entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges entirely incompatible with a well regulated ſtate; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. Theſe great privileges make the Poliſh gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, with a deſpotic power over their tenants, whom they call their ſubjects, and transfer or aſ-

ſign

ſign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Caſimir the Great, the lord could put his peaſant to death with impunity, and when the latter had no children, conſidered himſelf as the heir, and ſeized all his effects. In 1347, Caſimir preſcribed a fine for the murder of a peaſant, and enacted, that in caſe of his deceaſe without iſſue, his next heir ſhould inherit. But theſe and other regulations have proved ineffectual, againſt the power and tyranny of the nobles, and have been either abrogated or eluded. Some of them have eſtates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are alſo hereditary ſovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles poſſeſſes above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raiſe 8 or 10,000 men. The houſe of a nobleman is a ſecure aſylum for perſons who have committed any crime; for none muſt preſume to take them from thence by force. They have their horſe and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their anti-chambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, ſome of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the ſenate are often determined by the ſword. When great men have ſuits at law, the diet, or other tribunals, decide them; yet the execution of the ſentence muſt be left to the longeſt ſword, for the juſtice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raiſe 6000 men of a ſide, plunder and burn one another's cities, and beſiege caſtles and forts; for they think it below them to ſubmit to the ſentence of judges, without a field battle. If one lord kills the peaſant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peaſant equal in value. A nobleman who is deſirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden houſe, in which he ſettles a peaſant and his family, giving him a cow, two horſes, a certain number of geeſe, hens, &c. and as much corn as is ſufficient to maintain him the firſt year, and to improve for his own future ſubſiſtence and the advantage of his lord.

The clergy have many immunities; they are all free men, in ſome inſtances have their own courts of juſtice, in which the canon law is practiſed. A biſhop is entitled to all the privileges of a ſenator: was uſually appointed by the king, and confirmed by the pope, but is now nominated by the king out of three candidates choſen by the permanent council. The archbiſhop of Gneſna is primate, the firſt ſenator in rank, and viceroy during an interregnum. The burghers ſtill enjoy ſome freedom and privileges; they chuſe their own burgomaſter and council, regulate their interior police, and have their own criminal courts of juſtice, and when defendant againſt a noble, he muſt be cited before the magiſtrate of his own town, from whence an appeal lies only to the king in his aſſeſſorial tribunal. Without this exemption from the juriſdiction of the nobles, they would long ſince have been reduced to a ſtate of vaſſalage.

The peaſants of the crown, if oppreſſed, may lodge a complaint in the royal court of juſtice, which is ſome check to injuſtice; but peaſants belonging to individuals are at the abſolute diſpoſal of their maſter, and all their acquiſitions ſerve only to enrich him. They are indiſpenſably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permiſſion of their lords; and they are expoſed to the diſmal, and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical maſters, who oppreſs them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuſe it in the moſt groſs and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being expoſed to the moſt brutal treatment.

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One bleſſing, however, attends the wretched ſituation of the Poliſh peaſants, which is their inſenſibility. Born ſlaves, and accuſtomed from their infancy, to hardſhips and ſevere labour, the generality of them ſcarcely entertain an idea of better circumſtances and more liberty. They regard their maſters as a ſuperior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their ſevere lot. Cheerful and contented with their condition, they are ready upon every occaſion, to ſacrifice themſelves and their families for their maſter, eſpecially if the latter takes care to feed them well. Moſt of them ſeem to think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. There are ſome ſtyled German peaſants, whoſe anceſtors were indulged in ſettling in Poland, in the uſe of the German laws, who enjoy ſeveral privileges not poſſeſſed by the generality of Poliſh peaſants: their villages are better built, they poſſeſs more cattle, pay their quit rents better, and are cleaner and neater in their perſons. I have been the more circumſtantial in deſcribing the manners and preſent ſtate of the Poles, as they bear a near reſemblance, in many particulars, to thoſe of Europe in general during the feudal ages, but their tyranny over their tenants and vaſſals ſeems to be carried to a much greater height. Lately indeed, a few nobles of enlightened underſtandings, have ventured to give liberty to their vaſſals. The firſt who granted this freedom, was Zamoiſki, formerly great chancellor, who in 1760, enfranchiſed 6 villages in the palatine of Maſovia, and afterwards on all his eſtates. The event hath ſhewed the project to be no leſs judicious than humane; friendly to the noble's own intereſts as well as the happineſs of the peaſants, for it appears, that in the diſtricts in which the new arrangement has been introduced, the population of the villages is conſiderably increaſed, and the revenues of their eſtates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Staniſlaus, nephew of the king of Poland, hath very lately enfranchiſed four villages near Warſaw, and had not only emancipated his peaſants from ſlavery, but condeſcends to direct their affairs. So that better times in that diſtreſſed country may be expected.

Torture was aboliſhed in Poland in 1776 by an edict of the diet, under the influence of the king. Atrocious crimes, ſuch as murder, &c. are puniſhed by beheading or hanging; leſſer delinquencies by whipping, impriſonment, and hard labour: the nobles never ſuffer any corporal puniſhment, but are liable only to impriſonment and death.

The inns in this country are long ſtables built with boards and covered with ſtraw, without furniture or windows; there are chambers at one end, but none can lodge there, becauſe of flies and other vermin; ſo that ſtrangers generally choſe rather to lodge among the horſes. Travellers are obliged to carry proviſion with them; and when foreigners want a ſupply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with neceſſaries.

DRESS.] The dreſs of the Poles is pretty ſingular. They ſhave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown, and men of all ranks generally wear large whiſkers. They wear a veſt which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and girded with a ſaſh, but the ſleeves ſit as cloſe to their arms as a waiſtcoat. Their breches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtband, and they wear neither ſtock nor neckloth. Inſtead of ſhoes, they wear Turkey leather boots, with thin ſoles, and deep iron heels bent like a half moon. They carry a pole-axe, and a ſabre or cutlaſs, by their ſides. When they appear on horſeback, they wear over all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly cover-

covered with furs both within and without. The people of the beſt quality wear ſables, and others the ſkins of the tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty ſuits of clothes, all as rich as poſſible, and which deſcend from father to ſon. Were it not for our own partiality to ſhort dreſſes, we muſt acknowledge that of the Poles to be picturesque and majeſtic. Charles II. of England thought of introducing the Poliſh dreſs into his court, and after his reſtoration wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of Engliſh broad cloth; but diſcontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men, a ſimple Polonaiſe, or long robe edged with fur; but ſome people of faſhion, of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes. As to the peaſants, in winter, they wear a ſheep's-ſkin with the wool inwards, and in ſummer a thick coarſe cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the ſole of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and in the diſtrict of Samogitia particularly, make them wear little bells, before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

RELIGION.] The number of Proteſtants, conſiſting of Lutherans and Calviniſts, in the republic of Poland, is very conſiderable; and when theſe are joined to the Greek church, the whole are called Diſſidents. At the ſame time, the Poliſh nobility, and the bulk of the nation, are tenacious of the Roman catholic religion. The treaty of Oliva, concluded in 1660, tolerated the Diſſidents, and was guarantied by the principal powers in Europe; but was ſo diſregarded by the Poles, that in the year 1724, they made a public maſſacre of the proteſtants at Thorn. Numerous proviſions were made for the protection of the proteſtants, who were perſecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monaſteries in Poland are by ſome writers ſaid to be 576, and the nunneries 117, beſides 246 ſeminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The clergy are poſſeſſed of a very large proportion of the lands and revenues of the kingdom, but in general, are illiterate bigots, and the monks are ſome of the moſt profligate of mankind, without apprehending any diſgrace to their order, or dreading the cenſure of their ſuperiors, who require equal indulgence. Vaſt ſway the popiſh clergy have had in Poland at different periods, notwithſtanding the treaties and capitulations which have been made in favour of the proteſtants and the members of the Greek church. Indeed, it has been chiefly owing to the influence and conduct of the popiſh clergy, that the peaſants in Poland have been reduced to ſuch a ſtate of wretched ſlavery.

The principles of Socinianiſm made a very early and conſiderable progreſs in Poland. A tranſlation of the Bible into the Poliſh language was publiſhed in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the ſame perſons, the catechiſm, or confeſſion of the Unitarians, was publiſhed at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socinus greatly contributed to the extenſive propagation of his opinions; but though the Socinians in Poland have been very numerous, they have at different times been greatly perſecuted. However, it was lately reſolved between the republic and partitioning powers, that all Diſſidents ſhould henceforth enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, though to continue excluded from the diet, the ſenate, and the permanent council. They are to have churches, but without bells; alſo ſchools and ſeminaries of their own; they are capable of ſitting in the inferior courts of juſtice, and

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ous Roman Catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two biſhoprics; that of Poſega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no univerſities. Eſſeck is a large and ſtrong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marſhes, five miles long, and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Auſtrians and Turks. The inhabitants are compoſed of Servians Radzians, Croats, Wallachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vaſt number of other people, whoſe names were never known even to the Auſtrians themſelves, but from the military muſter-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the laſt two wars. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the ſtates ſend repreſentatives to the diet of Hungary.

CROATIA lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and about 2,500 ſquare miles. The manners, government, religion, language, and cuſtoms of the Croats, are ſimilar to thoſe of the Sclavonians and Tranſylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as ſuch are famed in modern hiſtory, under the name of Pandours, and various other deſignations. The truth is the houſe of Auſtria finds its intereſt in ſuffering them and the neighbouring nations, to live in their own manner. The towns are blended with each other, there ſcarcely being any diſtinction of boundaries. Carolſtadt is a place of ſome note, but Zagrab (already mentioned), is the capital of Croatia. All the ſovereignty exerciſed over them by the Auſtrians ſeems to conſiſt in the military arrangements for bringing them occaſionally into the field. A viceroy preſides over Croatia, jointly with Sclavonia, and

Hungarian Dalmatia: this lies in the upper part of the Adriatic ſea, and conſiſts of five diſtricts, in which the moſt remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art and is ſituated near the ſea, in a bleak, mountainous, and barren ſoil. The biſhop of this place is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor reſides in the old palace, called the Royal Caſtle. 2. Ottoſchatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortreſs where the governor, and the greateſt part of the garriſon reſide, is ſurrounded with a wall, and ſome towers: but the reſt of the buildings which are mean, are erected on piles in the water; ſo that one neighbour cannot viſit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uſcocs, a people, who being galled by oppreſſion, eſcaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uſcocs, from the word Scoco, which ſignifies a *deſerter*. They are alſo called ſpringers, or leapers, from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in ſcattered houſes, and others in large villages. They are a rough, ſavage people, large bodied, courageous, and given to rapine; but their viſible employment is grazing. They uſe the Wallachian language, and in their religious ſentiments and mode of worſhip approach neareſt to the Greek church; but ſome of them are Roman catholics.

A part of Wallachia belongs alſo to the emperor, as well as to the Turks, which lies to the eaſt of Tranſylvania, and its principal towns are Tregoaitz, Bucharеſt, and Severin.

POLAND INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 700	between	16 and 34 east longitude.
Breadth 680		46 and 57 north latitude.

Containing 160,800 ſquare miles, with 55 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] BEFORE the late extraordinary partition of this country, the kingdom of Poland, with the great duchy of Lithuania annexed (anciently called Sarmatia) was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic ſea; on the Eaſt by Muſcovy; on the South by Hungary, Turkey, and Liitle Tartary; on the Weſt by Germany; and had the form of its government been as perfect as its ſituation was compact, it might have been one of the moſt powerful kingdoms in the univerſe. Its grand diviſions were,

Poland		Length. Miles.	Breadth. Miles.	Chief Cities.
Proteſtants.	Courtland, ſubject to Ruſſia.	174	80	Mittaw
Papiſts.	Lithuania,	333	310	Wilna — Great part of this diſtrict is now poſſeſſed by Ruſſia.
	Podalia,	360	120	Karſinleck
	Volhinia,	305	150	Lucko
	Great Poland,	208	180	Gneſna
	Red Ruſſia,	232	185	Lemburg — Now chiefly ſubject to Auſtria.
	Little Poland,	230	130	Cracow
	Poleſia,	186	97	Breſſici
	Maſovia,	152	90	WARSAW — E. lon. 21-5. N. lat. 52-15.
	Samogitia,	155	98	Raſiem
	Pruſſian Royal, or Poliſh Pruſſia,	118	104	Elbing — Now ſubject to Pruſſia.
	Polachia,	133	42	Bielh

Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, in Pruſſia Royal, are ſtyled free cities, and were under the protection of Poland; the two laſt have been ſeized by the King of Pruſſia, and moſt of the privileges of the firſt.

NAME

three of their communion are admitted as aſſeſſors in the tribunal to receive appeals in religion.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Poland contains two archbiſhoprics; Gneſna and Lemburg. The archbiſhop of Gneſna, beſides being primate, and during an inter-reign prince-regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other biſhops, particularly of Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Poliſh language is a dialect of Sclavonic, and is both harſh and unharmonious, on account of the vaſt number of conſonants it employs, ſome of their words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Ruſſian and German tongues are underſtood in the provinces bordering on thoſe countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great reſtorer of the true aſtronomical ſyſtem, Voſſius, and ſome other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet its ſoil is far from being favourable to learning. Latin is ſpoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in ſome provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever ſhewn for learning; the ſervitude of the lower people, and the univerſal ſuperſtition among all ranks of men, theſe circumſtances have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithſtanding the liberal efforts of his preſent majeſty, ſtill continue to retard the progreſs of letters in this kingdom. However, of late, a taſte for ſcience hath ſpread itſelf among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accompliſhment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Poland are thoſe of Cracow, Wilna, and Poſna or Poſen. The firſt conſiſts of eleven colleges, and has the ſuperviſorſhip of 14 grammar ſchools diſperſed through the city. The number of ſtudents in 1778, amounted to 600. Wilna was under the ſuperintendance of the Jeſuits, but ſince their ſuppreſſion the king hath eſtabliſhed a committee of education, who appoint profeſſors, and direct their ſalaries and ſtudies: that of Poſna was rather a Jeſuits' college than an univerſity.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The frequent incurſions of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations, into Poland, probably forced the women ſometimes to leave their children expoſed in the woods, where we muſt ſuppoſe they were nurſed by bears and other wild beaſts, otherwiſe it is difficult to account for their ſubſiſtence. It is certain that ſuch beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, diveſted of almoſt all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours; but it is ſaid that ſome of them have, by proper management, attained to the uſe of ſpeech.

The ſalt mines of Poland conſiſt of wonderful caverns, ſeveral hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of theſe are dug four different kinds of ſalts; one extremely hard, like cryſtal; another ſofter, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; theſe are all brackiſh, but the fourth is ſomewhat freſher. Theſe four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one ſide of them is a ſtream of ſalt-water, and on the other, one of freſh. The revenue ariſing from thoſe, and other ſalt-mines, is very conſiderable, and formed part of the royal revenue, before ſeized by Auſtria: the annual average profit of thoſe of Wiolitzka, eight miles from Cracow, was about 98,000l. ſterling. Out of ſome mines at Itza, about 70 miles north-eaſt of Cracow, are dug ſeveral kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potters uſe, and ſupply all Poland with

eathern ware. Under the mounts adjoining to Kiow, in the deſerts of Podolia, are ſeveral grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preſerved, though buried a vaſt number of years ſince, being neither ſo hard nor ſo black as the Egyptain mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they uſed to wear. It is thought that this preſerving quality is owing to the nature of the ſoil, which is dry and ſandy. Poland can boaſt of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themſelves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, ſilver, and enamelled veſſels, preſented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preſerved in the cathedral of Gneſna.

Cities, towns, forts, and other edifices public and private. Warſaw lies on the Viſtula, and almoſt in the centre of Poland. It is the royal reſidence; and contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, beſides churches and convents. It is ſaid to contain near 70,000 inhabitants, but a great number are foreigners. The ſtreets are ſpacious but ill paved, and the greateſt part of the houſes, particularly in the ſuburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a ſtrong contraſt of wealth and poverty, as doth every part of this unhappy country. It has little or no commerce. The ſame may be ſaid of Cracow, which is the capital (though that honour is diſputed by Warſaw); for we are told, that notwithſtanding it lies in the neighbourhood of the rich ſalt-mines, and is ſaid to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconſiderable. The city ſtands in an extenſive plain watered by the Viſtula, and with the ſuburbs occupy a vaſt ſpace of ground, but all together ſcarcely contain 16,000 ſouls. It is ſurrounded with high brick walls, ſtrengthened with round and ſquare towers in the ancient ſtyle of fortification, and is garriſoned with 600 Ruſſians. Grodno, though not the capital, is the principal town in Lithuania, but a large and ſtraggling place, containing ruined palaces, falling houſes, and wretched hovels, with about 7000 inhabitants; 1000 of which are Jews, and 3,000 are employed in new manufactures of cloths, camlets, linen, cotton, ſilk, ſtuffs, &c. eſtabliſhed there by the king in 1776. He hath alſo eſtabliſhed in this place, an academy of phyſic for Lithuania, in which ten ſtudents are inſtructed for phyſic, and twenty for ſurgery, all taught and maintained at his own expence.

Dantzic is the capital of poliſh Ruſſia, and is famous in hiſtory on many accounts, particularly that of being formerly at the head of the Hanſeatic aſſociation, commonly called the Hanſe towns. It is ſituated on the Viſtula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city; its houſes generally are five ſtories high; and many of its ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is ſtill a moſt eminent commercial city, although it ſeems to be ſomewhat paſt its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the preſident de Thou wrote his much eſteemed *Hiſtoria ſui Temporis*, wherein, under the year 1607, he ſo highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, claiming a ſmall adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and the majority of its inhabitants are Lutherans; although the Romaniſts and Calviniſts be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 pariſhes, with many convents and hoſpitals. The inhabitants have been computed to amount to 200,000 but latter computations fall very conſiderably ſhort of it; as appears by its annual bill of mortality, exhibited by Dr. Buſching who tells us, that in the year 1752, there died but 1846 perſons. Its own ſhipping is numerous; but the foreign ſhips conſtantly reſorting to it are more ſo, whereof 1014 arrived

rived there in the year 1752; in which year alſo 1288 Poliſh veſſels came down the Viſtula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchleſs granaries; from whence that grain is diſtributed to many foreign nations; beſides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval ſtores, and vaſt variety of other articles. Dr. Buſching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconſiderable town, as ſome pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their maſters, and have ſometimes been under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch; but generally have ſhewn a great predilection for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade, or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money. Though ſtrongly fortified, and poſſeſſed of 150 large braſs cannon, it could not, through its ſituation, ſtand a regular ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences. In 1734, the inhabitants diſcovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Staniſlaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Ruſſians, were at their gates, but even in poſſeſſion of the city. The reaſon why Dantzic, Thorn, and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil and religious, very different from thoſe of the reſt of Poland, is becauſe not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themſelves under the protection of Poland, reſerving to themſelves large and ample privileges. This city, as well as that of Thorn, were exempted by the king of Pruſſia from thoſe claims which he lately made on the neighbouring countries; notwithſtanding which, he ſoon after thought proper to ſeize on the territories belonging to Dantzic, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Poliſh Pruſſia. He then proceeded to poſſeſs himſelf of the port-duties belonging to that city, and erected a cuſtom-houſe in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and inſupportable duties upon goods exported or imported. To complete the ſyſtem of oppreſſion cuſtom-houſes were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, ſo that no perſon could go in or out of the town, without being ſearched in the ſtricteſt manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic has received from the king of Pruſſia, though few cities have ever exiſted, which have been comprehended in ſo many general and particular treaties, and whoſe rights and liberties have been ſo frequently ſecured and guarantied by ſo many great powers, and by ſuch a long and regular ſucceſſion of public acts, as that of Dantzic has been. In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences: by the interpoſition of the empreſs of Ruſſia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negociation carried on by deputies at Warſaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September; by which, as now acceded to by the citizens, the place and trade of the city are to be reſtored to its former ſtability. The city of Thorn was alſo treated by the king of Pruſſia in the ſame unjuſt and oppreſſive manner with that of Dantzic, and is now added to his dominions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief exports of Poland are all ſpecies of grain, hemp, flax, cattle, maſts, planks, pitch and tar, honey, wax, potaſh aud tallow; its imports are foreign wines, cloths, ſtuffs, manufactured ſilks and cotton, fine linen, hardware, tin, copper, ſilver and gold, glaſs ware, furs, &c. Some linen and woolen cloths, ſilk, ſtuffs, camlets, lace and hard wares, are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland and Lithuania, but commerce is chiefly confined to the city of Dantzic, and the other towns on the Viſtula and the Baltic.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this ſubject. It differs little from an ariſtocracy: hence Poland hath been

been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and clergy in the plains of Warſaw. They elect him on horſeback; and in caſe there ſhould be a refractory minority, the majority has no control over them, but to cut them in pieces with their ſabres; but if the minority are ſufficiently ſtrong, a civil war enſues. Immediately after his election, he ſigns the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages that the crown ſhall be elective, that his ſucceſſor ſhall be appointed during his life—that the diets ſhall be aſſembled every two years—that every noble or gentleman in the realm ſhall have a vote in the diet of election, and that in caſe the king ſhould infringe the laws and privileges of the nation, his ſubjects ſhould be abſolved from their allegiance.—In fact the king was no more than preſident of the ſenate, which uſed to be compoſed of the primate, archbiſhop of Lemburg, fifteen biſhops, and 130 laymen, conſiſting of the great officers of ſtate, the Palatines and Caſtellans. The Palatines are the governors of the provinces, who hold their offices for life.—The Caſtellans office in time of peace is almoſt nominal, but when the military or feudal ſervices are required, they are the lieutenants of the Palatines, and command the troops of their ſeveral diſtricts.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary: the former meet once in two and ſometimes three years; the latter is ſummoned by the king, upon critical emergencies, and continue no longer than a fortnight; but one diſſenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual. Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can ſit bnt ſix weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets held in different diſtricts. The king with the advice of the permanent council, ſends them letters containing the heads of the buſineſs that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may ſit in the dietine, and chuſe nuncios or deputies, to carry their reſolutions to the grand diet. The great diet conſiſts of the king, ſenators, and deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and 70 for Pruſſia; it met twice at Warſaw and once at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland; but ſince the preſent reign, they have been always ſummoned at Warſaw. The king formerly nominated the great offices of ſtate and to other places, but by the new conſtitution, for the election of ſenators, as biſhops, palatines, caſtellans, and miniſters, the permanent council nominates by ballot, three candidates, one of whom the king muſt appoint—the ſame reſpecting the commiſſioners of war, and of the treaſury, &c. &c. The king was alſo foreed to renounce the right of diſpoſing of any of the royal demeſnes and ſtaroſties. When the king is abſent from Poland, or dead, his place is ſupplied by the archbiſhop of Gneſna, as viceroy, and if that ſee is vacant, by the biſhop of Ploſco. The ten great officers of ſtate in Poland, who are ſenators, are the two great marſhals, one of Poland, the other of Lithania, the two chancellors, the two vice-chancellors, the two treaſurers, and the two ſub-marſhals.

Such are the outlines of this motley conſtitution, which was new modelled with almoſt every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* he is obliged to ſign. There hath been lately a total diſſolution of all order in Poland, through the influence of ſome of the neighbouring powers, intereſted to foment anarchy and confuſion in the Poliſh councils; and many of the firſt nobility do not bluſh to receive penſions from foreign courts. However, in this imperfect ſketch, we can diſcern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power, and yet

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inveſt him with an ample prerogative, were worthy a wiſe people. The inſtitution of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other proviſions in the republic: but it laboured even in its beſt ſtate, under incurable diſorders. The exerciſe of the *veto*, or the tribunal negative, that is veſted in every deputy or nuncio, excluſive of the king and ſenate, at a diet, muſt always be deſtructive of order and government. It is founded upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited juriſdiction which the great lords in former ages uſed to enjoy all over Europe. According to Mr. Coxe, the privilege in queſtion is not to be found in any period of the Poliſh hiſtory, antecedent to the reign of John Caſimir. It was under his adminiſtration that in the year 1652, when the diet of Warſaw was debating upon tranſactions of the utmoſt importance, which required a ſpeedy determination, that Sicinſki, nuncio of Upita in Luthuania, cried out, "I ſtop the proceedings." Having uttered theſe words, he quitted the aſſembly, and repairing immediately to the chancellor, proteſted, that as many acts had been propoſed and carried contrary to the conſtitution of the republic, if the diet continued to ſit, he ſhould conſider it as an infringement of the laws. The members were thunderſtruck at a proteſt of this nature, hitherto unknown. Warm debates took place about the propriety of continuing or diſſolving the diet; at length, the venal and diſcontented faction, who ſupported the proteſt, obtained the majority; and the aſſembly broke up in great confuſion. The want of ſubordination in the executive parts of the conſtitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemiſh impracticable to remove. After all, when we examine the beſt accounts of the preſent conſtitution of Poland, and compare them with the ancient hiſtory of Great Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful ſimilarity between what theſe were formerly, and what Poland is at preſent. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwiſe improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent on the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their ſovereign, and to maintain thoſe unequal privileges which are ſo hurtful to the community.

Indeed the partitioning powers, beſide diſmembering the beſt provinces of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the conſtitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confuſion. The executive power, which was entruſted to the king and ſenate, is now veſted in the peramnent council, compoſed of the king, ſenate, and the equeſtrian order. The king as preſident, the primate and three biſhops, nine lay ſenators, four from the miniſtry of the republic, the marſhal with 17 counſellors of the equeſtrian order, in all 36. Of the 18 ſenators, ſix from each province of Great Poland, Little Poland, and Lithuania. They inſiſted upon four cardinal laws to be ratified, which was at laſt obtained. By the *firſt*, "that the crown of Poland ſhall be for ever elective, and all order of ſucceſſion proſcribed;" thus the excluſion of a king's ſon and grandſon, removes the proſpect of an hereditary ſovereignty, and entails upon the kingdom all the evils inſeparable from an elective monarchy. By the *ſecond*, "that foreign candidates to the throne ſhall be excluded, and no perſon can be choſen king of Poland, excepting a native Pole of noble-origin, and poſſeſſing land in the kingdom:" the houſe of Saxony, and all foreign princes who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and reſtore its provinces and liberties, are ſet aſide. By the *third*, "the government of Poland ſhall be

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for ever free, independent, and of a republican form;" the *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equeſtrian order, are confirmed in their utmoſt latitude. And by the *fourth*, "a permanent council ſhall be eſtabliſhed, in which the executive power ſhall be veſted; and in this council the equeſtrian order, hitherto excluded from the adminiſtration of affairs in the interval of diets, ſhall be admitted; ſo that the prerogatives of the crown are ſtill farther diminiſhed: but this change of the conſtitution was intended by the partitioning powers to ſerve their own purpoſes, and give a large ſcope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom they had not ſeized.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is limited in the political exerciſe of his prerogative, yet his revenue is ſufficient to maintain him and his houſehold with great ſplendor, as he pays no troops, or officers of ſtate, nor even his body guards. The preſent king had 1,000,000 and a half of florins ſettled upon him by the commiſſion of ſtate; and the income of his predeceſſors generally amounted to 140,000l. ſterling. The public revenues aroſe chiefly from the crown-lands, the ſalt-mines in the palatinate of Cracow, now in Auſtrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000l. ſterling; ancient tolls and cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirſhau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow and diſtrict of Niepoliomicz.

Weſtern Pruſſia was the greateſt loſs to Poland, as by the diſmemberment of that province, the navigation of the Viſtula depends entirely upon the king of Pruſſia. This was a fatal blow to the trade of Poland, for Pruſſia has laid ſuch heavy duties on the merchandiſe paſſing to Dantzick, as greatly to diminiſh the trade of that town, and to transfer a conſiderable part of it to Memel and Konigſburgh.

	£. ſterl.
By the diſmemberment, Poland loſt near half her annual income. To ſupply this deficiency, it became neceſſary to new-model and increaſe the taxes.	
In 1775, all the impoſts amounted to - - -	323,012 0 0
The net revenue of the king is - -	195,500 0 0
Out of which he only pays his houſehold expences, and menial ſervants. It ariſes from his royal demeſnes, ſtaroſties, and 74,074l. out of the treaſury	
Whole revenue - -	443,938 0 0
Deduct the king's revenue for privy purſe -	194,500 0 0
For army, ſtate officers, and all other charges -	249,438 0 0

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Poliſh nobility is ſuch, that they always appear in the field on horſeback; and it is ſaid that Poland can raiſe with eaſe 100,000, and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry, but it muſt be underſtood that ſervants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are ſoon diſmiſſed, becauſe they muſt be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Poliſh grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it conſiſted, in 1778, of 10,310 men in Poland, and 7,465 in Lithuania, cantoned into crown-lands. The empreſs of Ruſſia maintains in the country 10,000 ſoldiers, and every garriſon is compoſed of Ruſſians and natives: 1000 of the former are ſtationed

ed at Warſaw. Theſe hold the nobles in ſubjection, and the king himſelf is little more than a viceroy, while the Ruſſian ambaſſador regulates the affairs of the kingdom under the direction of his court. The poſpolite conſiſts of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, excepting the chancellor, and the ſtaroſts of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occaſions; but he cannot kept them above ſix weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Poliſh huſſars are the fineſt and moſt ſhewy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the pancerns; and both thoſe bodies wear defenſive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The reſt of their cavalry are armed with muſkets and heavy ſcymetars. After all that has been ſaid, the Poliſh cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field; for though the men are brave, and their horſes excellent, they are ſtrangers to all diſcipline; and when drawn out, notwithſtanding all the authority their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himſelf, have over them, they are oppreſſive and deſtructive to the court. It is certain, notwithſtanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by diſcipline, and that on various occaſions, particularly under John Sobieſki, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels. It did not ſuit the Saxon princes, who ſucceeded that hero, to encourage a martial ſpirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct have been ſince ſeverely felt in that country.

ORDERS.] The "order of the *White Eagle*" was firſt inſtituted by Uladiſlaus in the year 1325, but revived by Auguſtus I. in the year 1705, to attach to him ſome of the Poliſh nobles who he feared were inclined to Staniſlaus, his competitor: it was conferred alſo on the czar Peter the Great of Ruſſia. The preſent king inſtituted the "order of *St. Staniſlaus*," ſoon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold croſs enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion with the image of St. Staniſlaus, enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red riband edged with white. The ſtar of the order is ſilver, and in the centre, is a cypher of S. A. R. (Staniſlaus Auguſtus Rex) encircled with the motto "*Premendo incitat.*"

HISTORY.] Poland, of old, was poſſeſſed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Ruſs and Tartars. It was divided into many ſmall ſtates or principalities, each almoſt independent of another, though they generally had ſome prince who was paramount over the reſt. In the year 700, the people, trhough the oppreſſion of their petty chiefs, gave the ſupreme command, under the title of duke, to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His poſterity failing, in the year 830, a peaſant, one Piaſtus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was ſo long and auſpicious, that every native Pole who has ſince been elected king, is called a Piaſt. From this period, till the acceſſion of Miciſlaus II. in 964, we have no very certain records of the hiſtory of Poland. The title of duke was retained, till the year 999, when Boleſlaus aſſumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Pruſſia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleſlaus II. added Red Ruſſia to Poland, by marrying the heireſs of that duchy, anno, 1059. Jagello, who, in 1384, mounted the throne, was grand duke of Lithuania, and a Pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a

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Chriſtian, but was at pains to bring over his ſubjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to thoſe of Poland, which gave ſuch influence to his poſterity over the hearts of the Poles, that the crown was preſerved in his family until the male line became extinct in Sigiſmund Auguſtus, in 1572; who indulged the reformed, with the Greeks and all other ſects, to a ſeat in the diet, and to all the honours and privileges before confined to the catholics. He gave ſuch evident marks of favour to the proteſtant confeſſion, that he was ſuſpected of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. Theſe were, Henry duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX. king of France, and Maximilian of Auſtria. The French intereſt prevailed, by private bribes to the nobles, and a ſtipulation to pay an annual penſion to the republic from the revenues of France; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. They party who had eſpouſed Maximilian's intereſt endeavoured once more to revive his pretenſions; but the majority of the Poles being deſirous to chuſe a prince who might reſide among them, made choice of Stephen Batori prince of Tranſylvania, who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with ſome oppoſition from the Auſtrian faction took the wiſeſt method to eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne, by marrying Anne, the ſiſter of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, and of the royal houſe of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles, by eſtabliſhing a new militia compoſed of Coſſacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he beſtowed the Ukraine, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon this death, in 1586, the Poles choſe Sigiſmund, ſon of John king of Sweden, by Catharine ſiſter of Sigiſmund II. for their king.

Sigiſmund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death; but being expelled, as we have ſeen in the hiſtory of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war enſued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigiſmund being ſecured in the throne of Poland, aſpired to that of Ruſſia as well as Sweden; but after long wars he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unſucceſsful wars with the Turks and Swedes. At laſt a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England: but the Poles were forced to agree that the Swedes ſhould keep Elbing, Memel, Branuſberg, and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In 1623, Sigiſmund died, and Uladiſlaus his ſon ſucceeded. This prince was ſucceſsful both againſt the Turks and the Ruſſians, and obliged the Swedes to reſtore all the Poliſh dominions they had taken in Pruſſia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being inſtigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Coſſacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed, was carried on againſt the Coſſacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Coſſacs, naturally a brave people, became deſperate; and on the ſucceſſion of John II. brother to Uladiſlaus, the Coſſac general Schmielinſki defeated the Poles in two great battles; and forced them to a diſhonourable peace. It appears that, during the courſe of this war, the Poliſh nobility behaved as the worſt of ruffians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John; while his nobility diſapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. As the jealouſy hereby occaſioned, continued, the Ruſſians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Coſſacs, they in 1654, took Smolenſko. This was followed with the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed moſt horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year, Charles X. of Sweden, after

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over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Poliſh Pruſſia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic. The reſiſtance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-aſſemble, and their king, John Caſimir, who had fled into Sileſia, was joined by the Tartars as well as the Poles: ſo that the Swedes, who were diſperſed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the ſame time, diſowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay to Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and Engliſh protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburgh acquired the ſovereignty of Ducal Pruſſia, which had ſubmitted to Charles. Thus the latter loſt Poland, of which he had made an almoſt complete conqueſt. The treaty of Oliva, was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Pruſſia was reſtored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretenſions to Livonia, and to cede Smolenſko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Ruſſians.

During thoſe tranſactions, the Poliſh nobility grew very uneaſy with their king. Some of them were diſſatisfied with the conceſſions he had made to the Coſſacs, many of whom had thrown off the Poliſh yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity: and ſome with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Caſſimir who very poſſibly had no ſuch intentions, and was fond of retirement and ſtudy, finding that cabals and factions increaſed every day, and that he himſelf might fall a ſacrifice to the public diſcontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of St. Germains in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compoſitions, which are far from being deſpicable.

The moſt remote deſcendants of the ancient kings ending in John Caſſimir, many foreign candidates preſented themſelves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles choſe for their king a private gentleman, of little intereſt and leſs capacity, one Michael Wieſnowiſki, becauſe he was deſcended from a Piaſt. His reign was diſgraceful to Poland, large bodies of the Coſſacs had put themſelves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminieck, till then thought impregnable. The greateſt part of Poland was then raviſhed, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the ſultan. Notwithſtanding thoſe diſgraceful events, the credit of the Poliſh arms was in ſome meaſure maintained by John Sobieſki, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks ſeveral defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieſki was choſen king; and in 1676, he was ſo ſucceſsful againſt the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had impoſed upon Poland; but they kept poſſeſſion of Kaminieck. In 1683, Sobieſki, though he had not been well treated by the houſe of Auſtria, was ſo public ſpirited, as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raiſe the ſiege of Vienna, and making a terrible ſlaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious ſervices, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieſki returning to Poland, continued the war againſt the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the ſenate, who ſuſpected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great diſtractions upon Sobieſki's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties ſeemed inclined to exclude the

Sobieski family. In the mean while, Poland was insulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to sale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the most liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almost sure, he was disappointed by the intrigues of the queen dowager, in favour of her younger son, prince Alexander Sobieski, for which she was driven from Warsaw to Dantzic. All of a sudden, Augustus, elector of Saxony, started up as a candidate, and after a sham election, being proclaimed by the bishop of Cujavia, he took possession of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city in 1697. The prince of Conti made several unsuccessful efforts to re-establish his interest, and pretended that he had been actually chosen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe seemed to acquiesce in the election of Augustus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne, by Charles XII. of Sweden, (who procured the advancement of Stanislaus) and afterwards restored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the history of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712 that Augustus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and disagreeable terms. The Poles were naturally attached to Stanislaus, and were perpetually forming conspiracies and plots against Augustus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural son, prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was chosen duke of Courland; but Augustus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, against the power of Russia and the jealousy of the Poles. Augustus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could to insure the succession of Poland to his son Augustus II. (or as he is called by some, III.) This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a considerable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Augustus, entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he escaped with great difficulty into France. I have, in the history of Germany, mentioned the war between Augustus II. as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and his present Prussian majesty. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild, moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts; and all he obtained from them was merely shelter, when his Prussian majesty drove him from his capital and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden, in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus; though it is said that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empress of Russia. He is a man of abilities and address; but, from various concurring causes, he has had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity. In 1766, two Polish gentlemen presented a petition to the king, in the name of all the protestant nobility, and in behalf also of the members of the Greek church, wherein they demanded to be reinstated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the same footing in every respect as the Roman catholic subjects of the kingdom. "The difference of sentiments upon some points of religion among Christians," said they in their petition, "ought not to enter into any consideration with regard to the employments of the state. The different sects of Christians, although they differ in opinion among themselves with respect to some points of doctrine, agree all in one point, that of being faithful to their sovereign, and obedient to his orders; all the Christian courts are convinced of this truth; and therefore, having

having always this principle in view, and without having any regard to the religion they profeſs, Chriſtian princes ought only to ſeek after thoſe whoſe merit and talents make them capable of ſerving their country properly." The king gave no anſwer to the petition of the diſſidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held the following year, when the miniſters of the courts of Ruſſia, of London, of Berlin, and of Copenhagen, ſupported their pretenſions. The diet appeared to flatter the complaints of the diſſidents with great moderation, as to the free exerciſe of their worſhip, which gave ſome flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Pruſſia appear to have prevented this: for that prince, though he openly profeſſed to be a zealous defender of the cauſe of the diſſidents, it was manifeſt from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Ruſſians in the affairs of Poland alſo gave great diſguſt to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation run into confederacies formed in diſtinct provinces; the popiſh clergy were active in oppoſing the cauſe of the diſſidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the moſt cruel and complicated of all wars; partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confuſion, devaſtation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almoſt deſtroyed; many of the principal Popiſh families retired into foreign ſtates with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Ruſſian troops which acted as guards to the king at Warſaw, that city had likewiſe exhibited a ſcene of plunder and maſſacre. To theſe complicated evils, were added, in the year 1770, that moſt dreadful ſcourge, the peſtilence, which ſpread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; and in theſe provinces it is ſaid to have ſwept off 250,000 of the people. Meanwhile ſome of the Poliſh confederates intereeded with the Turks to aſſiſt them againſt their powerful oppreſſors; and a war enſued between the Ruſſians and the Turks on account of Poland. The conduct of the Grand Signior and of the Ottoman Porte, towards the diſtreſſed Poles, was juſt and honourable, and the very reverſe of that of their Chriſtian, Catholic, and Apoſtolic neighbours *.

* In 1764, the empreſs of Ruſſia tranſmitted to the court of Warſaw an act of renunciation ſigned with her own hand, and ſealed with the ſeal of the empire; wherein ſhe declares, "That ſhe did by no means arrogate either to herſelf, her heirs and ſucceſſors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the diſtricts or territories, which were actually in poſſeſſion, or ſubject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her ſaid majeſty would guarantee to the ſaid kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, lands, territories, and diſtricts, which the ſaid kingdom and duchy ought by right to poſſeſs, or did now actually poſſeſs; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, againſt the attempts of all and every one who ſhould at any time, or on any pretext, endeavour to diſpoſſeſs them of the ſame." In the ſame year did the king of Pruſſia ſign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declared, "that he had no claims, formed no pretenſions on Pohan, or any part thereof; that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either the king of Pruſſia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania. In the ſame inſtrument he guarantees, in the moſt ſolemn manner, the territories and rights of Poland againſt every power whatever. The empreſs queen of Hungary, ſo late as the month of January 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which ſhe gave him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances, "That her friendſhip for him and the republic was firm and unalterable: that the motion of her troops ought not to alarm him: that ſhe had never entertained a thought of ſeizing any part of his dominions, nor would ever ſuffer any other power to do it."—From which, according to the political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a ſtate, means to annihilate thoſe liberties, ſeize upon thoſe rights, and appropriate thoſe revenues to their own uſe. Such is the faith of princes, the inſtability of human politics, and of human affairs!

On September 3d, 1771, an attempt was made by Cozinſki, an officer among the Poliſh confederates, and ſeveral others, to aſſaſſinate the king of Poland, in the ſtreets of Warſaw. His majeſty received two wounds on his head, one from a ball, and the other from a ſabre; notwithſtanding which he had the good fortune to eſcape with life, by Kozinſki's relenting, for which his own life was ſaved, and he now reſides in the papal territories, with an annual penſion from the king. Pulaſki, another of the conſpirators, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the American ſervice, and was killed in attacking the Britiſh lines at Savannah, in 1779.

The following year, 1772, it appeared, that the king of Pruſſia, the emperor and empreſs queen, and the empreſs of Ruſſia, had entered into an alliance to divide and diſmember the kingdom of Poland: though Pruſſia was formerly in a ſtate of vaſſalage to Poland, and the title of king of Pruſſia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Ruſſia alſo in the beginning of the 17th century ſaw its capital and throne poſſeſſed by the Poles, while Auſtria in 1683 was indebted to a king of Poland for the preſervation of its metropolis, and almoſt for its very exiſtence. Theſe three allied powers, acting in concert, ſet up their formal pretenſions to the reſpective diſtricts which they had allotted for and guaranteed to each other: Poliſh or Weſtern Pruſſia, and ſome diſtricts bordering upon Brandenburgh, for the king of Pruſſia; almoſt all the ſouth-eaſt parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich ſalt-works of the crown, for the empreſs-queen of Hungary and Bohemia *; and a large diſtrict of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empreſs of Ruſſia †. But though each of thoſe powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them reſpectively, and publiſhed manifeſtoes in juſtification of the meaſures which they had taken, yet as they were conſcious that the fallacies by which they ſupported their pretenſions were too groſs to impoſe upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not conſent unanimouſly to ſign a treaty for the ceding of thoſe provinces to them reſpectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered ſtate. In this extremity of diſtreſs, ſeveral of the Poliſh nobility proteſted againſt this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign ſtates, chuſing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiſcated, than be the inſtruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king under the threatening of depoſition and impriſonment, was prevailed upon to ſign this act, and his example was followed by many of his ſubjects.

The king of Pruſſia's conduct in Poland was the moſt tyrannical that can be conceived. In the year 1771 his troops entered into Great Poland, and during the ſpace of that year he carried off from that province, and neigh-

* The diſtrict claimed by Auſtria, was "all that tract of land lying on the right ſide of the Viſtula, from Sileſia above Sandomir to the mouth of the San, and from thence by Franepole, Zamoiſe, and Rubieſſow, to the Bog; from the Bog along the frontiers of Red Ruſſia to Zabras, on the borders of Volhinia and Podolia, and from Zabras in a ſtraight line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbrytz, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries ſeparating Podolia and Moldavia. This country is now incorporated with Auſtria, under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria.

† The Ruſſian claims compriſe Poliſh Livonia, that part of the palatinate of Polorſk to the eaſt of the Duna. The palatinates of Vitepſk, Mciſlaw, and two portions of the palatinate of Minſk. This tract of land (Poliſh Livonia excepted) is ſituated in White Ruſſia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the two governments of Polotſk and Mohilef.

neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the ſame year, he publiſhed an edict, commanding every perſon, under the ſevereſt penalties, and even corporal puniſhment, to take in payment for forage, proviſions, corn, horſes, &c. the money offered by his troops and commiſſaries. This money was either ſilver bearing the impreſſion of Poland, and exactly worth one third of its nominal value, or ducats ſtruck in imitation of Dutch ducats, ſeventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this baſe money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to ſupply his army for two whole years, but to ſtock magazines in the country itſelf, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re purchaſe corn for their daily ſubſiſtence at an advanced price, and with good money, his commiſſaries refuſing to take the ſame coin they had paid. At the loweſt calculation he gained, by this honeſt manœuvre, ſeven millions of dollars. Having ſtripped the country of money and proviſions, his next attempt was to thin it ſtill more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions, at the expence of Poland, had been his great aim; for this purpoſe he hit upon a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furniſh a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were ſo heavy, and exceeded at laſt, their abilities ſo much, that the prieſts abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. Theſe exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and poſſeſſion taken of the provinces uſurped. From theſe proceedings it would appear that his Pruſſian majeſty knew of no rights but his own; no pretenſions but thoſe of the houſe of Brandenburg; no other rule of juſtice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent diſmemberment and partition of Poland has juſtly been conſidered as the firſt great breach in the modern political ſyſtem of Europe. The ſurpriſe of a town, the invaſion of an inſignificant province, or the election of a prince, who had neither abilities to be feared, nor virtues to be loved, would ſome years ago have armed one half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the deſtruction of a great kingdom, with the conſequent diſarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Europe with the moſt aſtoniſhing indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonſtrated againſt the uſurpations, but that was all. Poland was forced to ſubmit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the ſenate there was a majority of ſix, but in the lower houſe, or aſſembly of nuncios, there was but one in favour of the meaſure, 54 againſt 53. This is a very alarming circumſtance, and ſhews that a moſt important, though not happy change, has taken place in that general ſyſtem of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for ſome ages an object of unremitting attention with moſt of the ſtates of Europe. Our anceſtors might, perhaps, on ſome occaſions, diſcover rather more anxiety about preſerving the balance of power in Europe than was neceſſary; but it has been well remarked, that the idea of conſidering Europe as a vaſt commonwealth, of the ſeveral parts being diſtinct and ſeparate, though politically and commercially united of keeping them independent, though unequal in power, and of preventing

ing any one, by any means, from becoming too powerful for the reſt, was great and liberal, and, though the reſult of barbariſm, was founded upon the moſt enlarged principles of the wiſeſt policy. It appears to be owing to this ſyſtem, that this ſmall part of the weſtern world has acquired ſo aſtoniſhing a ſuperiority over the reſt of the globe. The fortune and glory of Greece proceeded from a ſimilar ſyſtem of policy, though formed upon a ſmaller ſcale. Both her fortune and glory expired with that ſyſtem.

The revolution, which happened in this country on the 3d of May 1791, deſervedly engaged much of the public attention, as it eſtabliſhed a free and apparently well balanced conſtitution in Poland, founded upon the genuine principles of liberty. The evils of elective monarchy were indeed the chief cauſe that Poland had almoſt ceaſed to be conſidered as a nation. The dynaſty of future kings of Poland was to commence in Frederic Auguſtus elector of Saxony, with the right of inheritance to his male deſcendants: in caſe the preſent elector ſhould have no male iſſue, a huſband choſen by him for his daughter, with the conſent of the Poliſh repreſentatives, ſhall begin the dynaſty. But after this boaſted change, Poland would only have advanced to that degree of civilization which other European countries enjoyed in the 13th century. Here hundreds of citizens would have been free, here millions of peaſants ſlaves; at the utmoſt, not above five hundred thouſand out of fifteen millions would have been free.

After a ſhort and unequal ſtruggle with Ruſſia, this unhappy country has been forced to abandon the new conſtitution, and may again be regarded as a Ruſſian province. The conſtitution, which had been eſtabliſhed in Poland was not of long duration. Although the king had joined moſt cordially in its ſupport as it ſeemed calculated to promote the happineſs of his people, he had neglected every means of defending the newly ſettled government. Neither the ſtanding force of Poland was properly organized, nor the militia embodied. Not a magazine was erected, not an entrenchment thrown up to oppoſe the entrance of the enemy. It was all a dead calm and the Auſtrians appeared upon their frontiers before the diet had recovered from its ſurprize at the firſt hoſtile declaration of the empreſs. It was on the 21ſt. of April that they received the firſt notification from the king, of the inimical and unjuſt intentions of Ruſſia. The diet and nation roſe as one man to maintain their independence. All private animoſities were obliterated, all private intereſts were ſacrificed. On the 18th. of May, the Ruſſian ambaſſador delivered his declaration, which was immediately followed by the appearance of the Ruſſian troops on the frontiers. Many obſtinate engagements were fought, and the Poles bravely reſiſted the progreſs of the enemy. Notwithſtanding their exertions however they were obliged gradually to retire before a more numerous and better diſciplined army. Nieſuez, Wilna, Minſk, and ſeveral other places of leſs conſequence, fell into their hands one after another.

The unequal conteſt was however prematurely terminated. The king inſtead of putting himſelf, according to his firſt reſolve, at the head of his army ſurrendered at diſcretion. On the 2d. of Auguſt, a confederation was formed at Warſaw, whoſe acts were evidently the deſpotic dictates of Ruſſia, and were calculated to reſtore ancient abuſes, and to place the country under the aggravated oppreſſion of a foreign yoke.

Meanwhile the king of Pruſſia obſerving with how much facility the empreſs had ſeized part of the dominions of Poland determined to join in the robbery. On the 6th. of January he publiſhed a declaration, which was in a ſhort time followed up by a body of troops. Thorn and Dantzick were in a very ſhort time completely ſubjected to the Pruſſians, and a garriſon of

1,700

1,700 men was quartered upon the inhabitants. The further partition of this unfortunate country was now rapidly approaching. It was preceded by manifeſtoes from the combined potentates, all attempting to juſtify their proceedings. The Poles were now, however, driven almoſt to deſperation by oppreſſion. The peaſants were compelled to lodge and board the Ruſſian ſoldiers, and tranſport them from place to place, without receiving the leaſt remuneration. Rouſed into action by theſe exceſſes general Koſciuſko, early in February appeared at the head of a conſiderable body of inſurgents, attacked the Pruſſians, who had taken poſſeſſion of their country, forced them to retreat, and purſued them to a conſiderable diſtance. During the ſummer a number of battles were fought with various ſucceſs. Early in September the Ruſſian grand army arrived in Poland, and on the 10th of October, a dreadful engagement took place between the Ruſſians under general Ferſen, and the troops under Koſciuſko. The Ruſſians advanced twice to the attack, but were repulſed by the Poles, who, not contented with the advantages they had gained, abandoned their favourable poſition on the heights, and preſſed on to the attack in their turn. This movement threw the troops into confuſion; and the Ruſſians forming themſelves anew, the rout ſoon became general. The battle, which began at ſeven in the morning, did not end till noon. Koſciuſko flew from rank to rank, and was continually in the hotteſt part of the engagement, in the courſe of which he had three horſes killed under him. At length he fell; and a Coſſack, who did not know him in the peaſant's dreſs which he conſtantly wore, wounded him from behind with a lance. He recovered, and advanced a few ſteps, but was again knocked down by another Coſſack, who was preparing to give him a mortal blow, when his arm was ſtopped by a Ruſſian officer, who is ſaid to have been general Chrnozazow, to whoſe wife Koſciuſko had a ſhort time before politely given leave of departure from Warſaw to join her huſband. The unfortunate Koſciuſko implored the officer, if he wiſhed to render him a ſervice, to allow the ſoldier to put an end to his exiſtence; but the latter choſe rather to make him a priſoner. The Poliſh infantry defended themſelves with bravery proportioned to that of their general, and fought with a degree of valour almoſt approaching to fury.

The Ruſſians ſoon afterwards ſummoned Warſaw to ſurrender, and on being refuſed, they proceeded on the 4th of November to attack the ſuburb of Prague. Suwarrow, commanded his ſoldiers to mount to the aſſault in the ſame manner they had done at Iſmael, over the dead bodies of their comrades and enemies. His further orders were, that they ſhould fight only with the ſabre and the bayonet. The Ruſſians ſprung to the charge with almoſt inconceivable impetuoſity. They eagerly began to climb the works, and the ſix Ruſſian columns preſented themſelves at the ſame moment before the lines at Prague. Thus ſurrounded the Poliſh generals found themſelves unable to oppoſe with 10,000 ſoldiers, which was the whole of their force, the united attack of 50,000 men; and, to add their diſtreſs, the fire which they immediately commenced, from the darkneſs of the night was ſo ill directed as to paſs over the heads of the aſſailants.

The cry raiſed by the ſucceſsful columns penetrated to the entrenchments on the other ſide the Viſtula, and added to the conſternation of the Poles engaged with the other part of the Ruſſian force; and they endeavoured to find ſafety by retiring into Warſaw, over a bridge. In their retreat they were met by another body of Ruſſians, and a dreadful carnage enſued, in which a great part of the garriſon of Prague was miſerably ſlaughtered. After a ſevere conflict of eight hours, the reſiſtance on the part of the Poles ceaſ-

ceaſed. Five thouſand Poles were computed to have been ſlain in the aſſault; the remainder were either impriſoned or diſperſed. The citizens were compelled to lay down their arms, and their houſes were plundered by the mercileſs Ruſſians, who, after the battle had ceaſed nearly ten hours, about nine o'clock at night ſet fire to the town, and again began to maſſacre the inhabitants. In this exigence count Potocki, the chief of the inſurrection, propoſed to treat with the Ruſſians, and repaired to their head quarters with propoſitions of peace, in the name of the republic. He was received with extreme haughtineſs by Suwarrow, who intimated, that he ſhould not treat with any inſurgent, but only with ſuch as, inveſted with legitimate authority, ſhould come to ſpeak in the name, and on the part of, his Poliſh majeſty. Deputies were then diſpatched from the magiſtracy of Warſaw to the Ruſſian commander, who returned, after having been conſtrained to ſurrender the city at diſcretion, under the ſingle condition of ſecuring to the inhabitants their lives and property. The general inſolently obſerved, that there was another article which without doubt they had forgotten to aſk, but which he would accede to them, which was *pardon for the paſt*.

In conſequence of this arrangement, the firing which had been kept up in the ſuburb of Prague ceaſed, and all the inhabitants of Warſaw were requeſted to ſurrender their arms. This was refuſed by the ſoldiers in the city, and their chief Wawrzecki, with many others of the ſupreme council, refuſed to take part in the capitulation. This impeded the cloſe of the negotiation; but the military, who refuſed to lay down their arms, were allowed to leave Warſaw, not however without a declaration from Suwarrow that they might be ſure of not eſcaping, and that, when taken, no quarter would be granted. On the morning of the 7th the ſupreme council with the generaliſſimo Wawrecki remitted into the hands of the king the authority they had exerciſed. On the 9th the Ruſſian general made his triumphal entry into Warſaw, in which the ſtreets were lined with his troops, and the inhabitants, ſhut up in their houſes, obſerved a melancholy ſilence. The chief magiſtrate delivered him the keys at the bridge of Prague; after which he received the compliments of the king, and on the 10th went with much pomp to the caſtle to pay his reſpects to his majeſty. Such was the fate of this unhappy country; though brave and enthuſiaſtick in defence of their liberties, the inhabitants are compelled to bow beneath the oppreſſive yoke of foreign potentates.

SWITZERLAND.

Situation and Extent.

Miles		Degrees.
Length 260	between	6 and 11 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 100		46 and 48 north latitude.

Containing 13,000 ſquare miles, with 138 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by Alſace and Swabia in Germany, on the North; by the lake of Conſtance, Tirol, and Trent, on the Eaſt; by Italy, on the South; and by France, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which ſtand in point of precedency as follows; 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schweitz; 6. Underwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Baſil; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffhauſen: 13. Appenzel.

The beſt account we have of the dimenſions and principal towns of each canton, is as follows:

Countries Names. Switzerland.		Miles in Length.	Miles in Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calviniſts.	Berne	111	87	Berne
	Zurich	34	33	Zurich
	Schaff hauſen	23	9	Schaffhauſen
	Baſil	21	18	Baſil, 47-40 N. Lat. 7-40 E. lon.
Papiſts.	Lucerne	33	35	Lucerne
	Underwalden	23	16	Stantz
	Uri	48	21	Altorf
	Suiſſe	27	13	Suiſſe
	Fribourg	24	21	Fribourg
	Zug	18	10	Zug
	Soleure	31	24	Soleure, or Solothurn
Calviniſts and Papiſts.	Appenzel	23	21	Appenzel
	Glaris	24	18	Glaris
The ſubjects of the Switzers, Calviniſts and Papiſts.	Baden	26	12	Baden
	Bremgarten			Bremgarten
	Mellingen			Mellingen
	Rheinthal	20	5	Rheineck
	Thurgau	18	11	Frowanfield
	Lugano	52	30	Lugana
	Locarno			Locarno
	Mendris			Mendris
	Maggia			Maggia

Allies of the Switzers.	Countries Names.	Miles in Length.	Miles in Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calviniſts.	Griſons	100	62	Coire
Subjects of the Griſons, Calviniſts & Pap.	Chiavanna	42	34	Chiavanna
	Bormio and	27	19	Sondrio
	Valteline			
			8	Liechtenſteg
Calviniſts.	Tockenburg	27	11	Geneva
	Geneva	13	20	Neufchatel
	Neufchatel	32	30	Sion
Papiſts.	Valais	80	16	Delſperg
	Baſle	13	10	St. Gall
	St. Gall	20		Mulhauſen, in Alſace, is alſo united to them.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps (which form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles), the frosts are consequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with snow sometimes all the year long. In summer the inequality of the soil renders the same province very unequal in its seasons; on one side of those mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are sowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful than the summer months in this charming country. It is subject to rains and tempests; for which reason public granaries are every where erected to supply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often descends from the mountains in large or small cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

There is, perhaps, no country in the world wherein the advantageous effects of unwearied and persevering industry are more remarkably conspicuous than in Switzerland. In passing over the mountainous parts thereof, the traveller is struck with admiration, to observe rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with rich pasture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the sides of precipices so steep, that a horse could not even mount them without great difficulty. In short, the inhabitants seem to have surmounted every obstruction which soil, situation, and climate had thrown in their way, and to have spread fertility over various spots of the country, which nature seemed to have consigned to everlasting barrenness. The feet of the mountains, and sometimes also the very summits are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and pasture grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, consisting almost entirely of barren and inaccessible rocks, some of which are continually covered with snow or ice. The vallies between these icy and snowy mountains appear like so many smooth frozen lakes, and from them vast fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful spots beneath. In some parts, there is a regular gradation from extreme wildness to high cultivation; in others the transitions are very abrupt, and very striking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and studded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, pastures which appear suspended in the air, exhibit the most delightful landscape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and snow. "Behold our walls and bulwarks," exclaimed a Swiss peasant, pointing to the mountains; "Constantinople is not so strongly fortified." In short, Switzerland abounds with the most picturesque scenes; and here are to be found some of the most sublime exhibitions of nature, in her most awful and tremendous forms, and in those stupendous Alps, "whose heads touch heaven."

GLACIERS.] No subject in natural history is more curious than the origin of these glaciers, which are immense fields of ice, and usually rest on an inclined plain; being pushed forwards by the pressure of their own weight, and but weakly supported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are intersected by large transverse crevices; and present the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantastic shapes, observed at all heights and in all situations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr. Coxe describes the method of travelling over these glaciers. "We had each of us a long pole spiked with iron; and in order to secure us as much as possible from slipping, the guides fastened to our shoes *crampons*, or small

ſmall bars of iron; provided with four ſmall ſpikes of the ſame metal. At other times inſtead of *crampons*, we had large nails in our ſhoes, which more effectually anſwered our purpoſe. The difficulty of croſſing theſe valleys of ice, ariſes from the immenſe chaſms. We rolled down large ſtones into ſeveral of them: and the great length of time before they reached the bottom, gave us ſome conception of their depth; our guides aſſured us, that in ſome places they are not leſs than five hundred feet deep. I can no otherwiſe convey to you an image of this body of ice, broken into irregular ridges and deep chaſms, than by comparing it to a lake inſtantaneouſly frozen in the midſt of a violent ſtorm." In ſpeaking of an unſucceſsful attempt of ſome gentlemen to reach the ſummit of Mont Blanc, he preſents to his readers a moſt horrid image of the danger of theſe chaſms. "As they were returning in great haſte, (owing to the day being far advanced) one of the party ſlipped in attempting to leap over a chaſm of ice. He held in his hand a long pole, ſpiked with iron, which heſtruck into the ice; and upon this he hung dreadfully ſuſpended for a few moments, until he was releaſed by his companions."

MOUNTAINS.] In this mountainous country, where nature is all upon a grand ſcale, Mont Blanc is particularly diſtinguiſhed from other mountains, by having its ſummits and ſides clothed to a conſiderable depth with a mantle of ſnow, almoſt without the intervention of the leaſt rock to break the glare of the white appearance. According to the calculation of Mr. De Luc, (by whoſe improvement of the barometer, elevations are taken with a degree of accuracy before unattainable), the height of this mountain above the level of the ſea is 2,391½ French toiſes, or 15,304 Engliſh feet; or according to Sir George Shuckborough, 15,662 feet, which gives a difference of only 358 feet. The Peak of Teneriff and Ætna have been frequently ſuppoſed to be the higheſt points of the globe, but from the moſt accurate obſervations it will be found that Mont Blanc is of much more conſiderable elevation, and that there are no mountains (except thoſe in America, particularly Chimboraco, the higheſt point of the Cordilleras, the elevation of which according to Condamine, ſurpaſſes 3,000 toiſes, or 19,200 feet, but according to others, 20,608 feet), which are equal to the altitude of Mont Blanc.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine, which riſes in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard, the Aar, the Reuſs, the Teſin, the Oglio, and the Rhone.—The lakes are thoſe of Geneva, Conſtance, Thun, Lucerne, Zuriche, Biel, and Brien.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, cryſtal, virgin ſulphur, and ſprings of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces ſheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and cheſnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs citrons, and pomegranates; and moſt of the cantons abound in timber. Beſides game, fiſh, and fowl, are alſo found, in ſome of the higher and more inacceſſible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and the chamois, whoſe activity in ſcouring along the ſteep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both theſe animals is of ſo hot a nature, that the inhabitants of ſome of theſe mountains, who are ſubject to pleuriſies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that diſorder. The fleſh of the chamois is eſteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewiſe found a ſpecies of hares, which in ſummer is ſaid perfectly to reſemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, ſo

that they are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable among the ſnow. But this idea hath been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two ſpecies ever couple together. The white hare ſeldom quits his rocky reſidence.—Here are alſo yellow and white foxes, which in winter ſometimes come down into the vallies.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the beſt accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about, 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induſtrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general ſimplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankneſs, together with an invincible ſpirit of freedom, are the moſt diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. A very ſtriking proof of the ſimplicity and openneſs of manners of this people, and of aſtoniſhing confidence, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who ſays, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that, on each ſide of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, there are ſeveral ranges of ſmall ſhops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked; any paſſengers who wiſh to become purchaſers, enter the ſhops, take away the merchandize, and depoſit the price, which the owners call for in the evening. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the ſame rank of men in moſt other countries; a taſte for literature is very prevalent among thoſe who are in better circumſtances, and even among many of the loweſt rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is extremely conſpicuous in the Swiſs gentry. On the firſt entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but obſerve the air of content and ſatisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanlineſs of the houſes, and of the people, is peculiarly ſtriking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dreſs, ſome ſtrong outlines may be traced, which diſtinguiſh this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppreſſions of deſpotic government. Even the Swiſs cottages convey the livelieſt image of cleanlineſs, eaſe, and ſimplicity, and cannot but ſtrongly impreſs upon the obſerver a moſt pleaſing conviction of the peaſant's happineſs. In ſome of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, conſiſting generally of a field or two of fine paſture ground, and frequently ſkirted with trees, and well ſupplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in moſt parts of Switzerland: and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occaſions. Silk, lace, and ſeveral other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in ſome of the cantons; and even the head-dreſſes of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are alſo ſtrictly prohibited; and in other games, the party who loſes above ſix florins, which is about nine ſhillings of our money, incurs a conſiderable fine. Their diverſions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not waſted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leiſure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their underſtandings. The youth are diligently trained to all the martial exerciſes, ſuch as running, wreſtling, throwing the hammer, and ſhooting both with the croſs-bow and the muſket.

GOITERS AND IDIOTS.] The inhabitants in one part of this country, particularly in the republic of Vallais, are very much ſubject to *goiters*, or large excreſcences of fleſh that grow from the throat, and often increaſe to a moſt enormous ſize; but what is more extraordinary, idiotiſm alſo remarkably abounds among them. "I ſaw," ſays Mr. Coxe, "many inſtances of both kinds, as I paſſed through Sion: ſome idiots were baſking in the ſun

ſun with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the moſt affecting ſpectacle of intellectual imbecillity that can poſſibly be conceived. The cauſes which produce a frequency of theſe phænomena in this country, form a very curious queſtion.

The notion that ſnow-water occaſions theſe excreſcences is totally void of foundation. For on that ſuppoſition, why are the natives of thoſe places that lie moſt contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what deſcends from theſe immenſe reſervoirs of ice and ſnow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of thoſe countries in which there is no ſnow, afflicted with it? For, theſe guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the iſland of Sumatra, and at Patna, and Purnea in the Eaſt Indies, where ſnow is unknown.

The ſprings, that ſupply drink to the natives, are impregnated with a calcareous matter, called in Switzerland *tuf*, nearly ſimilar to the incruſtations of Matlock in Derbyſhire, ſo minutely diſſolved as not in the leaſt to affect the tranſparency of the water. It is not improbable, that the impalpable particles of this ſubſtance, thus diſſolved, ſhould introduce themſelves into the glands of the throat, and produce goiters, for the following reaſons: becauſe *tuf*, or this calcareous depoſition, abounds in all thoſe diſtricts, where goiters are common. There are goitrous perſons and much *tuf* in Derbyſhire, in different parts of the Vallais, in the Valteline, at Lucerne, Fribourgh, and Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in ſeveral places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dreſden, in the valleys of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. But the ſtrongeſt proof in favour of this opinion, ſays our author, is derived from the following facts. A ſurgeon whom I met at the baths of Leuk, informed me that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *tuff-ſtone* from ſeveral goiters; and that from one in particular, which ſuppurated, he had taken ſeveral flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He added that the ſame ſubſtance is found in the ſtomach of cows, and in the goitrous tumors, to which even the dogs of the country are ſubject. He had diminiſhed and cured the goiters of many young perſons by emollient liquours, and external applications; and prevented them in future, by removing his patients from the place where the ſprings are impregnated with *tuf*; and, if that could not be contrived, by forbidding the uſe of water which was not purified.

Children are occaſionally born with guttural ſwellings, but this may ariſe from the ailment of the mother. It is to be preſumed, that a people accuſtomed to theſe excreſcences, will not be ſhocked at their deformity; but it does not appear, as ſome writers aſſert, that they conſider them as beauties. To judge from the account of many travellers, it might be ſuppoſed that the natives, without exception, were either idiots or goitrous; whereas, in fact, the Vallaiſans, in general are a robuſt race; and all that with truth can be affirmed, is, that goitrous perſons and idiots are more abundant in ſome diſtricts of the Vallais, than perhaps in any other part of the globe. It has been aſſerted that the peop'e very much reſpect theſe idiots, and even conſider them as *bleſſings from Heaven*. The common people, it is certain eſteem them ſo, for they call them "*ſouls of God without ſin*;" and many parents prefer theſe idiot children to thoſe whoſe underſtandings are perfect, becauſe as they are incapable of intentional criminality, they conſider them as certain of happineſs in a future ſtate. Nor is this opinion entirely without its good effect, as it diſpoſes the parents to pay greater attention to ſuch help-

helpleſs beings. Theſe idiots are ſuffered to marry, as well among themſelves, as with others *.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiſs cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader in the table prefixed, may perceive. Thoſe differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which ſeem now to have ſubſided. Zuinglius was the apoſtle of proteſtantiſm in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few ſpeculative points; ſo that Calviniſm may be ſaid to be the religion of the proteſtant Swiſs. But this muſt be underſtood chiefly with reſpect to the mode of the church government; for in ſome doctrinal points they are far from being univerſally Calviniſtical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the intereſts of civil liberty, their ſentiments on the ſubject of religious toleration are in general much leſs liberal.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moſt common is German. The Swiſs who border upon France ſpeak a baſtard French, as thoſe near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whoſe name is ſo well known in all proteſtant countries, inſtituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are held in high eſteem by the moſt learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent Rouſſeau too, whoſe works the preſent age have received with ſo much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rouſſeau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a proſe writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the *Devin de Village*, in particular is much eſteemed. M. Bonner, and Meſſ. de Sauſſure and De Luc alſo deſerve to be mentioned with applauſe, and will be remembered till the Alps ſhall be no more.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſity of Baſil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious phyſic-garden, which contains the choiceſt exotics; and adjoining to the library, which contains ſome valuable manuſcripts, is a muſeum well furniſhed with natural and artificial curioſities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Eraſmus and Amerbach, which alſo belong to this univerſity, there are no leſs than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, repreſenting a dead Chriſt, a thouſand ducats have been offered. The other univerſities, which indeed are commonly only ſtyled colleges, are thoſe of Bern, Lauſanne, and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Every diſtrict of a canton in this mountainous country preſents the traveller with a natural curioſity; ſometimes in the ſhape of wild but beautiful proſpects, interſperſed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, eſpecially one, two leagues from Fribourg. This was formed by the hands of a ſingle hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greateſt curioſity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, cieling, all cut out of the rock.

At Shauffhauſen is a very extraordinary bridge over the Rhine, juſtly admired for the ſingularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid

* Coxe's Travels through Switzerland, vol. i. p. 385, &c.

pid, and had already deſtroyed ſeveral ſtone bridges of the ſtrongeſt conſtruction, when a carpenter of Appenzel offered to throw a wooden bridge, of a ſingle arch acroſs the river, which is near four hundred feet wide. The magiſtrates, however, required, that it ſhould conſiſt of two arches, and that he ſhould for that purpoſe employ the middle pier of the old bridge. Accordingly the architect was obliged to obey; but he has contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge is ſupported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally as ſafe if formed ſolely of one arch. The ſides and top are covered, and it is what the Germans call a *hængewerh*, or hanging bridge; the road which is almoſt level, is not carried, as uſual, over the top of the arch; but, if the expreſſion may be allowed, is let into the middle of it and there ſuſpended. A man of the ſlighteſt weight feels it almoſt tremble under him, yet waggons, heavily laden paſs over without danger. It has been compared to a tight rope, which trembles when ſtruck, but ſtill preſerves its firm and equal tenſion. On conſidering the greatneſs of the plan, and the boldneſs of the conſtruction, it is matter of aſtoniſhment that the architect was originally a carpenter, without the leaſt tincture of literature, totally ignorant of mathematics, and not verſed in the theory of mechanics. His name was Ulric Grubenmam. The bridge was finiſhed in leſs than three years, and coſt about 8000l. ſterling.

At the famous paſs of *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried though a ſolid rock near 50 feet thick, the height of the arch 26, and its breadth 25. The marchaſites, falſe diamonds, and other ſtones, found in thoſe mountains, are juſtly ranked among the natural curioſities of the country. The ruins of Cæſar's wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of Lake Leman, are ſtill diſcernible.—Many monuments of antiquity have been diſcovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boaſts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of Jeſuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuſcripts, antiques, and curioſities of all kinds. At Lucerne (ſays Mr. Coxe) is to be ſeen a topographical repreſentation of the moſt mountainous part of Switzerland, by General Pfiffer, a native of this town, and an officer in the French ſervice. It is a model in relief, and well deſerves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finiſhed in 1776, comprized about 60 ſquare leagues, in the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, Berne, Uri, Schweitz, and Underwalden. The model was twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The compoſition is principally a maſtic of charcoal, lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is ſo hard as to be trod upon without receiving the leaſt damage. The whole is painted with different colours, repreſenting the objects as they exiſt in nature. It is worthy of particular obſervation, that not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees are diſtinguiſhed; but alſo that ſtrata of the ſeveral rocks are marked, each being ſhaped upon the ſpot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous ſtone, or ſuch other natural ſubſtances as compoſe the original mountains. The plan is indeed ſo minutely exact, that it comprizes not only all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and foreſts; but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and every path is diſtinctly and accurately repreſented. The general takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to Mr. de Sauſſure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the moſt mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a ſublime picture of immenſe Alps piled one upon another; as if the ſtory of the Titans were realized

realized, and they had ſucceeded (at leaſt in one ſpot of the glob) in heaping Oſſa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Oſſa. From the account of this officer, it appears, that there are continued chains of mountains of the ſame elevation, riſing in progreſſion to the higheſt range, and from thence gradually deſcending in the ſame proportion to Italy. Near Roſiniere, is a famous ſpring which riſes in the midſt of a natural baſon of 12 ſquare feet—the force that acts upon it muſt be prodigious; after a great ſhower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its ſurface Its temperature never varies, its ſurface is clear as cryſtal, and in depth unfathomable; probably the end of ſome ſubterraneous lake, that hath here found an iſſue, for its waters.

CITIES.] Of the moſt conſiderable is the city of Bern, ſtanding on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is ſaid, forms almoſt a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occaſion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are exceellently well provided with arſenals, bridges, and public edifies. Baſil is accounted by ſome the capital of all Switzerland. It is ſituated in a fertile and delightful country, on the bank of the Rhine, and the confines of Alſace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty ſtreets, and ſix market-places. The town-houſe, which ſtands on the river Birſec, is ſupported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The ſituation of Baſil is pleaſing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is conſidered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far leſs conſiderable than Bern, but in the arſenal is ſhewn the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the liberary is a manuſcript of excellent letters, written by the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey, to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German.

To prevent a repetition, I ſhall here mention the city of Geneva, which is an aſſociate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itſelf is an independent ſtate, and republic. This city is well built and well fortified, and contains 24,000 inhabitants, moſt of whom are Calviniſts. It is ſituated upon the afflux of the Rhone from the large fine lake of Geneva. It is celebrated for the learning of the profeſſors of its univerſity, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants. By its ſituation, it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artiſts; ſo that the proteſtants, eſpecially ſuch as are of a liberal turn, eſteem it a moſt delightful place.—But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the uſurpation of the ſenate, hath divided the citizens into parties, and the late ſtruggle of patricians and plebeians had nearly ruined all. Many of its valuable citizens have accordingly left the place, and ſought refuge and protection in Ireland and elſewhere.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, ſtockings, handkerchiefs, ribands, ſilk and painted cottons, and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithſtanding their ſumptuary laws, to fabricate ſilks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progreſs in thoſe manufactures, and in agriculture, gives them a proſpect of being able ſoon to make conſiderable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Theſe are very complicated heads, though belonging to the ſame body, being partly ariſtocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction, but thoſe of Berne,

Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are ariſtocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne excepted. Thoſe of Uri, Schweitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Baſil, though it has the appearance of an ariſtocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even theſe ariſtocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real intereſts of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happineſs not to be expected in deſpotic governments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itſelf to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented on the baſis of affection, a ſyſtem of mutual defence.

The confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comprehends three diviſions. The firſt are the Swiſſes, properly ſo called. The ſecond are the Griſons, or the ſtates confederated with the Swiſſes, for their common protection. The third are thoſe prefectures, which, though ſubject to the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each its own particular magiſtrates. Every canton forms within itſelf a little republic; but when any controverſy ariſes that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which ſits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majority. The general diet conſiſts of two deputies from each canton, beſides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bien. It is obſerved by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public have been indebted for the beſt account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happineſs and content more univerſally prevail among the people. For whether the government be ariſtocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general ſpirit of liberty pervades and actuates the ſeveral conſtitutions; ſo that even the oligarchical ſtates (which, of all others, are uſually the moſt tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild; and the property of the ſubject is ſecurely guarded againſt every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their ſumptuary laws, and equal diviſion of their fortunes among the children, ſeem to enſure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the ſame extent of region, ſo many independent commonwealths, and ſuch a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with ſuch wiſdom was the Helvetic union compoſed, and ſo little have the Swiſs of late years, been actuated by the ſpirit of conqueſt, that ſince the firm and complete eſtabliſhment of their general confederacy, they have ſcarcely ever had occaſion to employ their arms againſt a foreign enemy; and have had no hoſtile commotions among themſelves, that were not very ſoon happily terminated.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that conſtitute the Swiſs confederacy, renders it difficult to give a preciſe account of their revenues. Thoſe of the canton of Bern are ſaid to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and thoſe of Zurich to 100,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after defraying the neceſſary expences of government, is laid up as a common ſtock; and it has been ſaid, that the Swiſſes are poſſeſſed of 500,000l. ſterling in the Engliſh funds, beſides their property in other banks.

The revenues ariſe, 1. From the profits of the demeſne lands; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Cuſtoms and duties on merchandiſe; 4. The revenues ariſing from the ſale of ſalt, and ſome caſual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs cantons, independent of the militia, conſiſts of 13,400 men, raiſed according to the

population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wiſdom with which this force is raiſed and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign ſtates and princes are ſupplied, ſo as to benefit the ſtate, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peaſant, and ſubject, is obliged to exerciſe himſelf in the uſe of arms; appear on the ſtated days for ſhooting at the mark; furniſh himſelf with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder, and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiſs engage in the ſervice of foreign princes and ſtates, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments. In the latter caſes the government permits the enliſting volunteers, though only for ſuch ſtates, as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no ſubject is to be forced into foreign ſervice, or even to be enliſted without the concurrence of the magiſtracy.

History.] The preſent Swiſſes and Griſons, as has been already mentioned, are the deſcendants of the ancient Helvetii, ſubdued by Julius Cæſar. Their mountainous, uninviting ſituation, formed a better ſecurity for their liberties than their forts or armies; and the ſame is the caſe at preſent. They continued long under little better than a nominal ſubjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor Albert I. treated them with ſo much rigour, that they petitioned him againſt the cruelty of his governors. This ſerved only to double the hardſhips of the people; and one of Albert's Auſtrian governors, Greſler, in the wantonneſs of tyranny, ſet up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much reſpect as to himſelf. The famous William Tell, being obſerved to paſs frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent markſman, the tyrant condemned him to be hanged, unleſs he cleft an apple upon his ſon's head, at a certain diſtance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Greſler aſking him the meaning of another arrow he ſaw ſtuck in his belt, he bluntly anſwered, that it was intended to his (Greſler's) heart if he had killed his ſon. Tell was condemned to priſon upon this; but making his eſcape, he watched his opportunity, and ſhot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundations of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event, the revolt of the Swiſſes from the Auſtrian tyranny had been planned by ſome noble patriots among them. Their meaſures were ſo juſt, and their courſe ſo intrepid, that they ſoon effected a union of ſeveral cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppreſſion, ſought firſt an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suiſſe, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent ſucceſſes of their arms againſt Albert, duke of Auſtria, inſenſibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They firſt conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itſelf in 1353; Friburg and Soleure 130 years after; Baſil and Scaffhauſen in 1501; and Appenzel in 1513 completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till, by the treaty of Weſtphalia in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent ſtate.

Neufchatel, ſince the year 1707, had been under the dominion of the king of Pruſſia, but the inhabitants are free to ſerve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king hath the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor, but the reve-

nue

nue he derives is not above 5000l. yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swiſſes, I muſt refer the reader to the hiſtories of Europe.

Before the French revolution Switzerland exhibited a picture of induſtry, of competence, and of happineſs. A general content that pervaded the loweſt claſſes and a love for the conſtitution, manners, and laws of their anceſtors, checked the ſpirit of innovation. No allurements of public ſhews relaxed their virtue; no incitements of luxury inflamed their deſires. The abſence of commerce deſtroyed the means of corruption; and the advancement of knowledge extinguiſhed the flames of that religious zeal which ſullied with barbariſm the manners of the ancient Swiſs.

In the years 1793 and 1794, which in France was juſtly termed the reign of terror, Switzerland wore all the appearance of ſplendor, affluence, and gaiety. The principal towns were crowded with ſtrangers from all nations; as this country was then the only one upon the continent left open for the tranſactions of commerce, the negociations of peace, and the aſylum of fugitives. But it was only an apparent ſtate of proſperity and happineſs, the uſual forerunner of miſery and diſtreſs. Revolutionary principles were daily gaining ground; and the views of the democrats were conſiderably favoured by the thinking part of the inhabitants being entirely abſorbed in the hurry of commerce, and the means of increaſing their wealth.

When the directory thought that the plans which they carried on by means of their emiſſaries in Switzerland were ripe for execution, they made ſeveral demands upon the Swiſs, which, they knew, would not be complied with. Thoſe demands, the juſt refuſal of which, occaſioned the hoſtilites that took place between the two nations may be compriſed in the four following:

1ſt, A free navigation of the lake Lugano.

2d, A paſſage for 25,000 men under the command of two French generals, through the Vallais, from Buonaparte's army.

3d. The diſmiſſion of M. Wickham the Engliſh envoy in Switzerland.

4th, The redreſs of ſeveral injuries which they pretended to have received from the Swiſs.

With regard to the two firſt articles, it was reſolved in a diet at Framfield, both to preſerve the excluſive navigation of the lake Lugano, and to reſiſt, by force, any attempts that ſhould be made by the French to force a paſſage through the Vallais. A meſſage was at the ſame time ſent from the Directory to the Helvetic confederacy, requiring them to recall all the Swiſs officers, who had been baniſhed for their political opinions, and the removal of all French emigrants from Switzerland.

The Britiſh cabinet being informed of the demand that was made by the French Republic for the diſmiſſal of Mr. Wickham recalled their ambaſſador. The directory deprived of all cauſe of quarrel on this head, made other demands ſtill more inſulting to the honour and feelings of a free people. Theſe were, requiring the Helvetic confederacy to deprive the Swiſs officers of the orders of St. Louis and of Merit, which had been conferred upon them by Louis XVI. Although the demand of ſuppreſſing this order was the moſt degrading which could have been required, thoſe men who were inveſted with that honour, fearful of being thought hoſtile to the tranquility of their country, immediately reſigned it.

Such were the demands made upon the Helvetic confederacy by the rulers of France, in order to bring about an open rupture between the two nations; and

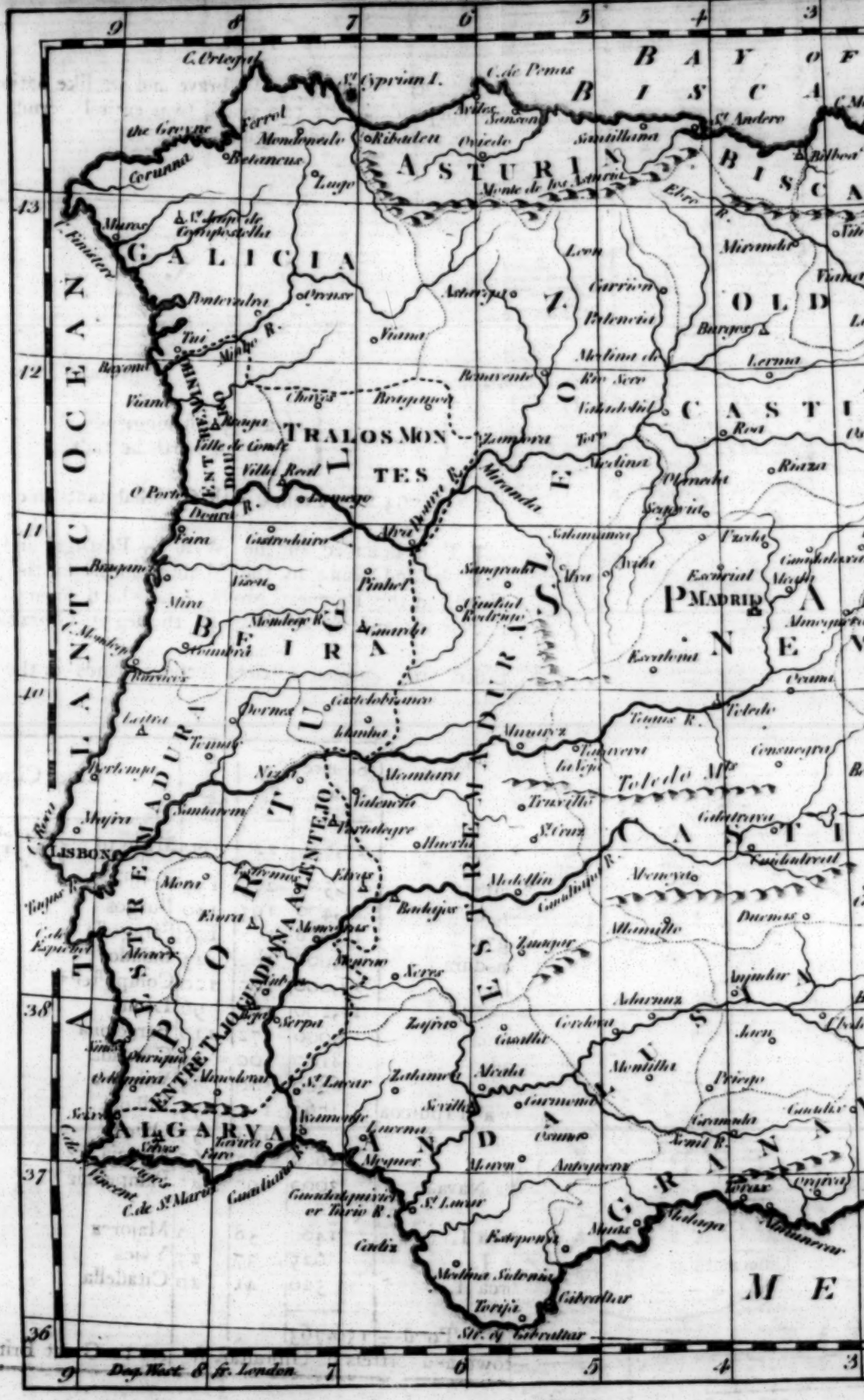
and altho' theſe may appear to have been dictated by French ambition and French avarice, they were more the formation of the revolutionary clubs in Switzerland, who never ceaſed to haraſs the French government, and inſinuate the groſſeſt calumnies againſt the rulers of their own country, until they carried their curſed views into execution.

Anxious to prevent hoſtilities, the Swiſs made another attempt to bring the French to reaſonable terms. They ſent deputies to treat with Mengaud, the French ambaſſador. Being tired, however, with repeated inſults, they ſent orders to their deputies to break off all further negociations. The directory alarmed at theſe warlike appearances, ſent general Brune to command their army in the Pays de Vaud, with orders to conclude an armiſtice until he ſhould receive a ſufficient reinforcement. Immediately upon his arrival he announced to the ſenate of Berne that he was come with pacific intentions; and entreated that commiſſaries might be ſent to him in order to ſettle their differences. Perſons properly authoriſed did come, and at the requeſt of Brune an armiſtice was concluded for eight days.

The plan which the Jacobins had laid, was now completed. The moment of diſorder and confuſion was not to be loſt by the deceitful Brune. On Friday morning the 2d. of March, two days before the termination of the armiſtice, he attacked the town of Fribourg; and after a bloody engagement, carried it by aſſault. The Berneſe now took the field to the number of 18,000 men, and notwithſtanding the ſuperiority of the enemy in point of numbers, by the junction of Schawenbourg and Brune, they reſolved to ſhed the laſt drop of their blood in defence of their country and their liberty: the women alſo, imitating the example of the ancient Helvetians, attended in the field, and ſhared with their huſbands the danger of the day. The village of Froubrun was the ſpot where the action began. There the armies on both ſides remained under arms in anxious expectation during the night of the 3d of March. On the morning of the 4th the Berneſe army was attacked in various points: whole ranks of men were cut down by the overwhelming cavalry and irreſiſtible artillery of the French. Then a moſt moving ſpectacle was to be ſeen: a number of women, in anguiſh and deſpair, threw themſelves in heaps before theſe dreadful engines, in hopes of ſtopping their deſtructive progreſs by clinging to the wheels of the cannon as they advanced. But their patriotic zeal was of no avail; the great guns made their way: and the Swiſs, after ſuſtaining nine ſucceſſive attacks of the enemy, were obliged to give way, and to have recourſe to a precipitate retreat. They left, however upon the field ſufficient proofs of their valour and courage: the dead bodies of 4000 of the enemy diſplayed the aſtoniſhing deeds of the Berneſe ſoldiers; and the mangled limbs of 150 women, cruſhed by the cannon, the heroiſm of their wives.

General Schawenbourg proceeded directly towards Berne. The confuſion and diſmay that prevailed in that city, when the French halted under its walls, exceed all deſcription. Traitors within, the enemy at the gates, irreſolution was in every ſtep and in every action: a number, however, with a determination to hold out, haſtened to the ramparts; but to their utter aſtoniſhment they found that balls of an improper calliber had been provided for the cannon. Deprived in this manner of their principal means of defence, they retreated towards the bridge, which they defended with the greateſt obſtinacy; but their ſtrength and ammunition were at length exhauſted; the artillery of the enemy forced their way; the ditch was filled with the bodies of the Swiſs; the town was given up; three leagues round Berne were devoted for plunder and rapine; and not an article was ſuffered to eſcape.

Thus,



Dag. Wast & fr. London


A New Map of
SPAIN
and
PORTUGAL
from the best Authorities.
1793.
FRANCE
British Statute Miles.
BISCAY
NAVARRE
OLD CASTILE
NEW CASTILE
CATALONIA
MAJORCA
MURCIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
Pyrenean Mountains
Ebro R.
Meridian of London
1 East Long.


C. Ortegal
St. Cyprian I.
Ferrol
Ribadeo
Corunna
Betanzos
Lugo
GALICIA
Mugia
C. Finisterre
Pontevedra
Orense
Tuy
Viana
TRALOS MONTES
Villa Real
Braganza
Chaves
Feira
Castelbranco
Viseu
Pinhel
Almeida
BEIRA
Montego R.
C. Mondego
Aveiro
Thomar
Santarem
Mayrin
Portalegre
Niza
Villaviciosa
Evora
Beja
LISBON
Setuval
Tagus R.
Merti
Estremos
Elvas
Badajos
Mertola
Serpa
Zafra
Xerez
Zahara
Seville
Lagos
Tavira
Cape St. Mary
Guadiana R.
Guadalquivir or Betis R.
Cadiz
Tarifa
St. Ly
Dep. West 8° fr. London
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ESTREMADURA
ENTRE DOURO E MINHO
ENTRE TAJO E GUADIANA
ALGARVA
ANDALUSIA

Thus, in the ſhort ſpace of four days, this brave and warlike nation, which had maintained its independence for 500 years, was entirely cruſhed by the perfidious machinations of artful and deſigning men.

SPAIN.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 700 Breadth 500	between	10 and 3 eaſt longitude. 36 and 44 north latitude.

Containing 150,763 ſquare miles, with 69 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries.] IT is bounded on the Weſt by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean on the Eaſt; by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean Mountains, which ſeparate it from France, on the North; and by the ſtrait of the ſea at Gibraltar on the South.

It is now divided into fourteen diſtricts, beſides iſlands in the Mediterranean.

	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length	Breadt.	Chief Cities.	
Spain.	Caſtile, New	27,840	220	180	Madrid	N. Lat. 40. 25. W. Lon. 3. 20.
	Andaluſia	16,500	273	135	Seville	
	Caſtile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos	
	Arrragon	13,818	190	105	Saragoſſa	
	Eſtremadura	12,600	180	123	Bajados	
	Galicia	12,000	165	120	Compoſtella	
	Leon	11,200	167	96	Leon	
	Catalonia	9000	172	110	Barcelona	
	Granada	8100	200	45	Granada	
	Valencia	6800	180	75	Valencia	
	Biſcay and Ipuſcoa	4760	140	55	Bilboa	
	Aſturia	4600	124	55	Oviedo	
	Murcia	3600	87	65	Murcia	
	Upper Navarre	3000	92	45	Pampeluna	
In the Mediterranean.	Majorca I.	1400	58	40	Majorca	
	Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica	
	Minorca I.	520	41	20	Citadella	
	Total—	150,763				

The town and fortreſs of Gibraltar, ſubject to Great Britain.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Heſperia, as well as Hiſpania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largeſt part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whoſe ancient hiſtory, at leaſt the interior part of it, we know leſs than that of Spain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Excepting during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and ſerene, but exceſſively hot in the ſouthern provinces in June, July, and Auguſt. The vaſt mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreſhing breezes that come from them in the ſouthernmoſt parts; though thoſe towards the north and north-eaſt are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller ſhiver.

Such is the moiſture of the hills, bounded on the north by the Bay of Biſcay, and to the ſouth by ſnowy mountains, that no care is ſufficient to preſerve their fruits, their grain, their inſtruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from ruſt. Both the acetous, and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progreſs. Beſides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of moſt diſeaſes which affect the principality of Aſturia. Yet, although ſubject to ſuch a variety of endemical diſeaſes, few countries can produce more inſtances of longevity; many live to the age of a hundred, ſome to a hundred and ten, and others much longer. The ſame obſervation may be extended to Gallicia, where, in the pariſh of St. Juan de Poyo, A. D. 1724, the curate adminiſtered the ſacrament to thirteen perſons, whoſe ages together made one thouſand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngeſt of theſe being one hundred and ten, and the oldeſt one hundred and twenty-ſeven. But in Villa de Foſinanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1726, aged more than one hundred and forty-ſix years.

The ſoil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately found ſome ſcarcity of it, by their diſuſe of tillage, through their indolence; the cauſes of which I ſhall explain afterwards. It produces, in many places, almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the richeſt and moſt delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy, oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins and figs. Her wines, eſpecially ſack and ſherry, are in high requeſt among foreigners. There are, in the diſtrict of Malaga, (according to Mr. Townſend, the lateſt traveller) fourteen thouſand vine preſſes, chiefly employed in making the rich wines, which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called mountain; if red, from the colour *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of tent. Good mountain is ſold from thirteen to ſixteen pounds the butt, of one hundred and thirty five gallons, according to quality and age. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thouſand veſſels enter this port every year, which, about one-tenth are Spaniſh, and the exports in wine, fruit, oil and fiſh, are computed at about £375,000 per annum; but there have been times when it has been conſiderably more.

Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromiſing, becauſe uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains ſuch a number of inhabitants, who neither toil nor work for their food, ſuch are the generous qualities of its ſoil. Even ſugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk, in great abundance. A late writer, Uſtariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of ſhepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and

has

has given us a moſt curious detail of their œconomy, their changes of paſture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately, to the public. Thoſe ſheep-walks afford the fineſt of wool, and are a treaſure in themſelves. Some of the mountains in Spain are cloathed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which renders the taſte of their kids and ſheep ſo exquiſitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds ſo much with mulberry trees, that the product of its ſilk amounts to 200,000l. a-year. Upon the whole few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and leſs to induſtry.

The waters (eſpecially thoſe that are medicinal) of Spain are little known; but many ſalutiferous ſprings are found in Granada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain, the waters are found to have ſuch healing qualities, that they are outdone by thoſe of no country in Europe; and the incloſing, and encouraging a reſort to them, grow every day more and more in vogue, eſpecially at Alhamar in Granada.

Mountains.] It is next to impoſſible to ſpecify theſe, they are ſo numerous: the chief, and the higheſt, are the Pyrenees, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over theſe mountains there are only five narrow paſſages to France, and the road over the paſs that ſeparates Rouſſillon from Catalonia, reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the ſtrength of 30 men to ſupport, and nearly as many oxen to drag up, a carriage, which four horſes now do with eaſe. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, ſouth of Cape Finiſterre. No Engliſhman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and, in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other Mount Abyla, lying oppoſite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montſerrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the moſt ſingular in the world, for ſituation, ſhape, and compoſition. It ſtands in a vaſt plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte-ſerrado, or Mount Scie, words which ſignify a cut, or ſawed mountain; and is ſo called from its ſingular and extraordinary form; for it is ſo broken and divided, and ſo crowned with an infinite number of ſpiring cones, or pine heads, that it has the appearance, at a diſtant view, to be the work of man; but upon a nearer approach, to be evidently the production of the God of nature. It is a ſpot ſo admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whoſe firſt vow is, never to forſake it. When the mountain is firſt ſeen at a diſtance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto work, or Gothic ſpires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itſelf a mountain; and the whole compoſes an enormous maſs about 14 miles in circumference, and the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height.* As it is like no other mountain, ſo it ſtands quite unconnected with any, though not

* Mr. Swinburne eſtimates its height at only 3,300 feet, and obſerves that the area of the convent are, the Virgin Mary ſitting at the foot of a rock half cut through by a ſaw,

nor far diſtant from ſome that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our Lady of Montſerrat, to which pilgrims reſort from the fartheſt parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the ſick received into the hoſpital. Sometimes, on particular feſtivals, ſeven thouſand perſons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reaſonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for ſaying maſs, water ciſterns, and moſt of them little gardens. The inhabitant of one of theſe hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the ſacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar; and after divine ſervice dine together. They meet alſo at this hermitage, on the days of the ſaints to which their ſeveral hermitages are dedicated, to ſay maſs, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very ſolitary and recluſe manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abſtinence, nor do they ever eat fleſh. Nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, leſt their attention ſhould be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. The number of profeſſed monks there, is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of ſinging boys 25, beſides phyſician, ſurgeon, and ſervants. Mr. Thickneſſe, who has publiſhed a very particular deſcription of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often ſaw from his habitation, the iſlands of Minorca, Majorca, and Yvica, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

RIVERS, AND LAKES.] Theſe are the Duero, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic below Liſbon; the Guadiana falls into the ſame ocean near Cape Finiſterre; as does the Guadalquiver, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean ſea below Tortoſa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, riſes in Sierra Morena, and empties itſelf into the Mediterranean near Huelva, having the name of Tinto given it from the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the ſand, and petrifying it in a moſt ſurpriſing manner. If a ſtone happens to fall in, and reſt upon another, they both become in a year's time perfectly united and conglutinated.—This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dies of the ſame hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fiſh live in its ſtream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, whoſe fleſh nevertheleſs has an excellent flavour. Theſe ſingular properties continue till other rivulets run into it, and alter its nature; for when it paſſes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean ſea ſix leagues lower down.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with fiſhes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into ſalt by the heat of the ſun.

BAYS.] The chief bays are thoſe of Biſcay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne,) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicant, Altea, Valencia, Roſes, Majorca in that iſland, and the harbour of Port-Mahon, in the iſland of Minorca. The ſtrait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

METALS

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the ſame kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadſtones, jacinths, turquois ſtones, quickſilver, copper, lead, ſulphur, alum, calamine, cryſtal, marbles of ſeveral kinds, porphyry, the fineſt jaſper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethyſts, are found here. The Spaniſh iron, next to that of Damaſcus, furniſhes the beſt arms in the world; and, in former times, brought in a vaſt revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection.—Even to this day, Spaniſh gun barrels, and ſwords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongſt the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and ſilver mines; and ſilver was in ſuch plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Auguſtus Cæſar, informs us, that when the Carthaginians took poſſeſſion of Spain, their domeſtic and agricultural utenſils were of that metal. Theſe mines have now diſappeared: but whether by their being exhauſted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot ſay; though the latter cauſe ſeems to be the moſt probable.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The Spaniſh horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Andaluſia, are thought to be the handſomeſt of any in Europe, and at the ſame time very fleet and ſerviceable. The king does all he can to monopoliſe the fineſt breeds for his own ſtables and ſervice. Spain furniſhes likewiſe mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have ſo much ferocity, that their bull feaſts were the moſt magnificent ſpectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now diſuſed. Wolves are the chief beaſts of prey that peſter Spain, which is well ſtored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already deſcribed. The Spaniſh ſeas afford excellent fiſh of all kinds, eſpecially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection. This country is much infeſted with locuſts; and Mr. Dillon obſerves, that in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of famine aſſailed the fruitful provinces of Andaluſia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have ſometimes appeared in the air in ſuch numbers as to darken the ſky; the clear atmoſphere of Spain has become gloomy; and the fineſt ſummer day in Eſtremadura, been rendered more diſmal than the winter of Holland. Their ſenſe of ſmelling is ſo delicate, that they can diſcover a corn field, or a garden, at a conſiderable diſtance; and which they will ravage almoſt in an inſtant. Mr. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and obſervation, might deſtroy the eggs of theſe formidable inſects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.] Spain, formerly the moſt populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing partly to the great drains of people ſent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raiſe food for their families. Another cauſe may be aſſigned, and that is, the vaſt numbers of eccleſiaſtics, of both ſexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have given ſeveral other cauſes, ſuch as their wars with the Moors, and the final expulſion of that people. The preſent inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed by Feyjoo, a Spaniſh writer, to amount to 9,250,000, ſo that England is three times as populous as Spain, conſidering its extent.

The perſons of the Spaniards are generally tall, eſpecially the Caſtilians; their hair and complexions ſwarthy, but their countenances are very expreſſive. The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of muſtachoes, and to introduce among them the French dreſs, inſtead of their black cloaks, their ſhort jerkin, ſtrait breeches, and long Toledo

ſwords, which dreſs is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dreſs, in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find ſome difficulty in aboliſhing it quite, as the ſame ſpirit is far from being extinguiſhed. An old Caſtilian, or Spaniard, who ſees none above him, thinks himſelf the moſt important being in nature; and the ſame pride is commonly communicated to his deſcendants. This is the true reaſon why many of them are ſo fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of ſeeing a ſuperior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the moſt exalted qualities. It inſpires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous ſentiments; it being ſeldom found that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the moſt embittered wars they have had with England for near 70 years paſt, we know of no inſtance of their taking advantage (as they might eaſily have done) of confiſcating the Britiſh property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally ſecure in time of war as peace. This is the more ſurpriſing, as Philip V. was often needy, and his miniſters were far from being ſcrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By the beſt and moſt credible accounts of the late wars, it appears that the Spaniards in America gave the moſt humane and noble relief to all Britiſh ſubjects who were in diſtreſs, and fell into their hands, not only by ſupplying them with neceſſaries, but money; and treating them in the moſt hoſpitable manner while they remained among them.

Having ſaid thus much, we are carefully to diſtinguiſh between the Spaniſh nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, which is to be put on the ſame footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as thoſe of any other country. The kings of Spain of the houſe of Bourbon, have ſeldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families as their miniſters. Theſe are generally French or Italians, but moſt commonly the latter, who riſe into power by the moſt infamous arts, and of late times from the moſt abject ſtations.——Hence it is that the French kings of Spain, ſince their acceſſion to that monarchy have been but very indifferently ſerved in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greateſt genius among them embroiled his maſter with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and diſgrace; and Grimaldi, the laſt of their Italian miniſters, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppreſſive and unpopular meaſures.

The common people who live on the coaſts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an aſſemblage of Jews, French, Ruſſians, Iriſh adventurers, and Engliſh ſmugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards.—In time of war, they follow privateering with great ſucceſs; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Iriſh and Walloon guards in the Spaniſh ſervice. There are about 40,000 gypſies, and who, beſides their fortune telling, are inn keepers in the ſmall towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards, is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne after his late travels through the country: "The Catalans appear to be the moſt active ſtirring ſet of men, the beſt calculated for buſineſs, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians, a more ſullen ſedate race, better adapted to the occupations of huſbandmen, leſs eager to change place, and of a much more

timid, ſuſpicious caſt of mind than the former. The Andaluſians ſeem to be the greateſt talkers and rhodomontadors of Spain. The Caſtilians have a manly frankneſs, and leſs appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Caſtilians are perhaps the leaſt induſtrious of the whole nation; the Old Caſtilians are laborious, and retain more of ancient ſimplicity of manner; both are of a firm determined ſpirit. The Arragoneſe are a mixture of the Caſtilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biſcayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more reſembling a colony of republicans than a province of an abſolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in ſearch of an hardly earned ſubſiſtence."

The beauty of the Spaniſh ladies reigns moſtly in their novels and romances; for though it muſt be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their perſons, they are commonly ſmall and ſlender; but they are ſaid to employ vaſt art in ſupplying the defects of nature.—If we are to hazard a conjecture, we might reaſonably ſuppoſe that thoſe artifices rather diminiſh than increaſe their beauty, eſpecially when they are turned of 25. Their indiſcriminate uſe of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly diſfigures their complexions and ſhrivels their ſkin. It is at the ſame time univerſally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have ſaid, it is more than probable that the vaſt pains taken by the government of Spain, may at laſt eradicate thoſe cuſtoms and habits among the Spaniards that ſeem ſo ridiculous to foreigners. They are univerſally known to have refined notions and excellent ſenſe; and this, if improved by ſtudy and travelling, which they now ſtand in great need of, would render them ſuperior to the French themſelves. Their ſlow, deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to ſuch a degree, that during the two laſt wars, they were found to be as quick both in reſolving and executing, if not more ſo than their enemies. Their ſecrecy, conſtancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in ſeveral of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Granada, and Andaluſia, the common people have, for ſome time, aſſiduouſly applied themſelves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, their ſobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfaſt, as well as ſup, in bed; their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate, tea being very ſeldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, ſallad, and radiſhes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine: and the women uſe water or chocolate. Both ſexes uſually ſleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, ſuch as Italy, Spain and Portugal, where, generally ſpeaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are moſtly in the habit of riſing much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furniſh ſpirits ſufficient to reſiſt the effects of the violent heat, through the whole day, without ſome ſuch refreſhment; it is therefore the univerſal practice to go to ſleep for ſome hours after dinner, which in thoſe countries is over early, and this time of repoſe, which laſts for two or three hours, is in Spain called *the Sieſta*, and in Portugal *the Seſta*. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that you may ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country-dance. Many of their theatri-

cal exhibitions are inſipid and ridiculous bombaſt. The prompter's head ſometimes appears through a trap door above the level of the ſtage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling paſſion in Spain. Jealouſy, ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace. The nightly muſical ſerenades of miſtreſſes by their lovers are ſtill in uſe. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feaſts, are almoſt peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of ſhewing their courage and activity before their miſtreſſes; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls he has killed in theſe encounters. Great pains are uſed in ſettling the form and weapons of the combat, ſo as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diverſion itſelf, which is attended with circumſtances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Mooriſh original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaiſance, and partly through rivalſhip.

There is not a town in Spain but what has a large ſquare for the purpoſe of exhibiting bull-fights; and it is ſaid that even the pooreſt inhabitants of the ſmalleſt villages will often club together in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them, riding upon aſſes for want of horſes.

RELIGION.] The horrors of the Romiſh religion, the only one tolerated in Spain, are now greatly leſſened there, by moderating the penalties of the inquiſition, a tribunal diſgraceful to human nature; but though diſuſed, it is not abrogated; only the eccleſiaſtics and their officers can carry no ſentence into execution without the royal authority: it is ſtill in force againſt the Mooriſh and Jewiſh pretended converts. The Spaniards embrace and practiſe the Roman catholic religion with all its abſurdities; and in this day they have been ſo ſteady, that their king is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of *Moſt Catholic*. It appears, however, that the burning zeal which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors above the reſt of the Catholic world hath loſt much of its activity, and ſeems nearly extinguiſhed, and the power of the clergy has been much reduced of late years. A royal edict has alſo been iſſued, to prevent the admiſſion of noviciates into the different convents, without ſpecial permiſſion, which has a great tendency to reduce the monaſtic orders. It is computed that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 ſecular clergy, but as little true moral religion as in any country under heaven.

In Catalonia, the confidence of the people on the interceſſion of ſaints has at all periods been a ſource of conſolation to them, but upon ſome occaſions, has betrayed them into miſchief. Every company of artiſans, and every ſhip that ſails, is under the immediate protection of ſome patron. Beſides folio volumes, which teſtify the innumerable miracles performed by our lady in Montſerrat, every ſubordinate ſhrine is loaded with votive tablets. This has been the parent of preſumption, and among the merchants has brought many families to want. The companies of inſurance in the laſt war, having each of them its favourite ſaint, ſuch as San Ramon de Penaforte, la Virgen de la Merced, and others, aſſociated in form by the articles of partnerſhip, and named in every policy of inſurance, and having with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs allotted to them their correſpondent dividend, the ſame as to any other partner, they concluded that with ſuch powerful aſſociates it was not poſſible for them to ſuffer loſs. Under this perſuaſion they ventured about the year 1779 to inſure the French Weſt Indiamen at fifty per cent. when the

the Engliſh and Dutch had refuſed to do it at any premium, and indeed when moſt of the ſhips were already in the Engliſh ports. By this fatal ſtroke, all the inſuring companies, except two, were ruined; yet notwithſtanding this misfortune, this ſuperſtition remains in force.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] In Spain there are eight archbiſhoprics, and forty-ſix biſhoprics. The archbiſhop of Toledo is ſtyled the Primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Caſtile, and hath a revenue of 100,000l. ſterling per annum; but the Spaniſh court hath now many ways of leſſening the revenues of the church, as by penſions, donations to hoſpitals, &c. and premiums to the ſocieties of agriculture. The archbiſhopric pays annually 15000 ducats to the monks of the Eſcurial, beſides other penſions, and it is aſſerted, that there is not a biſhopric in Spain but hath ſomebody or other quartered upon it, and the ſecond rate benefices are believed to be in the ſame predicament. Out of the rich canonries and prebends are taken the penſions of the new order of knights of Carlos Tercero. The riches of the Spaniſh churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives: but there is a ſameneſs in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treaſure and jewels they contain.]

LANGUAGE.] The ground-work of the Spaniſh language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a baſtard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, eſpecially the former. It is at preſent a moſt majeſtic and expreſſive language: and it is remarkable that the foreigners who underſtand it the beſt, prize it the moſt. It makes but a poor figure even in the beſt tranſlators; and Cervantes ſpeaks almoſt as awkward Engliſh, as Shakeſpeare does French. It may, however, be conſidered as a ſtandard tongue, having nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre nueſtro, qui eſtas en le cielo, ſanctificado ſe ul tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; hagaſe tu voluntad, aſſi en la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nueſtro de cada dia da nos le oy; y perdona nos nueſtras deudos aſſi como nos otros perdonamos a nueſtros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le reyno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los ſiglos.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in ſome meaſure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which prevents them from making that progreſs in the polite arts which they otherwiſe would; but the greateſt impediment to literature in Spain, is the deſpotic nature of its government. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Iſidore, biſhop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewiſe produced ſome excellent phyſicians. Such was the gloom of the Auſtrian government, that took place with the emperor Charles V that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at Madrid, in 1549, liſted in a ſtation little ſuperior to that of a common ſoldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he loſt his left hand. His ſatire upon knight errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much ſervice to his country by curing them of that ridiculous ſpirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in priſon for debt, when he compoſed the firſt part of his hiſtory, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous ſatiriſts.

The viſions of Quevedo, and ſome other of his humourous and ſatirical pieces,

pieces, having been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, have rendered that author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the beſt writers of his age, excelling equally in verſe and in proſe. Beſides his merit as a poet, he was well verſed in the oriental languages, and poſſeſſed great erudition. His works are compriſed in three volumes, 4to, two of which conſiſt of poetry, and the third of pieces in proſe. As a poet he excelled both in the ſerious and burleſque ſtyle, and was happy in a turn of humour ſimilar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. After the Saracens had ſettled themſelves in this kingdom, they introduced into it their own language, religion, and literature; and the oriental ſtyle of poetry very generally prevailed. Before this period, the Spaniards had addicted themſelves much to Roman literature; but Alvara of Cordova complains, that, in his time, the Spaniards had ſo totally forgotten the Latin tongue, and given the preference to Arabic, that it was difficult even amongſt a thouſand people, to find one who could write a Latin letter.—The attachment of many of the inhabitants of Spain to oriental literature was then ſo great, that they could write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compoſe verſes with as much fluency and elegance as the Arabians themſelves. About this time the Spaniſh Jews made a conſiderable figure in literature, which was promoted by maſters from Babylon, where they had academies ſupported by themſelves. In the year 967 Rabbi Moſes, and his ſon Rabbi Enoch, having been taken by pirates, were ſold as ſlaves at Cordova, and redeemed by their brethren, who eſtabliſhed a ſchool in that city, of which Rabbi Moſes was appointed the head: that learned Jew was, however, deſirous of returning back to his own country; but the Mooriſh king of Cordova would not give his conſent, rejoicing that his Hebrew ſubjects had maſters of their own religion at home, without being under the neceſſity of receiving them from a foreign univerſity, and every indulgence was granted them with reſpect to their worſhip. In 1039, Rabbi Ezechias was put to death at Babylon, and the college over which he had preſided was transferred to Cordova, from whence a number of Hebrew poets iſſued forth, who have been noticed by various learned writers. The Spaniſh Jews had alſo flouriſhing ſchools at Seville, Granada, and Toledo, and from hence aroſe the numerous Hebrew proverbs, and modes of ſpeech, that have crept into the Caſtillian language, and form a conſpicuous part of its phraſeology. To theſe Jews the Spaniſh language is indebted for a curious verſion of the Hebrew books of the Old Teſtament, which was afterwards printed at Ferrara, in 1553, in a Gothic Spaniſh letter.

The Spaniſh writers alſo boaſt of their Troubadours as high as the twelfth or thirteenth centuries, the Provençal and Galician dialects being then very prevalent. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1434, was the author of that famous work the *Arte de la Gaye Sciencia*, which comprehends a ſyſtem of poetry, rhetoric, and oratory, beſides deſcribing all the ceremonies of the Troubadours at their public exhibitions.—That nobleman was alſo the author of a tranſlation of the Æneid of Virgil into Spaniſh verſe. Juan de Mena, of Cordova, was alſo much celebrated as a poet in his own time; his poems have paſſed through a variety of editions, the firſt of which was printed at Saragoſſa in 1515. Juan de la Encin was alſo a poet of conſiderable merit: he tranſlated ſome of the Latin poems into Spaniſh, and publiſhed a piece on the art of poetry, and other works which were printed at Saragoſſa in 1516. Boſcan, Ercilla, Villegas, and

and other Spaniſh poets alſo obtained great reputation in their own country. But the moſt diſtinguiſhed dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakeſpeare. He poſſeſſed an imagination aſtoniſhingly fertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his dramatic works he diſregarded the unities, and adapted his works more to the taſte of the age, than to the rules of criticiſm. His lyric compoſitions, and fugitive pieces, with his proſe eſſays, form a collection of fifty volumes, beſides his dramatic works, which make twenty-ſix volumes, more; excluſive of four hundred ſcriptural dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Auto Sacramentales*. Calderon was alſo a dramatic writer of conſiderable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Toſtatus, a divine, the moſt volumnious perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long diſtinguiſhed only by their bulk. Herrera, and ſome other hiſtorians, particularly De Solis, have ſhewn great abilities in hiſtory, by inveſtigating the antiquities of America, and writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by their countrymen.—Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed. His performances diſplay great ingenuity, very extenſive reading and uncommon liberality of ſentiment, eſpecially when his ſituation and country are conſidered. Many of his pieces have been tranſlated into Engliſh, and publiſhed in four volumes, 8vo. Don Franciſco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a diſſertation on the Phenician language, may be placed in the firſt line of Spaniſh literati. Spain has likewiſe produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amuſing and inſtructive. If it ſhould happen the Spaniards could diſengage themſelves from their abſtracted metaphyſical turn of thinking, and from their preſent tyrannical form of government, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature. At preſent, it ſeems, that the common education of an Engliſh gentlemen would conſtitute a man of learning in Spain, and ſhould he underſtand Greek, he would be quite a phænomenon.

Some of the Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts, and not only the cities, but the palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover many ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects; Palomino in an elaborate treatiſes on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, has inſerted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and ſculptors, who flouriſhed in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the Catholic to the concluſion of the reign of Philip IV. Among the moſt eminent Spaniſh painters, were Velaſque, Murillo, who is commonly called the Spaniſh Vandyke, Ribeira, and Claudio, Coello whoſe ſtyle of painting was very ſimilar to that of Paul Veroneſe.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 univerſities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, ſome of which are very magnificent. Moſt of the nobility of Spain ſend their ſons to be educated here. The reſt are, Seville, Granada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Saragoſſa, Tortoſa, Oſſuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL.] The former of theſe conſiſt chiefly of Roman and Mooriſh antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of 159 arches.

Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz is vulgarly, but erroneously thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat ſtones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, ſaid to be one of the greateſt curioſities of antiqnity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breath, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is ſupported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aiſles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the moſt noble and coſtly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768 out of the ruins of a decayed one that had exiſted 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, ſaid to have been raiſed by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almoſt entire, well proportioned and ſimple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn ſtone. Near Murviedro (once the faithful Saguntum) deſtroyed by Hannibal, are ſome Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact ſemicircle about 82 yards diameter, ſome of the galleries, are cut out of the rock, and 9000 perſons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Mooriſh antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe is the royal palace of the Alhambra at Granada, which is one of the moſt entire, as well as the moſt ſtately, of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the ſecond Mooriſh king of Granada, and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is ſituated on a hill, which is aſcended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1568, which was never finiſhed, though the ſhell of it remains. It is built of yellow ſtone: the outſide forms a ſquare of one hundred and ninety feet. The inſide is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuſcan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each ſupported by thirty-two columns, made of as many ſingle pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jaſper, on the pedeſtals of which are repreſentations of battles, in marble baſſo relievo. The Alhambra itſelf is a maſs of many houſes and towers, walled round, and built of large ſtones of different dimenſions. Almoſt all the rooms have ſtucco walls and cielings, ſome carved, ſome painted, and ſome gilt, and covered with various Arabic ſentences. The moſt curious place within, that perhaps exiſts in Europe. Here are ſeveral baths, the walls, floor, and cieling of which are of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another palace called Ginaraliph, ſituated on a more elevated ſtation than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the fineſt proſpects in Europe over the whole fertile plain of Granada, bounded by the ſnowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loſs of Granada, and ſtill offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh times, remain in Spain; ſome of them in tolerable preſervation and others exhibiting ſuperb ruins.

Among the natural curioſities, the medicinal ſprings, and ſome noiſy lakes, form a principal part; but we muſt not forget the river Guadiana,

which like the Mole in England, runs under ground, and then is ſaid to emerge. The royal cabinet of natural hiſtory at Madrid, was opened to the public by his majeſty's orders in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatneſs and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a-week for the public, beſides being ſhewn privately to ſtrangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious ſtones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the collection of birds and beaſts at preſent is not large, though it may be expected to improve apace, if care be taken to get the productions of the Spaniſh American colonies. Here is alſo a curious collection of vaſes, baſons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces of the fineſt agates, amethyſts, rock cryſtals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, ſet with cameos, entaglios, &c. in elegant taſte, and of very fine workmanſhip, ſaid to have been brought from France by Philip. V. The cabinet alſo contains ſpecimens of Mexican and Peruvian vaſes and utenſils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the ſtone, ſome of which have been brought to England, and depoſited in the Britiſh Muſeum. On the weſt ſide of the mountain is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars of various ſizes, ſome of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of ſtalactitæ, of a whitiſh colour, compoſed of ſeveral coats or cruſts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increaſe in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the ſummit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be ſeen, but the bay, the ſtraits, the towns of St. Roque and Algeſiras, and the Alpuxara mountains, mount Abyla on the African ſhore, with its ſnowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coaſt.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only ſurrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with very lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are frequently covered with ſnow. It is well paved and lighted, and ſome of the ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome. The houſes of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for ſhew, conveniency being little conſidered; thus you will paſs through uſually two or three large apartments of no uſe, in order to come at a ſmall room at the end where the family ſit. The houſes in general look more like priſons than the habitations of people at their liberty; the windows beſides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and ſometimes all the reſt. Separate families generally inhabit the ſame houſe, as in Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially if they are not catholics. Its greateſt excellency is the cheapneſs of its proviſions; but neither tavern, coffee-houſe, nor newſpaper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace ſtands on an eminence, on the weſt ſide of the city; it is a ſpacious magnificent ſtructure, conſiſting of three courts, and commands a very fine proſpect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length, and 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence: the great audience-chamber eſpecially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimſon velvet richly embroidered with gold. Ornamented alſo with 12

looking-glaſſes at St. Ildefonſo, each 10 feet high, with 12 tables of the fineſt Spaniſh marbles. The other royal palaces round it are deſigned for hunting ſeats, or houſes of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good ſtatues. The chief of thoſe palaces are the Buen Retiro (now ſtripped of all its beſt pictures and furniture), Caſa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildenfoſo.

A late traveller has repreſented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is alſo a park many leagues round, cut acroſs in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of theſe alleys is formed by two double rows of elm-trees; one double row on the right, and one on the left, which renders the ſhade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreaſt, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a ſtream of water. Between thoſe alleys there are thick groves of ſmaller trees of various kinds, and thouſands of deer and wild-boars wander there at large, beſides numberleſs hares, rabbits, pheaſants, partridges, and ſeveral other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly ſurrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleaſant, adorned with fountains and ſtatues, and it alſo contains a vaſt variety of the moſt beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itſelf, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonſo is built of brick, plaiſtered and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two ſtories high, and the garden-front has thirty one windows, and twelve rooms in a ſuite. The gardens are on a ſlope, on the top of which is a great reſervoir of water, called here *El Mar*, the ſea, which ſupplies the fountains; this reſervoir is furniſhed from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far ſurpaſs thoſe at Verſailles. The great entry of the palace is ſomewhat ſimilar to that of Verſailles, and with a large iron palliſade. In the gardens are twenty-ſeven fountains; the baſons are of white marble, and the ſtatues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. Theſe gardens are in the formal French ſtyle, but ornamented with ſixty-one very fine marble ſtatues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vaſes, and twenty leaded vaſes gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique ſtatues, buſts, and baſſo relievos.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Eſcurial, and the natives ſay, perhaps with juſtice, that the building of it coſt more than that of any other palace in Europe. The deſcription of this palace forms a ſizeable quarto-volume, and it is ſaid, that Philip II. who was its founder, expended upon it ſix millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the weſt front, and in the eaſt 366, and the apartments are decorated with an aſtoniſhing variety of paintings, ſculpture, tapeſtry, ornaments of gold and ſilver, marble, jaſper, gems and other curious ſtones. This building, beſides its palace, contains a church large and richly ornamented, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thouſand volumes; but it is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuſcripts, with which it is enriched. Above the ſhelves are paintings in freſco by Barthelemi Carducho, the ſubjects of which are taken from ſacred or profane hiſtory, or have relation to the ſciences of which the ſhelves below preſent to us the elements. Thus the council of Nice is repre-

preſented above the books which treat of theology; the death of Archimedes at the ſiege of Syracuſe, indicates thoſe which relate to the mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very ſingular circumſtance in this library may be agreeable to the curious reader to know, which is, that, on viewing the books, he will find them placed the contrary way, ſo that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contain their titles written on them. The reaſon for this cuſtom is, that Arias Montanus, a learned Spaniard of the ſixteenth century, whoſe library had ſerved as a foundation for that of the Eſcurial, had all his books placed and inſcribed in that manner, which no doubt appeared to him to be the moſt commodious method of arranging them; that he had introduced his own method into the Eſcurial; and ſince his time, and for the ſake of uniformity, it had been followed with reſpect to the books afterwards added. Here are alſo large apartments for all kinds of artiſts and mechanics, noble walks, with extenſive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and coſtly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 120001. The mauſoleum, or burying place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the Pantheon, becauſe it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is 36 feet diameter, incruſted with fine marble.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full eſtimate of the incredible ſums beſtowed on this palace, and on its furniture, ſtatues, paintings, columns, vaſes, and the like decorations, which are moſt amazingly rich and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in ſaying, that the fabric itſelf diſcovers a bad taſte upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, becauſe St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on ſuch an utenſil, and multiplying the ſame figure through its principal ornaments, upon the doors, windows, altars, rituals, and ſacerdotal habits, could have been formed only in the brain of a taſteleſs bigot, ſuch as Philip II. who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king reſides forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long ſquare of 640 feet by 580. The height to the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his ſucceſſors; but its outſide has a gloomy appearance, and the inſide is compoſed of different ſtructures, ſome of which are maſter-pieces of architecture, but forming a diſagreeable whole. It muſt however be confeſſed, that the pictures and ſtatues that have found admiſſion here, are excellent in their kind, and ſome of them not to be equalled even in Italy itſelf.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spaniſh commerce. It ſtands on an iſland ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſia, without the ſtraits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the ſea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about 500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the Engliſh, in their wars with Spain, becauſe of the vaſt intereſt our merchants have in the treaſures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The ſtreets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night. The houſes lofty with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the ſea. The population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 11,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral hath been already 50 years building, and the roof is not half finiſhed. The environs are beautifully rural.

Cordova is now an inconſiderable place; ſtreets crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conſpicuous for their architecture. The palace of the inquiſition and of the biſhops are extenſive and well ſituated. The cathedral was formerly a moſque, divided into ſeventeen ailes by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the ſilver candleſticks coſt 850l. a piece. The revenue of the ſee amounts to 3500l. per ann. but as the biſhops cannot deviſe by will, all they die poſſeſſed of, eſcheats to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is next to Madrid, the largeſt city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The ſhape is circular, and the walls ſeem of Mooriſh conſtruction; its circumference is five miles and a half. The ſuburb of Triana, is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic caſtle, where, in 1481, the inquiſition was firſt eſtabliſhed in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and ſilk which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400, and its great office of commerce to Spaniſh America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious ſteeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at the top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This ſteeple is reckoned one of the greateſt curioſities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London; but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York minſter for lightneſs, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The firſt clock made in the kingdom was ſet up in this cathedral in the year 1400, in the preſence of king Henry III. The proſpect of the country round this city, beheld from the ſteeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, ſaid to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houſes, is ſituated on the Mediterranean facing Minorca, and is ſaid to be the handſomeſt place in Spain; the houſes are lofty and plain, and the ſtreets well lighted, and paved. The citadel is ſtrong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the ſiege they ſuſtained in 1714 againſt a formidable army, when deſerted both by England and the Emperor, for whom they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is ſuppoſed to be nearly 150,000, and they ſupply Spain with moſt of the cloathing and arms for the troops. A ſingular cuſtom prevails among them on the 1ſt of November, the eve of All Souls; they run about from houſe to houſe to eat cheſnuts, believing that for every cheſnut they ſwallow, with proper faith and unction, they ſhall deliver a ſoul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almoſt circular city, with lofty walls. The ſtreets are crooked and narrow, and not paved, the houſes ill built and filthy, and moſt of the churches tawdry. Prieſts, nuns, and friars, of every dreſs ſwarm in this city, whoſe inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbiſhopric is one of the beſt in Spain, to the amount of 40,000l. ſterling a year.

Carthagena is a large city, but has very few good ſtreets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arſenal is a ſpacious ſquare ſouth-weſt of the town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the ſea. When Mr. Swinburne viſited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spaniſh criminals, and 600 Barbary ſlaves working at the pumps to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were ſent there, deſerved indeed exemplary puniſhments.

Granada ſtands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double ſummit between two rivers, the Douro, and the Xenil.

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The former glories of this city are paſſed away with its old inhabitants; the ſtreets are now filthy, and the aqueducts crumbled to duſt, and its trade loſt. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned uſeful; the ſurplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre for bull feaſts is built of ſtone, and one of the beſt in Spain, and the environs of the city are ſtill pleaſing and healthful.

Bilboa is ſituated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the ſea. It contains about eight hundred houſes, with a large ſquare by the water ſide, well ſhaded with pleaſant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river; where there are great numbers of houſes and gardens, which form a moſt pleaſing proſpect, particularly in ſailing up the river: for, beſides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landſcape, and completes the ſcenery. The houſes are ſolid and lofty, and the ſtreets well paved and level; and the water is ſo conveyed into the ſtreets, that they may be waſhed at pleaſure; which renders Bilboa one of the neateſt towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not leſs remarkable for its opulence and extenſive commerce than for the luxuriance of its ſoil, yielding in great abundance the moſt delicious fruits; whilſt its rugged mountains afford thoſe luſcious grapes, which give ſuch reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, ſurrounded with a double wall, ſtrengthened by ſtately towers, and has nine gates. A Mooriſh caſtle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The ſtreets are narrow, and the moſt remarkable building in it is a ſtupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II. ſaid to be as large as that of St. Paul's in London. The biſhop's income is 16,000l. ſterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two vallies, and on every ſide ſurrounded with proſpects of fine houſes, noble ſeats, gardens, orchards, fields, and diſtant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the ſame number of nunneries. The moſt beautiful part of this city is the great ſquare, built about forty years ago. The houſes are of three ſtories, and all of equal height and exact ſymmetry, with iron balconies, and a ſtone baluſtrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the ſquare, one of two hundred and ninety-three feet on each ſide. Over ſome of the arches are medallions, with buſts of the kings of Spain, and of ſeveral eminent men, in ſtone baſſo relievo, among which are thoſe of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this ſquare the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the moſt ancient cities in Spain, and during ſeveral centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees ſtripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almoſt entirely deſerted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part ſpent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thouſands that are left, and aſſiſts, in ſome degree, thoſe ſmall manufactures of ſword blades and ſilk-ſtuffs that are eſtabliſhed in this city. It is now exceedingly ill-built, poor and mean, and the ſtreets very ſteep.

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Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Caſtile, but now in obſcurity. The cathedral is one of the moſt magnificent ſtructures of the Gothic kind, now in Europe: its form is exactly the ſame as that of York minſter, and on the eaſt end is an octagon building exactly like the chaper houſe at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortreſs of Andaluſia, is at preſent in poſſeſſion of Great Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place in thear 711, or 712, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of *Mons Calpe*. On their arrival a fortreſs was built upon it, and it obtained the name of *Gibel-Tarif*, from the name of their general, and thence Gibraltar. It was in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards and Moors by turns, till it was taken from the former by a combined fleet of Engliſh and Dutch ſhips, under the command of Sir George Rooke, in 1704; and this rather through accident than any thing elſe. The prince of Heſſe, with 1800 men, landed on the iſthmus, but an attack on that ſide was found to be impracticable, on account of the ſteepneſs of the rock. The fleet fired 15,000 ſhot without making any impreſſion on the works, ſo that the fortreſs ſeems to be equally impregnable both to the Britiſh and Spaniards, except by famine. At laſt, a party of ſailors, having got merry with grog, rowed cloſe under the New Mole in their boats, and as they ſaw that the garriſon, who conſiſted only of 100 men, did not mind them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mounted the mole, hoiſted a red jacket as a ſignal of poſſeſſion. This being immediately obſerved from the fleet, more boats and ſailors were ſent out, who, in like manner, having aſcended the works, got poſſeſſion of a battery, and ſoon obliged the town to ſurrender. After many fruitleſs attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have been ſince made to wreſt it from England, but without ſucceſs: the laſt war hath made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long ſiege againſt the united forces of Spain and France by land and ſea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garriſon, to the great loſs and diſgrace of the aſſailants: though it muſt be granted, the place is by nature almoſt impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon of different bores, and chiefly braſs, which were ſunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raiſed, and ſold, to be diſtributed among the garriſon. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the paſſage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant ſeas. But the road is neither ſafe againſt an enemy nor ſtorms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The ſtraits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which ſets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the ſtemming of it a briſk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the laſt ſiege was totally deſtroyed by the enemies bombs, but on account of its fortifications, is eſteemed the key of Spain, and is always furniſhed with a garriſon well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is acceſſible on the land ſide only by a narrow paſſage between the rock and the ſea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and ſo incloſed by high ſteep hills, as to be almoſt inacceſſible that way. It has but two gates on that ſide, and as many towards the ſea. Acroſs this Iſthumus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garriſon of Gibraltar from having any intercourſe with the country behind them: notwithſtanding which they carry on a clandeſtine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garriſon is however confined within very nar-

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limits; and, as the ground produces ſcarcely any thing, all their proviſions are brought them either from England or from Ceuta, on the oppoſite coaſt of Barbary. Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing thoſe abuſes which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magiſtrates.

The chief iſlands belonging to Spain in Europe, are thoſe of Majorca and Yviea, of which we have nothing particularly to ſay. Minorca, which was taken by the Engliſh in 1708, under general Stanhope, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht 1713, was retaken by the Spaniards the laſt war, February 15, 1782, but has lately fallen again into the poſſeſſion of Great Britain. It contains about 27,000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themſelves, make gold and ſilver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. Hither (ſays Mr. Anderſon, in his Hiſtory of Commerce) other European nations ſend their merchandiſe, to be ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms for America, ſheltered (or, as our old Engliſh phraſe has it, coloured) under the names of the Spaniſh factors. Thoſe foreign nations have here their agents and correſpondents; and the conſuls of thoſe nations make a conſiderable figure. Cadiz has been ſaid to have the fineſt ſtorehouſes and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the flota and galleons regularly import the treaſures of Spaniſh America. The proper Spaniſh merchandiſes exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandiſe ſent thither would yield a great revenue, (and conſequently the profits of merchants and their agents would ſink), were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding thoſe duties."

At St. Ildefonſo the glaſs manufacture is carried on to a degree of perfection unknown in England. The largeſt mirrors are made in a braſs frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and ſix deep, weighing near 9 tons. Theſe are deſigned wholly for the royal palaces, and for preſents from the king. Yet even for ſuch purpoſes it is ill placed, and proves a devouring monſter in a country where proviſions are dear, fuel ſcarce, and carriage exceedingly expenſive. Here is alſo a royal manufacture of linen, employing about 15 looms; by which it is ſaid the king is a conſiderable loſer.

In the city of Valencia there is a very reſpectable ſilk manufacture, in which five thouſand looms, and three hundred ſtocking frames, give employment to upwards of 20,000 of the inhabitants, without enumerating thoſe who exerciſe profeſſions relative to the manufacture, ſuch as perſons who prepare the wood and iron work of ſo great a number of machines, or ſpin, wind, or dye the ſilk. At Alcora, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been ſucceſsfully eſtabliſhed; and they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, their beſt apartments are floored with theſe, and are remarkable for neatneſs, for coolneſs, and for elegance. They are ſtronger and much more beautiful than thoſe of Holland.

At Carthagena they make great quantities of the *eſparto* ropes and cables, ſome of them ſpun like hemp, and others platted. Both operations are performed with ſingular rapidity. Theſe cables are excellent, becauſe they float on the ſurface of the water, and are not therefore liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coaſt. The eſparto ruſh makes good mats for houſes *alpargates*

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or ſhort trowſers and buſkins for peaſants, and latterly it has been ſpun into thread for the purpoſe of making cloth. If properly encouraged, there is no doubt that the manufacture may be brought to ſuch perfection, as to make this once uſeleſs ruſh a ſource of abundant wealth to the ſouthern provinces of Spain, for it is the peculiar and natural production of all the high and uncultivated mountains of the ſouth.

As to the hempen cordage which is made in Spain, for the uſe of the royal navy, Mr. de Bourgoanne obſerves, that it is better and more durable than that of the principal dock-yards and magazines in Europe; becauſe, in combing the hemp, all the towy part we leave in it was taken out, and made uſe of in caulking, whence reſults the double advantage of more ſolid cordage, and the better caulking of veſſels. Another cuſtom in our rope-yards, which the Spaniards have avoided adopting, is the tarring the cordage and keeping it a long time piled up. In this ſtate the tar ferments, and eats the hemp, and the cordage is extremely apt to break after being uſed but a ſhort ſpace of time.

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; at preſent they are able to do without the aſſiſtance, in this article, of any other nation. The kingdom of Granada already furniſhes them with the greateſt part of the hemp they uſe, and, in caſe of need, they may have recourſe to Arragon and Navarre. All the ſailcloth and cordage in the magazines at Cadiz are made with Spaniſh hemp; the texture of which is even, cloſe, and ſolid.

The moſt important production of this country, and the moſt valuable article of commerce, is barilla, a ſpecies of pot-aſh, procured by burning a great variety of plants almoſt peculiar to the kingdoms of Valencia, and Murcia, ſuch as *ſoza*, *algazul*, *fuzon*, *ſayonnes*, *ſalicornia*, with *barilla*. It is uſed for making ſoap, for bleaching, and for glaſs. All the nations in Europe, by the combuſtion of various vegetable ſubſtances, make ſome kind of pot-aſh; but the ſuperior excellence of the barrilla has hitherto ſecured the preference. The country producing it is about ſixty leagues in length, and eight in breath, on the borders of the Mediterranean. The quantity exported annually from Spain, (according to the teſtimonies of both Mr. Townſend, and Mr. de Burgoanne) is about a hundred and fifty quintals, moſt of which is ſent to France and England, and a ſmall quantity to Genoa, and Venice.

Spain is one of the richeſt countries in Europe in ſalt-petre, a moſt important article of commerce. The account of this ſurprizing manufacture we ſhall abridge from Mr. Townſend. "I obſerved," ſays he, "a large encloſure, with a number of mounts of about twenty feet high, at regular diſtances from each other. Theſe were collected from the rubbiſh of the city of Madrid, and the ſcrapings of the highways. They had remained all the winter piled up in the manner in which I found them. At this time men were employed in wheeling them away, and ſpreading abroad the earth to the thickneſs of about one foot, whilſt others were turning what had been previouſly expoſed to the influence of the ſun and air. The preceding ſummers theſe heaps had been waſhed, and being thus expoſed, would yield the ſame quantity of ſalt again, and as far as appears, the produce would never fail; but, after having been waſhed, no ſalt-petre can be obtained without a ſubſequent expoſure. Some of this earth they can lixiviate once a year, ſome they have waſhed twenty times in the laſt ſeven years, and ſome they have ſubjected to this operation fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye when they may waſh it to advantage,

tage, and by their taſte if it has yielded a lixivium of a proper ſtrength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtain the ſalt-petre."

The other manufactures of Spain are chiefly of wool, copper, and hard-ware. Great efforts have been made by the government to prevent the other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but theſe never can be ſucceſsful, till a ſpirit of induſtry is awakened among the natives, ſo as to enable them to ſupply their American poſſeſſions with their own commodities and merchandiſe. Meanwhile, the good faith and facility with which the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themſelves are, the clear profits ſeldom amounting to leſs than 10 per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that thoſe immenſe riches ſhould belong to the Spaniards, rather than to any active European nation: but I ſhall have occaſion to touch on this ſubject in the account of America.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain from being the moſt free, is now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is ſo viſible in moſt parts of the country is in a great degree the reſult of its government, in the adminiſtration of which no proper attention is paid to the intereſts and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of ſucceſſion. It has even been queſtioned, whether his catholic majeſty may not bequeath his crown, upon his demiſe, to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. It is at leaſt certain, that the houſe of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the laſt will of Charles II.

The cortes or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, eſpecially in Caſtile, had greater power and privileges than that of England, are now aboliſhed; but ſome faint remains of their conſtitution are ſtill diſcernible in the government though all of them are ineffectual, and under the control of the king.

The privy-council which is compoſed of a number of noblemen or grandees, nominated by the king, ſits only to prepare matters, and to digeſt papers for the cabinet council or junto, which conſiſts of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more named by the king, and in them reſides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cogniſance of military affairs only. The council of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal of the kingdom. The ſeveral courts of the royal audiences, are thoſe of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragoſſa, Valencia, and Barcelona. Theſe judge primarily in all cauſes within fifteen miles of their reſpective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior juriſdictions. Beſides theſe there are many ſubordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of buſineſs.

The government of Spaniſh America forms a ſyſtem of itſelf, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magiſtrates, who are in their reſpective diſtricts almoſt abſolute. A council for the Indies is eſtabliſhed in Old Spain, and conſiſts of a governor, four ſecretaries, and twenty-two counſellors, beſides officers. Their deciſion is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally choſen from the viceroys and magiſtrates who have ſerved in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are ſo conſiderable, that they are ſeldom truſted to one perſon for more than three years; but they are thought ſufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain, beſides thoſe in America are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Maſulquivir, on the coaſt of Barbary,

in Africa; and the iſlands of St. Lazaro, the Philippines, and Ladrones, in Aſia.

REVENUES.] The revenues ariſing to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000l. ſterling though ſome ſay eight, and they form the ſureſt ſupport of his government. His American income, it is true, is immenſe, but it is generally in a manner embezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the ſilver mines that are worked; but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in caſe of a war, or any public emergency, to ſequeſter into his own hands great part of the American treaſures belonging to his ſubjects who never complain, becauſe they are always punctually repaid with intereſt. The finances of his preſent catholic majeſty before the French revolution, were in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himſelf and his people, than thoſe of any of his predeceſſors.

As to the taxes from whence the internal revenues ariſe, they are various, arbitrary, and ſo much ſuited to conveniency, that we cannot fix them at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houſes, lands, timber, and proviſions; the clergy and military orders are likewiſe taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 70,000; but in caſe of war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His preſent catholic majeſty has been at great care and expence to raiſe a powerful marine; which has been conſiderably diminiſhed ſince the war with Great Britain. They have however at preſent, (July 29 1799,) in the Mediterranean 25 ſhips of the line. All along the coaſt of Spain are watch-towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, ſo that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilbo to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be ſoon alarmed in caſe of an invaſion.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.] Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms; all which, with ſeveral others, were by name entered into the royal titles, ſo that they amounted in all to about 32. This abſurd cuſtom is ſtill occaſionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majeſty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a ſword, without being crowned. Their ſignature never mentions their name, but, I THE KING. Their eldeſt ſon is called prince of Aſturias, and their younger children, of both ſexes, are by way of diſtinction called infants or infantas, that is, children.

The armorial bearings of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a ſhield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermoſt on the right hand and the loweſt on the left contain a caſtle, or, with three towers, for Caſtile: and in the uppermoſt on the left, and the loweſt on the right, are three lions gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for thoſe Spaniſh nobility and gentry, who are unmixed with the Mooriſh blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquiſſes, counts, viſcounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may ſtand covered before the king, and are treated with princely diſtinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbiſhops, ambaſſadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and ſtate, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

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The "Order of the *Golden Fleece*," particularly described before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and sovereign dukes; but the Spanish branch of it hath many French and Italian nobility; there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The "Order of *St James*," or *St. Jago de Compostella*, is the richest of all the orders of Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under a grand master, but the office of both was given by pope Alexander VI. to the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand-master in their respective dominions. The order is highly esteemed in Spain, and only conferred on persons of noble families. The same may be said of the "Order of *Calatrava*," first instituted by Sanchio, king of Toledo: it took its name from the castle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors, and here began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and possessions, were so considerable as to excite the jealousy of the crown, to which, at length, their revenues and the office of grand master were annexed by pope Innocent VIII. The celebrated "Order of *Alcantara*" derived its origin from the order of St. Julian, or of the Pear tree: but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief seat of the order, they assumed the name of Knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aside the old device of a pear-tree. This order is highly esteemed, and conferred only on persons of ancient and illustrious families. The "Order of the *Lady of Mercy*" is said to have been instituted by James I. king of Arragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was designed for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which they expended large sums of money. It was at first confined to men, but a lady of Barcelona afterwards got women included in it. This order possesses considerable revenues in Spain. The "Order of *Montesa*" was instituted at Valencia, at the close of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and enjoyed their possessions. Their chief seat being the town of Montesa, the order from thence derived its name, and chose St. George for patron. In the year 1771, the late king instituted, after his own name, the "Order of *Charles III.*" in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is, a star of eight points enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the cross is the image of the Virgin Mary, vestments white and blue. On the reverse, the letters C. C. with the number III. in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti & Merito*. None but persons of noble descent can belong to this order.

History of Spain.] Spain was probably first peopled by the Celtæ from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only separated by the narrow strait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians sent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the rise of Rome and Carthage, the possession of this kingdom became an object of contention between those powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their possession until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani, divided this kingdom among them, but in the year 584, the Goths again became the masters.

These, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the seventh century, had possessed themselves of the finest kingdoms of Asia and Africa; and not content with the immense regions that formerly composed great part of the Assyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they cross the

Mediterranean, ravage Spain, and eſtabliſh themſelves in the ſoutherly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the firſt Old Spaniſh prince who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania), and he took the title of king of Aſturia, about the year 720. His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were ſuperior to all their cotemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line kept poſſeſſion of the throne near 300 years. Learning flouriſhed in Spain, while the reſt of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Mooriſh princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief miniſters proud and inſolent. A ſeries of civil wars continued, which at laſt overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent ſovereign. Now, every adventurer was entitled to the conqueſts he made upon the Moors, till Spain at laſt was divided into 12 or 11 kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon, Alphonſo, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella the heireſs, and afterwards queen, of Caſtile, who took Granada, and expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews, who would not be converts to the Chriſtian faith, to the number of 170,000 families. I ſhall in their proper places, mention the vaſt acquiſitions made at this time to Spain by the diſcovery of America, and the firſt expeditions of the Portugueſe to the Eaſt-Indies, by the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope; but the ſucceſſes of both nations were attended with diſagreeable conſequences.

The expulſion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the popiſh inquiſition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a ſafegard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V. of the houſe of Auſtria, and emperor of Germany, ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella, in the year 1516. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own proteſtant ſubjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. He alſo reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At laſt, after a long and turbulent reign, he came to a reſolution that filled all Europe with aſtoniſhment, the withdrawing himſelf entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in

in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude *.

Agreeably to this reſolution, he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality in the preſence of his principal nobility, to his ſon Philip II. but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria into two branches; Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the New World, alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch, whilſt the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, which they ſtill poſſeſs.

Philip II. inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life a cruel bigot in the cauſe of popery. His marriage with queen Mary of England, an unfeeling bigot like himſelf, his unſuccefsful addreſſes to her

* Charles, of all his vaſt poſſeſſions, reſerved nothing for himſelf but an annual penſion of 100,000 crowns and chose for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a ſmall brook, and ſurrounded by riſing grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave ſtrict orders, that the ſtyle of the building which he erected there ſhould be ſuch as ſuited his preſent ſituation, rather than his former dignity. It conſiſted only of ſix rooms; four of them in the form of friars cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet ſquare, were hung with brown cloth, and furniſhed in the moſt ſimple manner; they were all level with the ground, with a door on one ſide into a garden, of which Charles himſelf had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he propoſed to cultivate with his own hands. After ſpending ſome time in the city of Ghent in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he ſet out for Zealand in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his ſon, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; after taking an affectionate and laſt farewel of Philip and his attendants, he ſet out, on the 17th of September, 1556, under a convoy of a large fleet of Spaniſh, Flemiſh, and Engliſh ſhips. As ſoon as he landed in Spain he fell proſtrate on the ground; and conſidering himſelf now as dead to the world, he kiſſed the earth, and ſaid, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spaniſh nobility paid their court to him as he paſſed along to the place of his retreat; but they were ſo few in number, and their attendance was ſo negligent, that Charles obſerved it, and felt, for the firſt time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his ſon's ingratitude, who, forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain ſome weeks on the road, before he paid him the firſt moiety of that ſmall portion, which was all that he had reſerved of ſo many kingdoms. At laſt the money was paid; and Charles, having diſmiſſed a great number of his domeſtics, whose attendance he thought would be ſuperfluous, he entered into his humble retreat with twelve domeſtics only. Here he buried in ſolitude and ſilence, his grandeur, his ambition, together with all thoſe vaſt projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe, filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being ſubjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more complete ſatisfaction than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. Far from taking any part in the political tranſactions of the princes of Europe, he reſtrained his curioſity even from any enquiry concerning them; and he ſeemed to view the buſy ſcene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference ariſing from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleaſing reflection of having diſengaged himſelf from its cares.

New amuſements and new objects now occupied his mind; ſometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; ſometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horſe; the only one that he kept, attended by a ſingle ſervant on foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment, he either admitted a few gentlemen who reſided in the neighbourhood, and entertained them familiarly at his table; or he employed himſelf in ſtudying the principles, and in forming curious works of mechaniſm, at which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the conſtruction of clocks and watches; and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is ſaid, with a mixture of ſurpriſe and regret, on his own folly, in having beſtowed ſo much time and labour on the mere vain attempt of bringing mankind to a preciſe uniformity of ſentiment concerning the intricate and myſterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years retirement, he was ſeized with a fever, which carried him off in the 59th year of his age.

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ſiſter Elizabeth, his reſentment and unſucceſsful wars with that princeſs, his tyranny and perſecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned in the hiſtory of thoſe countries.

In Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian, about the year 1557. Sebaſtian loſt his life and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill concerted expedition againſt the Moors in Africa; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family of Portugal aſſerted a prior right. By this acquiſition Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill holds.

The deſcendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that in the reign of Philip IV. in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV. upon their throne, and ever ſince, Portugal has been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Auſtrian line, failing in the perſon of Charles II. who left no iſſue, Philip duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the Dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV. mounted that throne, in virtue of his predeceſſor's will, by the name of Philip V. anno 1701. After a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the concluſion of the war, by the ſhameful peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV. through a maſterly train of politics (for in his wars to ſupport his grandſon, as we have already obſerved, he was almoſt ruined), accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria, to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his ſon Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their ſovereign, through the oppreſſion of the Imperialiſts.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was diſturbed by the ambition of his wife Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI. a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuſes, and wanted to promote the commerce and proſperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without iſſue, through melancholy for the loſs of his wife. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother, Charles III. then king of Naples, and the Two Sicilies, ſon to Philip V. by his wife the princeſs of Parma.

He was ſo warmly attached to the family compact of the houſe of Bourbon, that two years after his acceſſion, he even hazarded his American dominions to ſupport it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, and thereby rendered herſelf entirely miſtreſs of the navigation of the Spaniſh Plate fleets. Notwithſtanding the ſucceſs of the Engliſh, their miniſtry thought proper haſtily to conclude a peace, in conſequence of which Havannah was reſtored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted againſt Algiers by the Spaniſh miniſtry, which had a moſt unſucceſsful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards of 24 000, and who were commanded by lieutenant general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league

league and a half to the eaſtward of the city of Algiers; but were diſgracefully beaten back, and obliged to take ſhelter on board their ſhips, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783, and 1784, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea to deſtroy it, but after ſpending much ammunition, and loſing many lives, were forced to retire without doing it much injury.

When the war between Great Britain and her American colonies had ſubſiſted for ſome time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was alſo prevailed upon to commence hoſtilities againſt Great Britain. In particular, the Spaniards cloſely beſieged Gibraltar, both by ſea and land: it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortreſs ſhould be poſſeſſed by the Engliſh. The grand attack on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ſhips, from 600 to 1400 tons burden, carrying in all 212 braſs guns entirely new, and diſcharging ſhot of 26 pounds weight. The ſhowers of ſhot and ſhells which were directed from them, from their land-batteries, and on the other hand from the various works of the garriſon, exhibited a ſcene, of which perhaps neither the pen nor the pencil can furniſh a competent idea. It is ſufficient to ſay, that *four hundred pieces* of the heavieſt artillery were playing at the ſame moment: an inſtance which has ſcarcely occurred in any ſiege ſince the invention of thoſe wonderful engines of deſtruction.

The irreſiſtible impreſſion of the red hot balls, which were ſent from the garriſon in ſuch numbers and in ſuch directions, was ſoon conſpicuous; for in the afternoon ſmoke was perceived to iſſue from the admiral's ſhip and another, and by one in the morning ſeveral were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ſhips as ſignals of diſtreſs. To reſcue from the flames thoſe who were now incapable of acting as enemies, could not be done without the greateſt hazard, by reaſon of the blowing up of the ſhips; and the previous diſcharge of the guns as the fire reached them; yet in defiance of every danger, brigadier Curtis, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in an eminent manner in this humane undertaking, and with twelve gunboats ſaved nine officers, two prieſts, and 334 men, all Spaniards; beſides one officer, and eleven Frenchmen, who had floated in the preceding evening.

Thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards reducing the fortreſs of Gibraltar. But great as was the bravery of the Britiſh garriſon, which deſerves every encomium, the ſmall numbers of the killed and wounded are alone ſufficient to ſhew that they muſt have been aſſiſted by very ſtrong fortifications, or it was impoſſible that any ſkill whatever could have reſiſted ſuch a tremendous power. Some trifling operations continued on the ſide of the Spaniards till the reſtoration of peace in 1783.

In other enterpriſes, however, the Spaniards proved more ſucceſsful. The iſland of Minorca was ſurrendered to them on the 6th of February, 1782, after having been beſieged for 171 days. The garriſon conſiſted of no more than 2092 men, while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spaniſh commander at firſt attempted to corrupt the governor (general Murray); but this being rejected with indignation, the ſiege was commenced in form: and the garriſon would have ſhewed themſelves equally invincible with thoſe of Gibraltar, had it been poſſible to relieve them in the ſame manner. The ſcurvy ſoon made its appearance, and reduced them to ſuch a deplorable ſituation that they were at laſt obliged to ſurrender, in ſpite of every effort of human fortitude or ſkill; and ſo ſenſible were both parties that this was the true cauſe, that

that the Spaniſh general allowed them to march out with their arms ſhouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, while the diſconſolate Britiſh ſoldiers proteſted that they ſurrendered their arms to God, and not to the Spaniards.

His late catholic majeſty did all he could to oblige his ſubjects to deſiſt from their ancient dreſs and manners, and carried his endeavours ſo far, that it occaſioned ſo dangerous an inſurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his miniſter, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an inſtance of the neceſſity that even deſpotic princes are under, of paying ſome attention to the inclinations of their ſubjects.

The government of Spain teſtified much uneaſineſs at the French revolution, and watched narrowly thoſe who ſpoke in favour of its principles. The circulation of all political pamphlets from France was ſeverely prohibited. They publiſhed a proclamation againſt tinkers and knife grinders, introducing ſeditious papers into the kingdom, and a reſcript concerning ſtrangers.

A ſhort war aroſe between the Spaniards and the emperor of Morocco. The emperor beſieged Ceuta, but peace is ſince reſtored. It was unjuſtly ſurmiſed that this war was entered into, in order to divert the attention of the people, who might be impreſſed with the affairs of France.

The ſudden diſmiſſion of count Florida Blanca from the office of prime miniſter originated in cauſes not diſcloſed. It is imagined that the court found this ſtep neceſſary, to appeaſe the public murmurs at ſome late meaſures particularly the edict concerning ſtrangers, which contributed to impoſe further fetters upon commerce, and which has ſince been repealed. On the 28th of February 1792, the miniſter was removed; he has ſince been impriſoned in the caſtle of Pampeluna, and is to be tried for various offences; and count d'Aranda, an old ſtateſman, a warm friend of the queen and nobility of France, ſucceeded to his employments, till ſome other arrangement could be formed. It is ſaid, he aboliſhed the ſuperintendant tribunal of police, a kind of civil inquiſition; and in other liberal meaſures appeared to ſee the real intereſt of monarchs, which is certainly to concede with grace, in order to prevent the deſpair of the people from recurring to force. His influence, however, was but ſhort; and has been ſucceeded by that of the duke d'Alcudia.

After the trial of the king of France, previous to the paſſing of his ſentence, the Spaniſh court made an application in his favour, which was rejected with inſolence and contempt, and ſhortly afterwards war was declared againſt Spain by the National Convention. The army appointed to this war was entruſted to general Doppet, whoſe operations were all ſucceſsful, almoſt without the ſmalleſt interruption. On the 21th. of June he ſeized upon a manufactory of arms, which belonged to the Spaniards, great part of which he added to his military ſtores. Shortly afterwards he defeated the Count de l'Union who had made a bold attempt for the relief of Bellegarde, which was at this time cloſely preſſed. The Spaniſh general had been reinforced by ſeveral foreign battalions lately arrived from Africa, whoſe impetuoſity obliged the republicans at firſt to give way. They ſoon rallied, however, regained the heights from which they had at firſt been diſlodged; and the Spaniards were completely defeated, leaving two thouſand five hundred dead on the field of battle. Bellegarde being thus deprived of every chance of relief, ſubmitted to general Dugommier on the 20th of the following month. The garriſon conſiſted of 6000 men. On the day after its ſurrender, the Count de l'Union made another ſpirited attempt to diſlodge the French, but

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was completely repulsed with the loss of 600 men and four pieces of cannon. The French general Dugommier was soon after killed by a shell as he ascended the Black Mountain, the better to direct the military operations. On the 20th. of the same month his great opponent the Count de l'Union was killed, with three other Spanish generals, near St. Fernando de Figueres. For the defence of this post, the Spaniards had spent upwards of six months in erecting from eighty to one hundred batteries mounted with heavy cannon. Their force amounted to forty thousand men strongly entrenched; and yet they were put to flight, and the batteries carried by the republicans in three hours.

The Spaniards were equally unsuccessful in the actions, which were fought at the Western Pyrenees. Several redoubts were stormed and carried by the republican general Delaforde. Great numbers of the Spaniards were killed, and three hundred and twenty prisoners were taken, with seven pieces of cannon, two hundred tents, and great quantities of ammunition and small arms. On the 1st of August fifteen thousand Spaniards fled before a body of six thousand French. By this retreat, immense magazines, two thousand muskets, six stand of colours, two hundred cannon and howitzers, tents for twenty five thousand men, and two thousand prisoners, among whom were two entire regiments, who grounded their arms, fell into the hands of the conquerors. On the same evening Fontarabia, which guards the entrance into Spain, was taken almost instantaneously by a detachment of the French army. The Spanish troops were so disheartened by their repeated defeats, that they fled at the first approach of the enemy. A line of posts had been established upwards of forty leagues in extent; all these entrenchments were carried with the bayonet, and the works destroyed. The French general endeavoured to surround the Spaniards, but being favoured by a thick fog they were enabled to retreat to Sangonella, with the loss of two thousand five hundred men, and an equal number of prisoners. During the rest of this war defeat succeeded defeat, and one calamity was quickly followed by another still more disastrous; not one gleam of success ever dawned upon the Spanish arms, and the march of the enemy to Madrid was prevented by the disgraceful submission of the Spanish monarch. A treaty was speedily concluded in which the Spaniards ceded to France their part of St. Domingo, and the French agreed to relinquish all their conquests on the Spanish territory.

Spain being now entirely under the dominion of France, was driven by the mischievous influence of her ally, into a war with England, which it is probable was as much against her inclination as her interest. War, however, was proclaimed at Madrid in the usual form, and a fleet was shortly after equipped, which was defeated off Cape St. Vincent by Sir J. Jervis.

At present Spain is ripe for a revolution; independently of the successful efforts of the Directorial Emissaries to propagate Jacobinical principles throughout the country, there are circumstances in the domestic policy of that government, which have served to mature the seeds of disaffection, and to alienate the minds of the people from the natural objects of their attachment. A monarch incapable of holding the reins of government; and a Queen, rioting in excesses, that sink her beneath the lowest of her subjects. Upstart succeeds to upstart, and minion to minion, in monopolizing the good graces, and in engrossing the misplaced bounty, of this profligate princess. The successor to the *Prince of Peace* is one *Mallo* a low miserant, devoted to the French interest; in whose behalf the Queen has had recourse to an act, of which it is difficult to say, whether its extreme folly

or its flagrant injuſtice are moſt conſpicuous. The multiplicity of ſmall notes in circulation, of a particular deſcription, has long been a ſubject of general complaint in the Spaniſh dominions, and various means for paying them off, have, at different times, been ſuggeſted. At length it was determined to devote to this purpoſe ſome rich territorial poſſeſſions belonging to the Univerſity of Salamanca. The eſtates were accordingly taken; but inſtead of employing them as propoſed, the Queen gave the moſt extenſive and valuable of them, the Marquisate of Saint Bartholomew, to her new favourite, who actually enjoys the title and the territory.

Equal attention has been paid to the wiſhes of the French in the appointment of a new Miniſter for Foreign Affairs. A young man, of the name of *Urquejo*, has been raiſed to this ſituation, who was formerly Secretary to the Spaniſh Embaſſy at the Court of St. James's; he is diſtinguiſhed for his hatred of this country, his predilection for the tenets of modern philoſophy, and his attachment to revolutionary principles. By the aid of ſuch agents, joined to the influence of the Chevalier D'Azzara, the Directory have ſucceeded in eſtabliſhing their aſcendancy in the Cabinet of Madrid.

Charles IV. king of Spain, born Nov. 11, 1748; aſcended the throne Dec. 13, 1788, (upon the death of his father Charles III) and was married to Louiſa-Maria-Thereſa, princeſs of Parma, Sept. 4, 1765, by whom he has iſſue.

1. Charlotte, born April 25, 1775.
2. Mary Louiſa, born July 9, 1777.
3. Philip, born, Aug. 10, 1783.
4. Ferdinand, born Oct. 14, 1784.
5. Maria Iſabella, born July 6, 1789.
6. A Prince, March 10, 1794.

Brothers to the king:

1. Ferdinand, the preſent king of the Two Sicilies, born in 1751, married in 1768, to the arch-ducheſs Mary-Cardire-Louiſa, ſiſter to Joſeph II. late emperor of Germany.
2. Anthony Paſcal, born Dec. 31, 1755.

PORTUGAL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	300	between	37 and 42 North latitude.
Breadth	100		7 and 10 Weſt longitude.

Containing 32000, ſquare miles, with 72 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain, on the North and Eaſt, and on the South and Weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, being the moſt weſterly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

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ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS. This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Lusitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It most probably is derived from some noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for so strangers are called in the Celtic) resorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and southern provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
The Northern Division contains	Entre Minho Douro, and Tralos Montes	Braga Oporto and Viana Miranda and Villa Real	6814
The Middle Division contains	Beira Estremadura	Coimbra Guarda Castel Rodrigo Lisbon { 38-42 N. lat. 8-53 W. lon. St. Ubes and Leira	12640
The Southern Division contains	Entre Tajo Guadiana Alentejo Algarva	Ebora, or Evora Portalegre, Elvas, Beja Lagos Faro, Tavora, and Silves	8397

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the same as in Spain, but not so highly flavoured. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be very friendly to the human constitution, and safe to drink *. Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles, and mill-stones, and a fine mine of salt petre near Lisbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, especially about Lisbon, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients; it is not so searching as that of Spain, being refreshed from the sea-breezes.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are those which divide Algarva from Alentejo; those of Tralos Montes, and the rock of Lisbon at the mouth of the Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portuguese rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic ocean. The Tagus or Tajo was celebrated for its golden sand. Portugal contains several roaring lakes and springs; some of them are absorbent even of the lightest substances, such as wood, cork, and feathers; some, particularly one about 45 miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and sanative; and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province of Algarva.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the River Tajo; Cape Espithel, at the south entrance of the river Tajo; and Cape St. Vincent, on the south-west point of Algarva.

* The port-wines are made in the districts round Oporto, which does not produce one half the quantity that is consumed, under that name, in the British dominions only. The merchants in this city have spacious wine vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes; and it is said that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

The bays are thoſe of Cadoan, or St Ubes, ſouth of Liſbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarva.

ANIMALS.] The ſea-fiſh, on the coaſt of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are ſure, and ſerviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horſes, though ſlight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the beſt calculation, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants. By a ſurvey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom 3,344 pariſhes, and 1,742,230 lay perſons (which is but 522 laity to each pariſh on a medium), beſides above 30,000, eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes.

The modern Portugueſe retain nothing of that adventurous enterpriſing ſpirit that rendered their forefathers ſo illuſtrious 300 years ago. They have, ever ſince the houſe of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues; though ſome noble exceptions are ſtill remaining among them, and no people are ſo little obliged as the Portugueſe are to the reports of hiſtorians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakneſs of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of diſobliging their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the ſource of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate paſſion for revenge. They are, if poſſible, more ſuperſtitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more ſtate than the Spaniards themſelves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practiſed; and all ranks are accuſed of being unfair in their dealings, eſpecially with ſtrangers. It is hard, however, to ſay what alteration may be made in the character of the Portugueſe, by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, and diminution of the papal influence among them: but above all, by that ſpirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, though to the intereſt of their own country, is now ſo much encouraged by their court and miniſtry.

The Portugueſe are neither ſo tall nor ſo well made as the Spaniards, whoſe habits and cuſtoms they imitate, only the quality affect to be more gaily and richly dreſſed. The Portugueſe ladies are thin and ſmall of ſtature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expreſſive, and their features generally regular. They are eſteemed to be generous, modeſt, and witty. They dreſs like the Spaniſh ladies, with much awkwardneſs and affected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their huſbands to exact from their ſervants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal perſonages. The furniture of the houſes, eſpecially of their grandees, is rich and ſuperb to exceſs; and they maintain an incredible number of domeſtics, as they never diſcharge any who ſurvive, after ſerving their anceſtors. The poorer ſort have ſcarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, ſit always croſs-legged on the ground. The Portugueſe peaſant has never reaped any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vaſt countries the kings of Portugal poſſeſſed in Africa or in the Eaſt; or of thoſe ſtill remaining to them in South America. The only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; and when his feeble purſe can reach it, he purchaſes a dried Newfoundland cod-fiſh; but this is a regale he dares ſeldom aſpire to. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a ſalted pilchard, or a head of garlick, to give that bread a flavour, compoſe his ſtanding diſh; and if he can get a bit of the hog, ſheep, or the calf, he himſelf fattens, to regale his wretched family at Chriſtmas or Eaſter, he has reached the pinnacle of

of happineſs in this world; and indeed whatever he poſſeſſed beyond this habitual penury, according to the preſent ſtate and exertions of his intellects, would quickly be taken from him, or rather he would willingly part with it, being taught by his numberleſs ghoſtly comforters, with which his country ſwarms, to look forward for eaſe and happineſs to another ſtate of exiſtence, to which they are themſelves the infallible guides and conductors.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal is popery in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. The Portugueſe have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unleſs when a quarrel ſubſiſted between the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of his holineſs in Portugal has been of late ſo much curtailed, that it is difficult to deſcribe the religious ſtate of that country: all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly increaſed, at the expence of the religious inſtitutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquiſition is now taken out of the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, and converted to a ſtate-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are thoſe of Braga, Evora, and Liſbon. The firſt of theſe has ten ſuffragan biſhops; the ſecond two; and the laſt ten, including thoſe of the Portugueſe ſettlements abroad. The patriarch of Liſbon is generally a cardinal, and a perſon of the higheſt birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portugueſe language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre noſſo que eſtas nos Ceos, ſanctificado ſeio o tu nome; venha a nos tua reyno, ſeia feita a tua votade, aſſi nos Ceos, commo na terra. O paoneſſa de cadadia, dano lo oeí neſtro dia. E perdoa nos ſenhor, as noſſas dividas, aſſi como nos perdoamos a nos noſſos devedores. E nao nos dexes cahir em tentaçaõ, mas libra nos do mal.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Theſe are ſo few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by thoſe of the Portugueſe themſelves who have the ſmalleſt tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable ſtate of ignorance. It is univerſally allowed that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education.—The anceſtors of the preſent Portugueſe were certainly poſſeſſed of more true knowledge, with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world beſides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for ſome time after Camoens, who himſelf was a great adventurer and voyager, was poſſeſſed of a true, but neglected poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Coimbra, founded in 1291 by king Dennis; and which had fifty profeſſors; but it has been lately put under ſome new regulations. Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Liſbon, where the young nobility are educated in every branch of polite learning and the ſciences. All the books that did belong to the baniſhed Jeſuits are kept here, which compoſe a very large library. The Engliſh language is likewiſe taught in this college. Here is alſo a college where young gentlemen are educated in the ſcience of engineering, and when qualified get commiſſions in that corps.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned, form the chief of theſe. The remains of ſome caſtles in the Mooriſh taſte are ſtill ſtanding. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almoſt entire, and deſervedly admired. The walls of Santareen are ſaid to be of Roman work likewiſe. The church and monaſtery near Liſbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpreſſibly magnificent, and ſeveral monaſteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch

Roch, is probably one of the fineſt and richeſt in the world; the paintings are moſaic work, ſo curiouſly wrought with ſtones of all colours, as to aſtoniſh the beholders. To theſe curioſities we may add, that the king is poſſeſſed of the largeſt diamond (which was found in Braſil), that ever was perhaps ſeen in the world.

CHIEF CITIES.] Liſbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which alſo ſet the remainder on fire, upon All-Saints-day, 1755. It ſtill contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its ſituation (riſing from the Tagus in the form of a creſcent) renders its appearance at once delightful and ſuperb, and it is deſervedly accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. The harbour is ſpacious and ſecure, and the city itſelf is guarded from any ſudden attack towards the ſea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence againſt ſhips of war. All that part of the city that was demoliſhed by the earthquake, is planned out in the moſt regular and commodious form. Some large ſquares and many ſtreets are already built. The ſtreets form right angles, and are broad and ſpacious. The houſes are lofty, elegant, and uniform; and being built of white ſtone, make a beautiful appearance. The ſecond city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain thirty-thouſand inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the ſhops in the city are coopers. The merchants aſſemble daily in the chief ſtreet, to tranſact buſineſs; and are protected from the ſun by ſail-cloths hung acroſs from the oppoſite houſes. About thirty Engliſh families reſide here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe, within theſe ſeven or eight years, have taken a ſurpriſing turn in Portugal. The miniſtry have projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again complained of as unjuſt and oppreſſive, and inconſiſtent with the privileges which the Britiſh merchants formerly enjoyed by the moſt ſolemn treaties.

The Portugueſe exchange their wine, ſalt, and fruits, and moſt of their own materials for foreign manufactures. They make a little linnen, and ſome coarſe ſilk, and woollen, with a variety of ſtraw work, and are excellent in preſerving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though ſeemingly extenſive, proves of little ſolid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engroſs all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, ſugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Braſil; her ivory, ebony, ſpices, and drugs of Africa and Eaſt-India, in exchange for the almoſt numberleſs manufactures, and the vaſt quantity of corn and ſalt-fiſh, ſupplied by thoſe European nations, and by the Engliſh North American colonies.

The Portugueſe foreign ſettlements are, however, not only of immenſe value, but vaſtly improveable; Braſil, the iſles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring gold from their plantations on the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, and likewiſe ſlaves for manufacturing their ſugars and tobacco in Braſil, and their South American ſettlements.

What the value of theſe may be, is unknown perhaps to themſelves; but they certainly abound in all the precious ſtones, and rich mines of gold and ſilver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spaniſh dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold ſent from Braſil,

amounts annually to three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, notwithſtanding the vaſt contraband trade. The little ſhipping the Portugueſe have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the ſlave trade, and a correſpondence with Goa, their chief ſettlement in the Eaſt-Indies, and their other poſſeſſions there, as Du, Daman, Macao, &c.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is abſolute; but the nation ſtill preſerves an appearance of its ancient free conſtitution, in the meeting of the cortes or ſtates, conſiſting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility, and commons. They pretend to a right of being conſulted upon the impoſition of new taxes; but the only real power they have, is, that their aſſent is neceſſary in every new regulation, with regard to the ſucceſſion. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future diſputes on that account.

The nature of this government may be fairly pronounced the moſt deſpotic of any kingdom in Europe. The eſtabliſhed law is generally a dead letter, excepting where its decrees are carried into execution by the ſupplementary mandates of the ſovereign, which are generally employed in defeating the purpoſes of ſafety and protection, which law is calculated to extend equally over all the ſubjects.

Here the people have no more ſhare in the direction of government, in enacting of laws, and in the regulating of agriculture and commerce, than they have in that of Ruſſia, or China. The far greater part know nothing of what is done in that reſpect. Every man has no alternative but to yield a blind and ready obedience, in whatever concerns himſelf, to the decrees and laws of the deſpot, as promulgated from time to time by his ſecretaries of ſtate. How would an Engliſhman, alive to all the feelings of civil liberty, tremble at reading the preamble of every new law publiſhed here; and which runs thus: "*I, the King, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleaſure, and of my full ſupreme and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God, and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, I do in conſequence order and command, &c. &c.*

All great preferments, both ſpiritual and temporal, are diſpoſed of in the council of ſtate, which is compoſed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the ſecretary of ſtate. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treaſury courts do the finances. The council of the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals, but the Caſa da Supplicaçao is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above three millions and a half ſterling, annually. The cuſtoms and duties on goods exported and imported are exceſſive, and farmed out; but if the Portugueſe miniſtry ſhould ſucceed in all their projects, and in eſtabliſhing excluſive companies, to the prejudice of the Britiſh trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear thoſe taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandiſe pays 23 per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring ſeas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands and cattle that are ſold is 10 per cent. The king draws a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is grand-maſter. The pope, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money ariſing from indulgences and licences to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now greatly increaſed by the ſuppreſſion of the Jeſuits, and other religious orders and inſtitutions.

MILI-

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portugueſe government uſed to depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore, for many years, they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but the ſame friendly connexion between Great Britain and Portugal does not at preſent ſubſiſt. In the late reign, though they received the moſt effectual aſſiſtance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his Moſt Faithful Majeſty judged it expedient to raiſe a conſiderable body of troops, who were chiefly diſciplined by foreign officers: but ſince that period the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the diſcipline of the troops, ſo that the military force of Portugal is now again inconſiderable, amounting it is ſaid to twenty-five thouſand men. The naval force of this kingdom is about ſeventeen ſhips of war, including ſix frigates.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, King of Portugal and the Algarves, Lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conqueſt, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and Braſil. The laſt king was complimented by the pope, with the title of His Moſt Faithful Majeſty. That of his eldeſt ſon is prince of Braſil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five eſcutcheons, azure, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſants as the firſt, placed ſalter-wiſe, and pointed, ſable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered, gules, charged with ſeven towers, or three in chief, and two in each flanch.—The ſupporters are two winged dragons, and the creſt a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the baſe of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the two firſt flower de-luce, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the ſecond patee, gules, for the order of Chriſt; the motto is changeable, each king aſſuming a new one; but it is frequently theſe words, *pro Rege et Grege*, "For the King "and the People."

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The title and diſtinctions of their nobility are much the ſame as thoſe of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Avis*, or *Aviez*, firſt inſtituted by Alphonſeus Henriquez, king of Portugal, in the year 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1213, it was ſubject to the order of Calatrava in Spain, but when Don John of Portugal ſeized the crown, he made it again independent. 2. The "Order of St. *James*" inſtituted by Dennis I. king of Portugal, in the year 1310, ſuppoſing that under that ſaint's protection he became victorious over the Moors, and he endowed it with great privileges. The knights profeſs chaſtity, hoſpitality, and obedience, and none are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their enſign is a red ſword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela. 3. The "Order of *Chriſt*" was inſtituted in the year 1317, by Dennis I. of Portugal, to engage the nobility to aſſiſt him more powerfully againſt the Moors. The knights obtained great poſſeſſions, and elected their grand maſter, till 1522, when pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his ſucceſſors to the crown of Portugal. Theſe orders have ſmall commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but are in ſmall eſteem. The "Order of *Malta*" hath likewiſe 22 commanderies in Portugal.

HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.] This kingdom comprehends the greateſt part of the ancient Luſitania, and ſhared the ſame fate with the other Spaniſh provinces in the conteſts between the Carthaginians and Romans, and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, and was ſucceſſively in ſubjection to the Suevi, Alans, Viſigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alphonſus VI. king of Caſtile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandſon of Robert king of

of France, for his bravery and aſſiſtance againſt the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Chriſtians. Henry was ſucceeded by his ſon Alphonſus Henry, in the year 1095 who gained a deciſive victory over five Mooriſh kings, in July, 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonſus was then proclaimed king by his ſoldiers. He reigned 46 years, and was eſteemed for his courage and love of learning.—His deſcendants maintained themſelves on the throne for ſome centuries; indeed Sancho II. was expelled from his dominions for cowardice in the year 1246.

Dennis I. or Dionyſius, was called the *Father of his Country*; he built and rebuilt 44 cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Chriſt, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned 46 years.—Under his ſucceſſor, Alphonſus IV. happened ſeveral earthquakes at Lisbon, which threw down part of the city and deſtroyed many lives.—John I. was illuſtrious for his courage, prudence, and conqueſts in Africa; under him Madeira was firſt diſcovered in 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and after a reign of 49 years, died in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonſo V. about 1480, the Portugueſe diſcovered the coaſt of Guinea; and in the reign of his ſucceſſor John II. they diſcovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, and ſettled colonies, and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the Eaſt Indies. Emanuel, ſurnamed the Great, ſucceeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predeceſſors, fitting out fleets for new diſcoveries. Vaſco de Gama, under him, cruiſed along the coaſt of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indoſtan; and in the year 1500 Alvarez diſcovered Braſil.

John III. ſucceeded in 1521, and while he loſt ſome of his African ſettlements, made new acquiſitions in the Indies. He ſent the famous Xavier as a miſſionary to Japan, and in the height of his zeal, eſtabliſhed that infernal tribunal the inquiſition, in Portugal, anno 1526, againſt the entreaties and remonſtrances of his people. Sebaſtian his grandſon ſucceeded him in 1557, and undertook a cruſade againſt the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either ſlain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebaſtian, being the ſon of Emanuel, ſucceeded, but died without iſſue in the year 1580; on which, Anthony Prior, of Crato, was choſen king, by the ſtates of the kingdom; but Philip II, of Spain, as hath been obſerved in our hiſtory of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, becauſe his mother was the eldeſt daughter of Emanuel, and ſent the duke of Alva with a powerful force, who ſubdued the country and proclaimed his maſter king of Portugal, the 12th Sept. 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two ſucceſſors, Philip III. and Philip IV. behaved towards the Portugueſe with great rapacity and violence. The Spaniſh miniſters treated them as vaſſals of Spain, and by their repeated acts of oppreſſion and tyranny, they ſo kindled the hatred and courage of the Portugueſe, as to produce a revolt at Liſbon, the firſt of December, 1640. The people obliged John duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it, and he ſucceeded to the throne by the title of John IV. almoſt without bloodſhed, and the foreign ſettlements alſo acknowledged him as their ſovereign. A fierce war ſubſiſted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to reunite them, proved vain, ſo that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared free and independent.

The Portugueſe could not have ſupported themſelves under their revolt

from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and upon the reſtoration of Charles II. of England, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom. Alphonſo, ſon to John IV. was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to diſagree at once with his wife and his brother Peter; and they uniting their intereſts, not only forced Alphonſo to reſign his crown, but obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter by a ſecond marriage had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, he almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the battle of Almanza in 1707.—John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, whoſe reign was neither happy to himſelf nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755 overwhelmed his capital, and ſhook his kingdom to the centre. His ſucceeding adminiſtration was not diſtinguiſhed by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it ſuſtained abroad. It was deeply ſtained with domeſtic blood; and rendered odious by exceſſive and horrible cruelty. In September, 1758, the king was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life, in a ſolitary place near his country palace of Belem. Some of the firſt families of the kingdom were hereupon ruined, tortured, and nearly cut off from the face of the earth, in conſequence of an accuſation being exhibited againſt them of having conſpired againſt the king's life. But they were condemned without any proper evidence, and their innocence has ſince been authentically declared. From this ſuppoſed conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the Jeſuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions. The marquis de Pombal, who was at this time the prime miniſter of Portugal, governed the kingdom for many years with a moſt unbounded authority, and which appears to have been ſometimes directed to the moſt cruel and arbitrary purpoſes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards and their allies the French, attempted to force his faithful Majeſty into their alliance, and offered to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of theſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France and Spain, in conſideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earneſt, they might have been maſters of Liſbon long before the arrival of the Engliſh troops to the aſſiſtance of the Portugueſe. However, a few Engliſh battalions put an effectual ſtop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progreſs of the invaſion. Portugal was ſaved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau in 1763. Notwithſtanding this eminent ſervice performed by the Engliſh to the Portugueſe, who often had been ſaved before in the like manner, the latter, ever ſince that period, cannot be ſaid to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The moſt captious diſtinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portugueſe miniſters for cramping the Engliſh trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His


GERMANY
FRANCE
CORSICA
SARDINIA
MEDITERRANEAN
SICILY
TUSCANY
GENOA
GULF of GENOA
Mouths of the Po
Straits of Bonifacio
Cape Corse
Elba I.
Cape Spartivento
Cape Teulada
Cape Carbonara
Cape Pula
Cape Boeo
Cape Passero
Pantellaria
Trapani
Marsala
Mazzara
Cape Bon
Tunis
Bizerta
Algiers
Bona
Cape Rosa
Cape Roux
Cape Negro
Cape Corvo
Cape Bianco
Cape Farina
Cape Spartel
Tangier
Gibraltar
Malta
Lampedusa
Tripoli
Gulf of Sidra
Gulf of Cabes
Gulf of Lyons
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Trieste
Gulf of Quarnero
Gulf of Fiume
Gulf of Salerno
Gulf of Naples
Gulf of Gaeta
Gulf of Orbitello
Gulf of Spezia
Gulf of Rapallo
Gulf of Porto Fino
Gulf of Genoa
Gulf of Rosas
Gulf of Palma
Gulf of Valencia
Gulf of Alicant
Gulf of Almeria
Gulf of Cadiz
Gulf of Gibraltar
Gulf of Tunis
Gulf of Hammamet
Gulf of Capes
Gulf of Sidra
Gulf of Tripoli
Gulf of Lampedusa
Gulf of Malta
Gulf of Augusta
Gulf of Catania
Gulf of Messina
Gulf of Palermo
Gulf of Trapani
Gulf of Marsala
Gulf of Mazzara
Gulf of Cabes
Gulf of Sidra
Gulf of Tripoli
Gulf of Lampedusa
Gulf of Malta
Gulf of Augusta
Gulf of Catania
Gulf of Messina
Gulf of Palermo
Gulf of Trapani
Gulf of Marsala
Gulf of Mazzara


ITALY.
Engraved for D.Ogilby &c Sen
Holborn.
Italian Miles 60 to a Degree.
British Statute Miles 69 1/2 to a Degree.
Mouths of the Po
VENICE
GULF OF VENICE
KINGDOM OF NAPLES
BAY of TARANTO
SEA
Lipari I.
SICILY
Trieste
Rimini
Ancona
Naples
Gulf of Naples
Mt. Vesuvius
Capua
Gaeta
Terracina
Tivoli R.
Manfredonia
Bay of Manfredonia
Taranto
Otranto
Reggio
Messina
Mt. Etna
Palermo
Trapani
Marsala
Mazzara
Girgenti
Augusta
Syracuse
Pantalaria


16 17 18 19 20 Deg. of L.
40
41
42
ITALY.
Engraved for D'Ottley & Son Holborn.
Italian Miles 60 to a Degree.
British Statute Miles 69 1/2 to a Degree.
Lanciano
Termiti R.
Termoli
Manfredonia
Bay of Manfredonia
Tiano
Trani
Bari
Brindisi
Taranto
BAY of
Otranto
Gaeta
Capua
Naples
Mt. Vesuvius
Salerno
Capri
Lucera
Foggia
Troia
Ascoli
Venosa
Matera
Acerenza
Melfi
Rivello
Cosenza
Amalfi
Sorrento
Puzzoli
Baiæ
Misenum
Cumæ
Gaeta
Terracina
Velletri
Albano
Frascati
Tivoli
Rome
Civita Vecchia
Corneto
Viterbo
Orvieto
Perugia
Assisi
Spoleto
Terni
Rieti
Aquila
Sulmona
Capua
Benevento
Ariano
Bovino
Lucera
Foggia
Troia
Ascoli
Venosa
Matera
Acerenza
Melfi
Rivello
Cosenza
Amalfi
Sorrento
Puzzoli
Baiæ
Misenum
Cumæ
Gaeta
Terracina
Velletri
Albano
Frascati
Tivoli
Rome
Civita Vecchia
Corneto
Viterbo
Orvieto
Perugia
Assisi
Spoleto
Terni
Rieti
Aquila
Sulmona

His Portugueſe majeſty having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his daughter the preſent queen. One of the firſt acts of her majeſty's reign was the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal; an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppreſſive nature of his adminiſtration; though it has been alledged in his favour, that he adopted ſundry public meaſures, which were calculated to promote the real intereſts of Portugal.

On the 10th of March, 1792, the prince of Braſil, as preſumptive heir to the crown, publiſhed an edict, declaring, that as his mother, from her unhappy ſituation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his ſignature to public papers, till the return of her health; and that no other change ſhould be made in the forms.

The queen is diſordered by religious melancholy; and Dr. Willis has been called to cure her; but her recovery remaining hopeleſs, the government of the country reſts with the prince of Braſil.

The government of Portugal joined the coalition againſt France, but was never able to afford any effectual aſſiſtance. At preſent, with a diſaffected army and an inert people, ſhe is ill calculated for a vigorous reſiſtance if attacked. The French ſeem at preſent, however, to be in no ſituation to attempt the conqueſt of Portugal.

Maria-Frances-Iſabella, queen of Portugal, born Dec. 17, 1743; married June 6, 1760, to her uncle Don Pedro Clement, F. R. S. born July 5, 1717, who died May 25, 1786. Began to reign Feb. 24, 1777.

Their Iſſue.

John-Maria-Joſeph-Lewis, born May 13, 1767; married March 20, 1785, Maria-Louiſa of Spain, born July 9, 1777.

The Iſſue by the late King.

1. Her preſent majeſty.
2. Anna-Frances-Antoinetta, born Oct 8, 1736.
3. Maria-Franciſca-Benedicta, born July 24, 1746; married in 1776, to her nephew the prince of Braſil, who died Sept. 11, 1788.

ITALY.

Situation and Extent.

Miles		Degrees.
Length 600 / Breadth 400	between	38 and 47 north latitude. / 7 and 19 eaſt longitude.

Containing 116,967 ſquare miles, with 70 inhabitants in each.

THE form of Italy renders it very difficult to aſcertain its extent and dimenſions; or, according to ſome accounts, it is, from the frontiers

of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to those of the dominions of the ſtates of Venice, which is its greateſt breadth, about 400 miles, though in ſome parts it is ſcarcely 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the Eaſt it is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or Adriatic Sea; on the South and Weſt by the Mediterranean Sea; and on the North, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corſica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other iſlands, are divided and exhibited in the following table:

Italy.	Countries Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.
To the king of Sardinia,	Piedmont	6619	14	98	Turin
	Savoy	3572	87	60	Chamberry
	Montſerrat	446	40	22	Caſal
	Aleſſandrine	204	26	20	Alexandria
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia
	Sardinia I.	6600	135	57	Cagliari
To the king of Naples,	Naples	22,000	275	200	Naples
	Sicily I.	9400	180	92	Palermo
To the Emperor,	Milan	5431	155	70	Milan
	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola
	Pope's dominions.	14,348	235	143	Rome { N. L. 41-54 E. L. 12-45
To their reſpective princes,	Tuſcany	6640	115	94	Florence
	Maſſa	82	16	11	Maſſa
	Parma	1225	48	37	Parma
	Modena	2560	65	39	Modena
	Pimbino	100	22	18	Piombino
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco
Republics,	Lucca	286	28	15	Lucco
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino
	Genoa	2400	160	55	Genoa
To France,	Corſica I.	1520	90	38	Baſtia
To the republic of Venice,	Venice	8434	175	95	Venice
	Iſtria	1245	6	32	Capo d'Iſtris
	Dalmatia	1400	135	20	Zara
	Iſles of Dalmatia	1364			
Iſlands in the Venetian dominions,	Cephalonia	428	4	18	Cephalonia
	Corfu, or Corcyra	194	31	10	Corfu
	Zant, or Zacyn	120	23	12	Zant
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura.
	Little Cephalonia Ithaca olim	14	7	3	
	Total—	75,056			

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy ſoil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each diſtrict has its peculiar excellency

and

and commodity: wines, the moſt delicious fruits, and oil, are the moſt general productions. As much corn grows here as ſerves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeſes particularly thoſe called Parmeſans, and their native ſilk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air; and ſome parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental cauſes make on the face of nature; for the Campagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almoſt peſtilential, through the decreaſe of inhabitants, which has occaſioned a ſtagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places covered with ſnow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almoſt divide Italy, have great effects on its climat; the countries on the ſouth being warm, thoſe on the north, mild and temperate. The ſea-breezes refreſh the kingdom of Naples ſo much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithſtanding its ſouthern ſituation. In general, the air of Italy may be ſaid to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and the Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Veſuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and the Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the ſouthern boundary between Italy and the ancient Ciſalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Iſco, and Garda in the North; the Perugia or Thraſimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS, GULPHS, OR BAYS, CAPES, PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS] Without a knowledge of theſe, neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the hiſtory nor geography of Italy, can be underſtood. The ſeas of Italy are, the gulfs of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea; the ſeas of Naples, Tuſcany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policaſtro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieſte, Iſtria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; the ſtrait of Meſſina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulfs and bays in the Italian iſlands are thoſe of Fiorenzo, Baſtia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corſa, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corſica; and the ſtrait of Bonifacio, between Corſica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oriſtagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Meſſia, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuſe, and Catania; cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Paſſaro, and Aleſſia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the iſland of Elba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral ſprings; ſome hot, ſome warm, and many of ſulphureous, chalybeat and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable ſtones. Iron and copper mines are found in a few places; and a mill for forging and fabricating theſe metals is erected near Tivoli, in Naples. Sardinia is ſaid to contain mines of gold, ſilver, lead, iron, ſulphur, and alum, though

though they are now neglected; and curious cryſtals and coral are found on the coaſt of Corſica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. Beſides the rich vegetable productions mentioned under the article of ſoil, Italy produces citrons, and ſuch quantities of cheſnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or ſea, and thoſe of France and Germany already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great meaſure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's ſubjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itſelf, by the beſt accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of thoſe who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have ariſen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am apt to believe that the preſent inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and ſome other of the moſt beautiful parts of Italy, are at preſent in a manner deſolate; but we are to conſider that the modern Italians are in a great meaſure free from the unintermitting wars, not to mention the tranſmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and ſtates of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; ſo that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we aſſign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but ſome calculations greatly exceed that number *. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have ſuch meaning in their looks, that they have greatly aſſiſted the ideas of their painters. The women are well-ſhaped, and very amorous. The marriage ties, eſpecially of the better ſort, are ſaid to be of very little value in Italy. Every wife has been repreſented to have her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom ſhe keeps company, and ſometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either ſide. But this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and indeed the repreſentations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to have been much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the beſt quality of a modern Italian is ſobriety, and they ſubmit very patiently to the public government. With great taciturnity they diſcover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more ſuperſtitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native cuſtoms, and ſeem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondneſs for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and ſatisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peaſant can be luxurious at a very ſmall expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many deſcendents of the ancient Romans, yet the preſent inhabitants ſpeak of themſelves as ſucceſſors of the conquerors of the world, and look upon the reſt of mankind with contempt.

The dreſs of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium from the French volatility and the ſolem-

* Mr. Swinburne ſaith, that in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples, amounted to 4,249,430, exclusive of the army and naval eſtabliſhment.

nity

nity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dreſt in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in fine arts; though they make at preſent but a very inconſiderable figure in the ſciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal muſic at a very dear rate, by emaſculating their males when young; to which their mercenary parents agree without remorſe.

The Italians, the Venetians eſpecially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many cuſtoms that are conſidered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their ſons ſhould throw themſelves away by unſuitable marriage, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours, hire miſtreſſes for them, for a month, or a year, or ſome determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenſed trade. The Italian courtezans, or *bona robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming, horſe races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief diverſions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, deſcribing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians, and their manner of living. Give what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, ſays he, you will never imagine half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian naſtineſs, offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other inns. No other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a mattreſs of ſtraw, and next to that a dirty ſheet, ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp: for a covering, you have another ſheet as coarſe as the firſt, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlet. The bedſtead conſiſts of four wooden forms or benches: an Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lie in this manner, unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There are, by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been waſhed ſince it was firſt laid. One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here is, that men, and not women, make the ladies beds, and would do every office of a maid ſervant, if ſuffered. They never ſcour their pewter; their knives are of the ſame colour. In theſe inns they make you pay largely, and ſend up ten times as much as you can eat. The ſoup, like waſh, with pieces of liver ſwimming in it; a plate full of brains fried in the ſhape of fritters; a diſh of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the leaſt kind of ſauce or herbage. another fowl, juſt killed, ſtewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey roaſted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are ſo ſtringy, you may divide the breaſt into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and, generally ſpeaking, it is the only eatable morſel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceeding bad: and the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched or even born within the reach of your ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite numbers of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infeſt us by day and night.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman catholic. The inquiſition here is little more than a ſound; and perſons of all religions live unmoleſted in Italy, provided no groſs inſult is offered to their worſhip. In the Introduction, we have given an account of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of popery in Italy, from whence it ſpread over all Europe; likewiſe of the cauſes

cauſes and ſymptoms of its decline. The eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in deſcribing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his holineſs, are ſeventy: but that number is ſeldom or never complete; they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf according to the nomination of the princes who profeſs that religion. His chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amaſſing what he can. When met in a conſiſtory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope, in matters both ſpiritual and temporal, and have been ſometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is ſeldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a ſcene where the cardinals principally endeavour to diſplay their parts, and where many tranſactions paſs which hardly ſhew their inſpiration to be from the Holy Ghoſt. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animoſities ran ſo high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the ink ſtandiſhes at each other. We ſhall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV. 1560, before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the proteſtant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Chriſtians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows.

"I moſt firmly admit and embrace the apoſtolical and eccleſiaſtical traditions, and all other conſtitutions of the church of Rome.

"I do admit the holy ſcriptures in the ſame ſenſe that holy mother-church doth, whoſe buſineſs it is to judge of the true ſenſe and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous conſent of the fathers.

"I do profeſs and believe that there are ſeven ſacraments of the law, truly and properly ſo called, inſtituted by Jeſus Chriſt our Lord, and neceſſary to the ſalvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of theſe, baptiſm, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without ſacrilege. I do alſo receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her ſolemn adminiſtration of the abovemſaid ſacraments.

"I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent* concerning original ſin and juſtification.

"I do alſo profeſs that in the maſs there is offered unto God a true proper, and propitiatory ſacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the moſt holy ſacrament of the euchariſt there is truly, really, and ſubſtantially, the body and blood, together with the ſoul and divinity, of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; and that there is a converſion made of the whole ſubſtance of the bread into the body, and of the whole ſubſtance of the wine into the blood; which converſion the catholic church calls Tranſubſtantiation. I confeſs that under one kind only, whole and entire, Chriſt and a true ſacrament is taken and received.

* A convocation of Roman catholic cardinals, archbiſhops, biſhops, and divines, who aſſembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to ſuppreſs what they were pleaſed to term the Riſing Hereſies in the church.

"I

"I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the ſouls kept priſoners there do receive help by the ſuffrages of the faithful.

"I do likewiſe believe that the ſaints reigning together with Chriſt are to be worſhipped and prayed unto: and that they do offer prayers unto God for us, and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

"I do moſt firmly aſſert, that the images of Chriſt, of the bleſſed Virgin the mother of God, and of other ſaints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them *.

"I do likewiſe affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Chriſt to the church, and that the uſe of them is very beneficial to chriſtian people †.

"I do acknowledge the holy, catholic, and apoſtolical Roman church to be the mother and miſtreſs of all churches: and I do promiſe and ſwear

* An Engliſh traveller, ſpeaking of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Florence, in Italy, deſcribes it as follows: I had occaſion ſays he, to ſee a proceſſion, where all the nobleſſe of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary of a charitable inſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in ſack cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies: but the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, ſtanding within a gilt frame, dreſſed in a gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of falſe jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the faſhion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the croſs; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the ſhoulders of three or four luſty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

† A long liſt of indulgences, or fees of the pope's chancery, may be ſeen in a book printed 150 years ago, by the authority of the then pope. It has been tranſlated into Engliſh, under the title of *Rome a great Cuſtom-Houſe for Sin*; from which we ſhall give a few extracts.

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that ſtole holy or conſecrated things out of a holy place, 10s. 6d.
For him who lies with a woman in the church, 9s.
For a layman for *murdering* a layman, 7s. 6d.
For him that killeth his father, mother, wife, or ſiſter, 10s. 6d.
For laying violent hands on a *clergyman*, ſo it be without effuſion of blood, 10s. 6d.
For a prieſt that keeps a concubine; as alſo his diſpenſation for being irregular, 10s. 6d.
For him that lyeth with his *own mother*, *ſiſter*, or *godmother*, 7s. 6d.
For him that *burns* his neighbour's houſe, 12s.
For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1l. 7s.
For him that forgeth letters apoſtolical, 1l. 7s.
For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2l. 6s.
For a king for going to the holy ſepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a baſtard to enter all holy orders, 18s
For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have Chriſtian burial, 1l. 7s. 6d.

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to viſit the apoſtolic churches, 18s.
To eat fleſh and white meats in Lent and other faſting days, 10s. 6d.
That a king or queen ſhall enjoy ſuch indulgences, as if they went to Rome, 15l.
For a queen to adopt a child, 300l.
To marry in times prohibited, 2l. 5s.
To eat fleſh in times prohibited, 1l. 4s.
Not to be tied to faſting days, 1l. 4s.
For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken ſanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

FACULTIES.

To abſolve all delinquents, 3l.
To diſpenſe with irregularities, 3l.

true obedience to the biſhop of Rome, the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, the prince of the apoſtles, and vicar of Jeſus Chriſt.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profeſs all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the ſacred canons and œcumenical councils, and eſpcially by the holy ſynod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all hereſies condemned, rejected, and anathematiſed by the church, I do likewiſe condemn, reject, and anathematiſe."

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty eight archbiſhoprics it Italy, but the ſuffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or ſuppreſſing them as he pleaſes.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmoothneſs, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſitions. The ground work of it is Latin, and it is eaſily maſtered by a good claſſical ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary ſocieties there, may at laſt fix the Italian into a ſtandard language. At preſent the Tuſcan ſtyle and writings are moſt in requeſt.

The Lord's prayer runs thus: *Padre noſtro, che ſei, nel cielo, ſia ſanctificato ill tuo nome; ill tuo regno venga; la tua volunta ſia fatta, ſic come in cielo coſi anche in terra: dacci oggi ill noſtro pane cotidiano: e rimettici i noſtri debita, ſic come noi ancora rimettiamo a' noſtri debitori; e non inducici in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; perciocche tue e il regno' e la potenza, e la gloria in ſempiterno.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS.] In the introduction we have particulariſed ſome of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, ſince the revival of learning, ſome Italians have ſhone in controverſial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own perſuaſion. The mathematics and natural philoſophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli Malpighi, Borelli, and ſeveral other Italians. Strada is an excellent hiſtorian; and the hiſtory of the council of Trent, by the celebrated father Paul, is a ſtandard work. Guicciardin, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as hiſtorians by their ſeveral admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an hiſtorian, and as a political writer. His comedies have much merit; and the liberality of his ſentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the proſe writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the moſt pure and correct in point of ſtyle: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the ſpirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Arioſto, and Taſſo, are the moſt diſtinguiſhed. There are ſaid to be upwards of a thouſand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Metaſtaſio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces ſet to muſic. Sanzarius, Fracaſtorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the elegance, correctneſs, and ſpirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compoſitions not yielding to the claſſics themſelves. Socinus, who was ſo much diſtinguiſhed by his oppoſition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, ſculptors, architects, and muſicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, bnt their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the ſack of Conſtantinople by the Turks, revived taſte likewiſe, and gave mankind a reliſh for truth and beauty in deſign and colouring. Raphel, from his

his own ideas, aſſiſted by the ancients, ſtruck out a new creation with his pencil, and ſtill ſtands at the head of the painting art. Michael Angelo Buonaroti united in his own perſon, painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amazing height, Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and others, are, as painters unequalled in their ſeveral manners. The ſame may be ſaid of Corelli, and other Italians, in muſic. At preſent Italy cannot juſtly boaſt of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Thoſe of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Piſa *, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Italy is the native country of all that is ſtupendous, great or beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library may be filled by deſcriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor do the bounds of this work admit of enlarging upon this ſubject. We can give but a very brief account of thoſe objects that are moſt diſtinguiſhed either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the firſt rank, as a ſpecies of the moſt ſtriking magnificence: there are at Rome conſiderable remains of that which was erected by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the Coliſſo. Twelve thouſand Jewiſh captives were employed by Veſpaſian in this building; and it is ſaid to have been capable of containing eighty-ſeven thouſand ſpectators ſeated, and twenty thouſand ſtanding. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are ſo juſt, that it does not appear near ſo large as it really is. But it has been ſtripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its deſtruction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farneſe, in particular, robbed it of ſome fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c. and, with infinite pains and labour, got away what was practicable of the outſide caſing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farneſe. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the conſul Flaminius, is thought to be the moſt entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of ſteps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and about two feet broad. Twenty-two thouſand perſons may be ſeated here at their eaſe, allowing one foot and a half for each perſon. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greateſt care at the expence of the inhabitants. They frequently give public ſpectacles in it, ſuch as horſe-races, combats of wild beaſts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are alſo viſible in other places. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, anſwer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at preſent converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are ſtill left ſeveral of the niches which anciently contained the ſtatues of the Heathen deities. The outſide of the building is of Tivoli free-ſtone, and within it is incruſted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which

* Piſa hath 46 profeſſors.

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is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement conſiſts of large ſquare ſtones and porphyry, ſloping round towards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a ſtone full of holes. The colonade in the front, which conſiſts of ſixteen columns of granite, thirty ſeven feet high, excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, each cut out of a ſingle block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without aſtoniſhment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a ſingle piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vaſe of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain with an antique baſon of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with inſtructive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the devaſtations of the northern barbarians, when he ſees the roſtrated column erected by Duillius in commemoration of the firſt naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original braſs plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other identical antiquities, ſome of them tranſmitted unhurt to the preſent times; not to mention medals, and the infinite variety of ſeals and engraved ſtones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furniſhed with buſts and ſtatues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the firſt 200 miles, the ſecond 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reſervoirs, bridges and the like, preſent themſelves all over the country of Italy.

The ſubterraneous conſtructions of Italy are as ſtupendous as thoſe above ground; witneſs the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repoſitories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 30 years ſince a painter's apprentice diſcovered the ancient city of Pæſtum or Poſidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, ſtill ſtanding; for ſo indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new diſcovery to the learned. An inexhauſtible mine of curioſities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almoſt deſtroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the firſt year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a ſtream of the lava of Veſuvius. The melted lava in its courſe filled up the ſtreets and houſes in ſome places to the height of ſixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. This lava is now of a conſiſtency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is compoſed of bituminous particles mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified ſandy ſubſtances, which all together form a cloſe and heavy maſs. In the revolution of ſo many ages, the ſpot it ſtood upon was entirely forgotten; but in the year 1713, upon digging into theſe parts, ſomewhat of this unfortunate city was diſcovered, and many antiquities were dug out: but the ſearch was afterwards diſcontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but alſo the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found

found a ſtatue of gold, and the inſcription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze with horſes of the ſame metal, likewiſe gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewiſe found among the ruins of this city multitudes of ſtatues, buſtos, pillars, paintings, manuſcripts, furniture, and various utenſils, and the ſearch is ſtill continued. The ſtreets of the town appear to have been quite ſtraight and regular, and the houſes well built, and much alike; ſome of the rooms paved with moſaic, others with fine marble, others again with bricks, three feet long and ſix inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up ſo unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greateſt part of the inhabitants from eſcaping with many of their richeſt effects: for when the excavations were made, there was not more than a dozen ſkeletons found, and but little gold, ſilver, or precious ſtones.

The town of Pompeia was deſtroyed by the ſame eruption of Mount Veſuvius, which occaſioned the deſtruction of Herculaneum; but it was not diſcovered till near forty years after the diſcovery of Herculaneum. One ſtreet, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared: the ſtreet is well paved with the ſame kind of ſtone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow cauſeways are raiſed to a foot and a half on each ſide for conveniency of foot paſſengers. Dr. Moore obſerves, that the ſtreet itſelf is not ſo broad as the narroweſt part of the Strand, and is ſuppoſed to have been inhabited by trades-people. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be ſeen on the pavement. The houſes are ſmall, but give an idea of neatneſs and conveniency. The ſtucco on the walls is ſmooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, moſtly ſingle figures, repreſenting ſome animal. They are tolerably well executed, and a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear ſurpriſingly freſh. Moſt of the houſes are built on the ſame plan, and have one ſmall room from the paſſage, which is conjectured to have been the ſhop, with a window to the ſtreet, and a place which ſeems to have been contrived for ſhewing the goods to the greateſt advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonade, towards the court, ſomething in the ſtyle of the Royal Exchange at London, but ſmaller. At a conſiderable diſtance from this, is a temple of the goddeſs Iſis, the pillars of which are of brick, ſtuccoed like thoſe of the guard room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The beſt paintings, hitherto found at Pompeia, are thoſe of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few ſkeletons were found in the ſtreets of this town, but a conſiderable number in the houſes. In one apartment (ſays Mr. Sutherland) we ſaw the ſkeletons of 17 poor wretches, who were confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, ſome of them in circumſtances which plainly ſhew that they were endeavouring to eſcape, when the irruption overtook them.

With regard to modern curioſities in Italy, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter, at Rome, is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps exiſted; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultleſs. The houſe and chapel of Loretto is rich beyond imagination, nowithſtanding the ridiculous romance that compoſes its hiſtory.

The

The natural curioſities of Italy, though remarkable, are not ſo numerous as its artifical. Mount Veſuvius, which is five Italian miles diſtant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Veſuvius towards the ſea, is every where planted with vines and fruit trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful proſpect, and the air is clear and wholeſome. The ſouth and weſt ſides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and ſtones. The height of Mount Veſuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the ſurface of the ſea. It hath been a vulcano, beyond the reach of hiſtory or tradition. An animated deſcription of its ravages in the year 97, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witneſs to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its irruptions were but ſmall and moderate; however, then it broke out with accumulated fury and deſolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with ſo much force, that ſome of it fell at thirty miles diſtance, and a vaſt quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, ſuch quantities of cinders and aſhes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that which deſtroyed Harculaneum in the time of Titus. In this laſt eruption, the aſhes, or rather ſmall cinders, ſhowered down ſo faſt at Naples, that the people in the ſtreets were obliged to uſe umbrellas, or adopt ſome other expedient, to guard themſelves againſt them. The tops of the houſes and the balconies were covered with theſe cinders; and ſhips at ſea, twenty leagues, from Naples, were covered with them to the great aſtoniſhment of the ſailors. An eruption happened alſo in 1766, and another in 1779, which has been particularly deſcribed by Sir William Hamilton in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. It has been obſerved by a modern traveller, that though Mount Veſuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things in nature are ſo abſolutely noxious as not to produce ſome good; even this raging volcano, by its ſulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its ſubterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profuſion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Beſides, it is ſuppoſed, that open and active, the mount is leſs hoſtile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to ceaſe, and its ſtruggles confined to its own bowels, for then might enſue the moſt fatal ſhocks to the unſtable foundation of the whole diſtrict of Terra del Lavora.

Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily, from February 5th, to May, 1783, gives ſeveral reaſons for believing that they were occaſioned by the operation of a vulcano, the ſeat of which lay deeper either under the bottom of the ſea, between Stromboli, and the coaſt of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. He plainly obſerved a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as alſo in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or leſs diſtant from this ſuppoſed centre of the evil. One circumſtance he particularly remarked: if two towns were ſituated at an equal diſtance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on the plain, or in a bottom, the latter had always ſuffered greatly more by the ſhocks of the earthquakes, than the former; a ſufficient proof to him, of the cauſe coming from beneath, as this muſt naturally have been productive of ſuch an effect.

Mount

Mount Etna is 10954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 60 miles in circumference. It ſtands ſeparate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and ſugar canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almoſt the whole year covered with ſnow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: in one of theſe which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were deſtroyed, and there have been ſeveral terrible eruptions ſince that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people periſhed.

Between the lakes Agnano and Puzzelli, there is a valley called Soltafara, becauſe vaſt quantities of Sulphur are continually forced out of the clifts by ſubterranean fires. The grotto del Cani is remarkable for its poiſonous ſtreams, and is ſo called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, are ſaid to be common in Apulia.

Among the natural curioſities of Italy, thoſe vaſt bodies of ſnow and ice, which are called the Glaciers of Savoy, deſerve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which extend almoſt to the plain of the vale of Chomouny, and are ſeparated by wild foreſts, corn-fields, and rich meadows: ſo that immenſe tracts of ice are blended with the higheſt cultivation, and perpetually ſucceed to each other, in the moſt ſingular and ſtriking viciſſitude. All theſe ſeveral vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are ſome leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the higheſt mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of Mr. de Luc, the height of this mountain, above the level of the ſea, is 23 ½ French toiſes, or 15,203 Engliſh feet. "I am convinced," ſays Mr. Coxe, "from the ſituation of Mont Blanc, from the height of the mountains around it, from its ſuperior elevation above them, and its being ſeen at a great diſtanee from all ſides, that it is higher than any mountain in Switzerland; which, beyond a doubt is, next to Mont Blanc, the higheſt ground in Europe.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian ſtates are not like the republics of Holland or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable, for every Italian ſtate has a diſtinct form of government, trade and intereſt, I ſhall be obliged to take a ſeparate view of each, to aſſiſt the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or as he is now ſtyled, king of SARDINIA, taking his royal title from that iſland, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, againſt the French. His capital, Turin, is ſtrongly fortified, and one of the fineſt cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to ſeek their bread all over the world. They are eſteemed a ſimple, but very honeſt people. The king is ſo abſolute, that his revenues conſiſt of what he pleaſes to raiſe upon his ſubjects. His ordinary income, beſides his own family provinces, cannot be leſs than 500,000l. ſterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when aſſiſted by foreign ſubſidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandizement of his pre-

preſent Sardinian majeſty is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his ſituation, he was eſteemed a natural ally, for the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe.

The MILANESE, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, is a moſt formidable ſtate, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almoſt incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very ſtrong, and furniſhed with a magnificent cathedral in the Gothic taſte, which contains a very rich treaſury, conſiſting chiefly of eccleſiaſtical furniture, compoſed of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The revenue of the duchy is above 300,000l, annually, which is ſuppoſed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political aſſemblies, where they converſe almoſt on all ſubjects. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports; ſo that its revenue, unleſs the court of Vienna ſhould purſue ſome other ſyſtem of improvement, cannot be much bettered. The duchy of Mantua being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Auſtrian Lombardy.

The republic of GENOA is vaſtly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the ſpirit of trade ſtill continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a moſt ſuperb city *, and contains ſome very magnificent palaces, particulary thoſe of Doria †, and Durazzo. The inhabitants of diſtinction dreſs in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner, perhaps to ſave expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but ſome writers greatly diminiſh that number), among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to ſix gallies. The chief ſafety of this republic conſiſts in the jealouſy of other European powers, becauſe to any one of them it would be a moſt valuable acquiſition. The common people are wretched beyond expreſſion, as is the ſoil of its territory. Near the ſea ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is ariſtocratical, being veſted in the nobility; the chief perſon is called the Doge, or Duke; to which dignity no perſon is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge is choſen, and the former is incapable during five years of holding the ſame poſt again. The doge gives audience to ambaſſadors, all orders of government are iſſued in his name, and he is allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

VENICE is one of the moſt celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its conſtitution and former power. It is compoſed of ſeveral fine provinces on the continent of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice ‡ is ſeated on 72 iſlands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips to navigate, which forms its principal ſtrength. Venice preſerves the veſtiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every reſpect degenerated, except in the paſſion which its inhabitants ſtill retain for muſic and mummery during their carnivals. They

* Genoa is governed by a Doge. Ellarame Pallavicina was elected July 30, 1789.

† Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468; he was offered the ſovereignty of the ſtate, but refuſed it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which ſtill ſubſiſts; he lived to the age, of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

‡ Venice was made a free port, on the 11th of May, 1736, governed by a Doge (Ludovico Manani, who was elected on March 9, 1789) and the nobility.

ſeem

ſeem to have loſt their ancient taſte for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothicism. They have had however lately ſome ſpirited differences with the court of Rome, and ſeem to be diſpoſed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the conſtitution of the republic, it was originally democratical, the magiſtrates being choſen by a general aſſembly of the people, and ſo continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place; doges, or dukes were appointed, who were inveſted with great power, which they often groſsly abuſed, and ſome of them were aſſaſſinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legiſlative nobility was formed; continued, and progreſſive encroachments were made on the rights of the people, a complete ariſtocracy was at length eſtabliſhed upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. Theſe elect a doge or chief magiſtrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and ſilver balls. The Doge is inveſted with great ſtate, and with emblems of ſupreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to ſtir from the city, without the permiſſion of the grand council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwiſe called the ſeigniory, is the ſupreme cabinet council of the ſtate, and alſo the repreſentative of the republic. This court gives audience, and delivers anſwers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambaſſadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It alſo receives all requeſts and memorials on ſtate affairs, ſummons the ſenate at pleaſure, and arranges the buſineſs to be diſcuſſed in that aſſembly. The council of ten takes cogniſance of ſtate crimes, and has the power of ſeizing accuſed perſons, examining them in priſon, and taking their anſwers in writing, with the evidence againſt them. But the tribunal of ſtate inquiſitors, which conſiſts only of three members, and which is in the higheſt degree deſpotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian ſtate; the higheſt of the nobility, even the doge himſelf, not being excepted. To theſe three inquiſitors, is given the right of employing ſpies, conſidering ſecret intelligence, iſſuing orders to ſeize all perſons whoſe words or actions they think reprehenſible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and can, whenever they pleaſe, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers: and of courſe, they may command acceſs to the houſe of every individual in the ſtate. They continue in office only for one year, but are not reſponſible afterwards for their conduct whilſt they were in authority. So much diſtruſt and jealouſy are diſplayed by this government, that the noble Venetians are afraid of having any intercourſe with foreign ambaſſadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and are even cautious of viſiting at each other's houſes.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dreſſed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring, from his bucentaur or ſtate-barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobility, is the moſt ſuperb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable for magnificence to a lord mayor's ſhew. The inhabitants of Venice are ſaid to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the

treaſury, and the arſenal, are beyond expreſſion. Over the ſeveral canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greateſt part of which are ſtone. The Venetians ſtill have ſome manufactures in ſcarlet cloth, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and above all, fine looking-glaſſes, all which bring in a conſiderable revenue to the owners; that of the ſtate annually is ſaid to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the ſtate and the pay of the army, which in the time of peace conſiſts of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general), and 10,000 militia. They keep up a ſmall fleet for curbing the inſolencies of the piratical ſtates of Barbary, and they have among them ſome orders of knighthood, the chief of which are thoſe of the *Stola d'oro*; ſo called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the firſt quality, and the military order of St. Mark; of which in the proper place.

In eccleſiaſtical matters the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are choſen by the ſenate; and all religious ſects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting proteſtants, are here tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amuſements, with an uncommon reliſh for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the ſtreets of Venice, reſembling thoſe tranſmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veroneſe and Titian. The women are of a fine ſtyle of countenance, with expreſſive features, and are of an eaſy addreſs. The common people are remarkably ſober, obliging to ſtrangers, and gentle in their intercourſe with each other. As it is very much the cuſtom to go about in maſks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed; that there is much more licentiouſneſs of manners here than in other places: but this opinion ſeems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of ſtrangers viſit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera-houſes.

The dominions of Venice conſiſt of a conſiderable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the iſlands of Corfu, Pachſu, Antipachſu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduaneſe, the peninſula of Rovigo, the Veroneſe, the territories of Vicenſa and Breſcia, the diſtricts of Bergamo, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The ſubjects of the Venetian republic are not oppreſſed: the ſenate has found that mild treatment, and good uſage, are the beſt policy, and more effectual than armies, in preventing revolts.

The principal city of Tuſcany is Florence, which is now poſſeſſed by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, after being long held by the illuſtrious houſe of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and maſterly in architecture, literature, and the arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often deſcribed; but all deſcription falls ſhort of their contents, ſo that in every reſpect it is reckoned, after Rome, the ſecond city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the ſtandard of taſte in female beauty and proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal.

bunal. The inſcription on its baſe mentions its being made by Cleomenes an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded by other maſter-pieces of ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which ſtands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders in the arts of painting, ſtatuary, and architecture. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, and contains an archbiſhop's ſee, and an univerſity. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca; and ſeveral other academies are now eſtabliſhed at Florence. Though the Florentines affect great ſtate, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they ſell from their cellar-windows, and ſometimes they even hang out a broken flaſk, as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal, beſides wine and fruits, in gold and ſilver ſtuffs.—— upon the acceſſion of the archduke Peter Leopold, afterwards the emperor of Germany, to this duchy, a great reformation was introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuſcany could bring to the field, upon occaſion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its preſent revenues are above 500,000l. a year. The other principal towns of Tuſcany are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna; the firſt and laſt are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handſome city, built in the modern taſte, and with ſuch regularity, that both gates are ſeen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the ſea, beſides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable proſpect of the ſea, and of many villas on the land ſide. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free acceſs, and may ſettle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are ſaid to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſynagogue, and though ſubject to very heavy impoſts, are in a thriving condition, the greateſt part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of Lucca, which is a ſmall free commonwealth, lying on the Tuſcan ſea, in a moſt delightful plain, are the moſt induſtrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, ſo that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000l. ſterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, eſpecially olives. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuſcany keeps the people of Lucca conſtantly on their guard, in order to preſerve their freedom; for in ſuch a ſituation, an univerſal concord and harmony can alone enable them to tranſmit to poſterity the bleſſings of their darling Liberty, whoſe name they bear on their arms, and whoſe image is not only impreſſed on their coin, but alſo on the city gates, and all their public buildings.—It is alſo obſervable, that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in poſſeſſion of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulneſs and plenty, ſeldom to be found among thoſe of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St. MARINO is here mentioned as a geographical curioſity. Its territories conſiſt of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffenſive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the ſmall value of their territory, have preſerved its conſtitution.

The duchy and city of PARMA, together with the duchies of Placentia and Guaſtalla, now form one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy of its extent. The ſoils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richeſt fruits and paſturages, and contain conſiderable mnnufactures of ſilk. It is the ſeat of a biſhop's ſee, and an univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The preſent duke * of Parma is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country was, ſome years paſt, the ſeat of a bloody war between the Auſtrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, is ſaid to have carried with him thither, the moſt remarkable pictures and moveable curioſities. The duke's court is thought to be the politeſt of any in Italy, and it is ſaid that his revenues exceed 100,000l. ſterling a year, a ſum rather exaggerated.—The city of Parma is ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milaneſe, in poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria. The capital is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boaſt that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor in 1785, this duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and is now called Auſtrian Lombardy.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina) is ſtill governed by its own duke †, the head of the houſe of Eſte, from whom the family of Brunſwic deſcended. The duke is abſolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria, and is a vaſſal of the empire. His dominions are far from being flouriſhing, though very improveable, they having been alternately waſted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of popiſh tyranny, ſuperſtition, and oppreſſion, are here ſeen in the higheſt perfection. Thoſe ſpots, which under the maſters of the world were formed into ſo many terreſtrial paradiſes, ſurrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious peſtilential marſhes and quagmires: and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would afford at preſent of itſelf, but a miſerable ſubſiſtence to about five hundred. Notwithſtanding this, the pope ‡ is a conſiderable temporal prince, and ſome ſuppoſe that his annual revenue amounts to above a milllion ſterling; other authors calculate it to be much higher. When we ſpeak comparatively, the ſum of a million ſterling is too high a revenue to ariſe from his territorial poſſeſſions: his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that ſum, is now diminiſhed, by the ſuppreſſion of the order of the Jeſuits, from whom he drew vaſt ſupplies, and the meaſures taken by the popiſh powers,

* Ferdinand duke of Parma, born Jan. 20, 1751; married to the archduchess Maria Amleia Joſepha, June 27, 1769. Their iſſue are, a prince and two princeſſes.

† Hercules Renaud, duke of Modena, born Nov. 22, 1727; married April 16, 1741, to the princeſs of Maſſa Carrara. Their iſſue, Mary Beatrix, born April 29 1750; married to Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, 1771.

‡ His holineſs, Pope Pius VI. (formerly Count Braſchi) was born at Caſcena, Dec. 25. 1717; created a cardinal 1773; and elected Pope, Feb. 15. 1775.

powers, for preventing the great eccleſiaſtical iſſues of money to Rome. According to the beſt and lateſt accounts, the taxes upon the proviſions and lodgings, furniſhed to foreigners, who ſpend immenſe ſums in viſiting his dominions, form now the greateſt part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened, within theſe thirty years paſt, there is reaſon to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits which the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon ſhall pleaſe to preſcribe. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. The diſcouragement of induſtry, and agriculture ſeems to be interwoven in the conſtitution of the papal government, which is veſted in proud, lazy eccleſiaſties. Their indolence, and the fanaticiſm of their worſhip, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and impoſing upon ſtrangers, to induſtry and agriculture, eſpecially as they muſt hold their properties by the precarious tenure of the will of their ſuperiors. In ſhort, the inhabitants of many parts of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate muſt periſh through their ſloth, did not the fertility of their ſoil ſpontaneouſly afford them ſubſiſtence. However, it may be proper to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and ſloth of the lower ranks do not take their riſe from their natural diſpoſitions.

This obſervation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and coſtly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repoſitory of taſte and magnificence. This paſſion diſabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the induſtry, or relieving the wants of their ſubjects; and its miſerable effects are ſeen in many parts of Italy. The ſplendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions are inexpreſſible, and partly account for the miſery of the ſubjects. But this cenſure admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards. I have already touched upon its curioſities and antiquities. It ſtands upon the Tyber, an inconſiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by ſmall boats, barges, and lighters. The caſtle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortreſs, would be found to be a place of ſmall ſtrength, were it regularly beſieged. The city ſtanding upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was originally built. When we conſider Rome as it now ſtands, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itſelf in the magnificence of its ſtructures; nothing in the old city, when miſtreſs of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utenſils, and furniture, her ancient temples; though it muſt be acknowledged that the Pantheon muſt have been an amazing ſtructure. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we conſider that the ſpirit of travelling is much increaſed ſince that time, we cannot reaſonably ſuppoſe them to be diminiſhed at preſent.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has his guards, or ſbirri, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magiſtrates, both eccleſiaſtical and civil. The Campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inſpection of his holineſs. In the other provinces he governs by legates and

vice-

vice-legates. He monopoliſes all the corn in his territories, and has always a ſufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provioces in awe. Pope Clement XIV. wiſely diſclaimed all intention of oppoſing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but thoſe of prayers and ſupplications.

I have under the head of religion mentioned the eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy. As to the rota, and other ſubordinate chambers of this complicated juriſdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under my plan. Under a government ſo conſtituted, it cannot be ſuppoſed that the commercial exports of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate are of much value.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bologneſe, is the moſt conſiderable city in the eccleſiaſtical ſtate, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate *a latere*, who is always a cardinal, and changed every theee years. The people here live more ſociably and comfortably than the other ſubjects of the pope; and perhaps their diſtance from Rome, which is 195 miles north-weſt, has contributed to their eaſe. The reſt of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate contains many towns celebrated in ancient hiſtory, and even now exhibiting the moſt ſtriking veſtiges of their flouriſhing ſtate about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at preſent little better than deſolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is ſupported by the toil and ſweat of the neighbouring peaſants.

The grandeur of FERRARA, RAVENNA RIMINI, URBINO (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael), ANCONA, and many other ſtates and cities, illuſtrious in former times, are now to be ſeen only in their ruins and ancient hiſtory. LORETTO, on the other hand, an obſcure ſpot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious reſort to it of pilgrims, and other devotees, from a notion induſtriouſly propagated by the Romiſh clergy, that the houſe in which the Virgin Mary is ſaid to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumſtances, ſuch as that all the trees, on the arrival of the ſacred manſion, bowed with the profoundeſt reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this houſe from being carried to other places, and expoſed as relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a ſmall apartment, ſeparated from the others by a ſilver balluſtrade, which has a gate of the ſame metal.—It is impoſſible to deſcribe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded; and the angels of ſolid gold, who are here placed on every ſide, are equally enriched with the moſt precious diamonds. To the ſuperſtition of Roman catholic princes, Loretto is indebted for this maſs of treaſure. It has been a matter of ſurpriſe, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary ſtates, upon Loretto, eſpecially as it is badly fortified, and ſtands near the ſea; but it is now generally ſuppoſed, that the real treaſure is withdrawn, and metals and ſtones of leſs value ſubſtituted in its place.

The king of NAPLES AND SICILY, or, as he is more properly called, the King of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is poſſeſſed of the largeſt dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna-Grecia, and the iſland of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 ſquare miles. They are bounded

bounded on all ſides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north eaſt, where Naples terminates on the eccleſiaſtical ſtate. The Apennine runs through it from north to ſouth, and its ſurface, is eſtimated at 3,500 ſquare leagues. The air is hot, and its ſoil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called Vino Greco, and Lachrymæ Chriſti, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely ſuperb, and adorned with all the profuſion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the moſt delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Veſuvius, which ſometimes threatens the city with deſtruction, and the ſoil being peſtered with inſects and reptiles, ſome of which are venomous. The houſes in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general, are five or ſix ſtories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vaſes, or fruit trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the ſtreets are very handſome: no ſtreet in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo at Naples; and ſtill leſs can any of them be compared with thoſe beautiful ſtreets that lie open to the bay. The richeſt and moſt commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the moſt fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them: and a ſmall part of their revenue is ſpent in feeding the poor, the monks diſtributing bread and ſoup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the proteſtants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majeſty preſents to his holineſs every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquiſition is eſtabliſhed in Naples. The preſent revenues of that king amount to above 750,000l. ſterling a year; but it is more than probable that, by the new eſtabliſhed police purſued by the princes of the houſe of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majeſty's annual income will conſiderably exceed a million ſterling. The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, anniſeeds, wool, oil, wine, cheeſe, fiſh, honey, wax, manna, ſaffron, gums, capers, macaroni, ſalt, pot-aſh, flax, cotton, ſilk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and other high ſounding titles; and his capital, by far the moſt populous in Italy, contains at leaſt 350,000 inhabitants. Among theſe are about 30,000 lazaroni, or black-guards, the greater part of which have no dwelling-houſes, but ſleep every night in ſummer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of ſhelter they can find, and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which laſts ſeveral weeks, the rain falling by pailfulls, they reſort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they ſleep in crowds like ſheep in a pinfold. Thoſe of them who have wives and children, live in the ſuburbs of Naples, near Pauſilippo, in huts, or in caverns or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fiſhing, others by carrying burthens to and from the ſhipping; many walk about the ſtreets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very ſmall recompence. As they do not meet with conſtant employment, their wages are not ſufficient for their maintenance; but the deficiency is in ſome degree ſupplied by the ſoup and bread which are diſtributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is ſo much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among ſome of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are exceſſively fond of ſhow and ſplendor. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richneſs of their dreſs, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late tra-

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veller (Mr. Swinburne), luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic ſtrides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbands on their heads, as the Spaniſh women do to this day, and not twenty of them were poſſeſſed of a cap: but hair plainly dreſt is a mode now confined to the loweſt order of inhabitants, and all diſtinction of dreſs between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aſide. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme.

Through every ſpot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be ſaid to tread on claſſic ground, and no country preſents the eye with more beautiful proſpects. There are ſtill traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and underground granaries; and the ſcene of action between Hannibal and the Romans, is ſtill marked out to poſterity by the name of *prezzo di ſangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little elſe than its fiſheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of ſteep rocks, that overhang the bay, and of all the places in the kingdom, had the moſt delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatres, and as the place where Auguſtus Cæſar died, is now hardly worth obſervation.

Brunduſium, now Brindiſi, was the great ſupplier of oyſters for the Roman tables. It hath a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a ſtate of inactivity and poverty, from which it hath not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boaſt of ſo many remains of ancient ſculpture as Benevento: here the arch of Trajan, one of the moſt magnificent remains of Roman grandeur out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Reggio had nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. It was deſtroyed by an earthquake before the Marſian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæſar; part of the wall ſtill remains, and was very roughly handled by the earthquake in 1782, but not deſtroyed: only 126 loſt their lives out of 16,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, and the greateſt force thereof ſeems to have been exerted near that ſpot, and at Caſal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Trupea to Squillace, moſt of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To aſcertain the extent of the ravages, Sir William Hamilton, who ſurveyed it, gives the following deſcription: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compaſſes on the ſcale of Italian miles, you were to meaſure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the ſpot on which the earthquake had exerted its greateſt force), form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I juſt ſaid, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the ſpots where the greateſt mortality has happened, and where there have been the moſt viſible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compaſſes on the ſame ſcale to 72 miles, preſerving the ſame centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been affected by the earthquake."

The iſland of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity; but its cultivation, and conſequently, fertility, is greatly diminiſhed. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Italy.

Both

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually ſeparated from it by the encroachments of the ſea, and the ſhocks of earthquakes, ſo as to become a perfect iſland. The climate of Sicily is ſo hot, that even in the beginning of January the ſhade is refreſhing; and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a ſmall fire is ſufficient to baniſh the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the ſummit of Mount Ætna, where ſnow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preſerving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations are extremely numerous here: the buildings are handſome, and the revenues conſiderable. If this iſland were better cultivated, and its government more equitable, it would in many reſpects be a delightful place of reſidence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this iſland are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal ſtreets, and which croſs each other, are very fine. This is ſaid to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expence. It carries on a conſiderable trade; as alſo did Meſſina, which, before the earthquake in 1783, was a large and well built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant ſtructures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower diſtrict of the city and of the port was deſtroyed, and conſiderable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the ſhape of a creſcent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Meſſina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain, for of 30,000, the ſuppoſed population of the city only 700 is ſaid to have periſhed. "The greateſt mortality fell upon thoſe towns and countries ſituated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the weſtern ſide of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Caſal Nuovo, the princeſs Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, loſt their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounts to 3017; Radicina and Palmi count their loſs at about 3000 each; Terra Nuova about 1400; Seminari ſtill more. The ſum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the ſecretary of ſtate's office at Naples, is 32,367; "but ſir William Hamilton ſaith" he has good reaſon to believe, that, including ſtrangers, the number of lives loſt muſt have been conſiderably greater: 40,000 at leaſt may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration.

The iſland of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles weſt of Leghorn, and hath ſeven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, is an univerſity, an archbiſhopric, and the ſeat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is thought that his Sardinian majeſty's revenues, from this iſland, do not exceed 5000l. ſterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fiſhery. Its air is bad, from its marſhes and high mountains on the North, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719, to the houſe of Savoy.

On the 16th. Septr. 1792 war was declared by the national aſſembly of France againſt the king of Sardinia, and about the 20th. general Monteſquieu entered the territories of Savoy. He deſcribes his march as a triumph. A deputation from Chamberry waited on him almoſt as ſoon as he paſſed the boundary, and on the 21ſt he proceeded with a detachment to take poſſeſſion of that city. The municipality waited for him at the gate in their dreſs of

ceremony to deliver up the keys, and teſtified, in warm terms, the eſteem in which the people of Savoy held the French nation. At the Hotel de Ville he received the homage of all their citizens, and invited them all to an entertainment he had prepared for that purpoſe.

With another body of troops general Anſelm croſſed the Var, and on the 29th. of September, being ſupported by admiral Truguet with nine ſail of the line, took poſſeſſion of Nice, which was evacuated by the Piedmonteſe garriſon on the appearance of the French. With the city of Nice the fortreſs of Montalban, and Villa Franca, and indeed the whole country of Nice ſubmitted to the conquerors. General Anſelme was extremely popular on his firſt arrival among the Piedmonteſe, and they appeared diſpoſed in every reſpect cordially to unite with the French republic. But in a ſhort time the ſoldiers began to commit the groſſeſt exceſſes, and the name of the French nation became odious in that quarter.

The experiment of raiſing the people in a maſs was tried by the king of Sardinia in Piedmont in the month of July 1794; but in ſuch a manner as fully juſtifies the king of Pruſſia's cenſure of this mode of warfare, in a regular government, where the people are not actuated by enthuſiaſm. Ten thouſand of theſe raw and undiſciplined recruits were diſperſed by a few French battalions. On the 14th. of September the Piedmonteſe army were again defeated with conſiderable ſlaughter by the army of the Alps. In the ſame month a grand plan was formed for attacking the French poſts in the vicinity of Genoa. The French anticipated this plan, carried the Auſtrian and Sardinian poſts with the bayonet, purſued them to Alexandria, and forced them to evacuate le Caiſe with conſiderable loſs. During the following months of the year 1794 the war on the part of the Auſtrians and Sardinians was defenſive; and in ſome inconſiderable attacks they were fortunate enough to repulſe the Republicans.

The enemy having repeatedly failed in their attempts to paſs through Piedmont into Italy, in 1796 recruited their armies and determined once more to attempt the conqueſt of Piedmont. The firſt action terminated in favour of the Auſtrian and Sardinian forces, but they were ſhortly after defeated in a deciſive battle fought at the village of Milleſimo. Buonaparte, who had received the command of the French army, taking advantage of the diſorder of the Auſtrians, puſhed forward and gained poſſeſſion of Cairo, a poſt on the Bormida, which commanded the roads leading to Turin. The defiles of Milleſimo were forced by general Angereau on the 11th. of April, who ſurrounded a diviſion of 1500 grenadiers, commanded by the Auſtrian general Provera, who threw himſelf into the ruins of an old caſtle. After a ſevere cannonade for ſeveral hours, a general attack was made in four columns on this poſt, in which the French were repulſed, with the loſs of two of their generals who commanded the aſſault; and Provera keeping firm to his poſition, ſtopped the progreſs of the enemy for five days. On the fifth day the two armies prepared for a general action. Angereau, who commanded the left wing of the French army, ſtill held Provera blockaded in the ruins of the caſtle. The Auſtrians and Piedmonteſe, attempting to force the centre, were repulſed with great loſs; and their left wing which was flanked by the village of Dego, where they were ſtrongly entrenched was turned by general Maſſena. General Laharpe, in the mean time, paſſing the Bormida with his diviſion in cloſe columns, ſucceeded in turning the right flank of the left wing of the Auſtrian army. The allies were completely defeated, and loſt upwards of 10,000 men, of whom eight thouſand were priſoners

priſoners, with thirty two pieces of cannon, and thirteen pair of colours; and general Provera, with his garriſon, ſurrendered themſelves priſoners of war.

On the following day, whilſt the French were indulging themſelves in ſecurity after the fatigues of the battle they were ſurprized at the village of Dego by general Beaulieu, at the head of ſeven thouſand men whom he had rallied. The Auſtrians diſlodged the French from this poſt, and repulſed them three times in their attempt to retake it. The Auſtrians long maintained their poſt with obſtinate valour, but preſſed by the French troops, they were at laſt compelled to retreat after loſing two thouſand men, fourteen hundred of whom were priſoners.

After the defeat at Dego the Piedmonteſe army evacuated the poſt of Monteſimo, and in retreating towards Turin, had taken advantageous poſitions at the confluence of the rivers Cunaglia and Tanaro, on the banks of which they had placed batteries, ſo as to render their flank unaſſailable. The Piedmonteſe general, however, count Colli, fearing leſt by their ſuperiority of numbers the enemy might be enabled to ſurround him, withdrew during the night. At break of day he was attacked at the entrance of the village of Vico; the redoubt which covered the centre of the Piedmonteſe army was taken, and Mondovi fell into the hands of the French. The Piedmonteſe finding it impoſſible to withſtand the force of the republicans, retreated further towards Turin, from whence the French were now diſtant only twenty-four miles. Thus ſituated, with no proſpect of effective defence, for the capital, count Colli, on the 23d. of April, propoſed a ſuſpenſion of arms; the conditions of which were dictated by Buonaparte. Having put the French in poſſeſſion of the fortreſſes ſtipulated in the armiſtice, his Sardinian majeſty ſent his miniſters to Paris, who concluded a treaty of peace with the republic on the 17th. of May 1796; a peace in every point of view in which it can be regarded, moſt humiliating and diſgraceful.

The iſland of Corsica lies oppoſite to the Genoeſe continent, between the gulf of Genoa and the iſland of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble ſtand which the inhabitants made for their liberty, againſt their Genoeſe tyrants, and afterwards againſt the baſe and ungenerous efforts of the French to enſlave them, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or ſituation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has alſo ſome cattle and horſes, and is plentifully ſupplied, both by ſea and rivers, with fiſh. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 120,000. Baſtia, the capital, is a place of ſome ſtrength; though other towns of the iſland that were in poſſeſſion of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

In 1794, Corſica was reduced by lord Hood, who, after leaving Toulon cruized ſome time off Hieres bay; and early in the month of May proceeded for Corſica, which was in a ſtate of revolt againſt the authority of the Convention. The tower and garriſon of Mortella ſurrendered on the 10th of that month; the tower of Tornelli was abandoned by the republicans on the 17th and in two days after, they evacuated St. Fiorenzo, and retreated to Baſtia; whither they were followed as ſoon as poſſible by lord Hood. The number of perſons bearing arms in Baſtia originally amounted to no more than 3000 men. The fortifications were not in the beſt ſtate, and the garriſon but indifferently provided; yet they made an obſtinate defence, and reſiſted till the 19th of May, when lord Hood "in conſideration of the very gallant defence made by the garriſon of Baſtia, and from principles

of humanity," offered honourable terms to the commandant Gentili, which in the ſituation of the garriſon it would have been deſperate to reject. In conſequence of this negociation the garriſon on the 24th marched out with the honours of war, and Baſtia was taken poſſeſſion of by the Engliſh.

In conſequence of this ſucceſs the whole iſland ſubmitted to the Britiſh arms, except the town of Calvi, which reſiſted till the 10th of Auguſt, when it ſurrendered on terms of capitulation. The garriſon marched out with the honours of war, and were tranſported at the expence of Great Britain to Toulon.

Corſica did not, however, long remain in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh. In 1796 the directory planned its reduction; nor could the vigilance of the viceroy hinder ſuch communications, or his authority ſuppreſs ſuch tendencies to inſurrection, as were ſufficient to mark the diſpoſition of his newly acquired ſubjects. While the French were forming plans, the execution of which was checked by the ſuperiority of the Engliſh naval force, the Corſicans were employed in finding means how to co-operate with their former countrymen, and ſhake off their new allegiance. The viceroy who knew how to eſtimate the alternately ſubtle and ſtubborn politics of theſe iſlanders, did not wait the exploſion, but gave notice that he was going to withdraw his troops, and along with them the kingly government he was going to eſtabliſh. The Corſicans ſcarcely waited the withdrawing of the Engliſh troops, before they formed themſelves into primary aſſemblies to ſend deputies to the commiſſioners in Italy to diveſt themſelves of their title of ſubjects to the king of England.

Capri the ancient Capræa, is an iſland to which Auguſtus Caeſar, often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a ſcene of the moſt infamous pleaſures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects fartheſt into the ſea. It extends four miles in length from Eaſt to Weſt, and about one in breadth. The weſtern part is, for above two miles a continued rock, vaſtly high, and inacceſſible next the ſea; yet Ano Capri, the largeſt town of the iſland, is ſituated here; and in this part are ſeveral places covered with a very fruitful ſoil. The eaſtern end of the iſland alſo riſes up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite ſo long as the weſtern. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a ſlip of lower ground that runs acroſs the iſland, and is one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots that can eaſily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn fields, which look extremely freſh and beautiful, and afford a moſt delightful little landſcape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is ſituated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the biſhop's palace. In the midſt of this fertile tract riſes a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, ſome remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen.—But the moſt conſiderable ruins are at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble proſpect; on one ſide of it, the ſea extends farther than the eye can reach; juſt oppoſite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other ſide the bay of Naples.

Iſchia, and ſome other iſlands on the coaſts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to diſtinguiſh them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful ſummer retreats for their owners. Elba hath been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of hiſtory. Virgil, and Ariſtotle mention it. Its ſituation is about ten miles ſouth weſt from Tuſcany,

Tuſcany, and 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants. It is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longone belongs, and the great duke of Tuſcany, who is maſter of Porto Ferraio, and the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the iſland are very good, and the tunnery, fiſheries, and ſalt produce a good revenue.

I ſhall here mention the iſle of MALTA, though it is not properly ranked with Italian iſlands. It was formerly called Melita, and is ſituated in 15 degrees E. lon. and 36 degrees N. lat. 60 miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but exceſſively hot: the whole iſland ſeems to be a white rock covered with a thin ſurface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden-ſtuff of all kinds. This iſland *, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V. when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors: they are now known by the diſtinction of the knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have conſiderable poſſeſſions in the Roman Catholic countries on the continent, and are under the government of a grand maſter who is elected for life. The lord-prior of the order, was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reſide on the iſland, the remainder are in their ſeminaries in other countries, but at any ſummons are to make a perſonal appearance. They had a ſeminary in England till it was ſuppreſſed by Henry VIII. but they now give to one the title of Grand Prior of England. They are conſidered as the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Turks on that ſide. They wear the badge of the order, a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, pendant to a black watered ribband at the breaſt, and the badge is decorated ſo, as to diſtinguiſh the country of the knight. They are generally of noble families, or ſuch as can prove their gentility for ſix deſcents, and are ranked according to their nations. There are ſixteen called the Great Croſſes, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marſhal, admiral, chancellor, &c. are choſen. When the great maſter dies, they ſuffer no veſſel to go out of the iſland till another is choſen to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the ſixteen great croſſes, the great maſter is elected, whoſe title is, "The moſt illuſtrious, and moſt reverend prince, the lord friar A. B. great maſter of the hoſpital of St. John of Jeruſalem, prince of Malta and Gaza." All the knights are ſworn to defend the church, to obey their ſuperiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valletta or Malta, and its harbour, but the whole iſland was ſo well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 18th of September there is an annual proceſſion at Malta in memory of the Turks raiſing the ſiege on that day 1563, after four months aſſault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

No event of any importance has happened at Malta till the year 1798, when the whole iſland was conquered by the French. Their fleet commanded by Buonaparte arrived there on the 9th at day break, within ſight of the iſland of Goſe. On the ſame evening, an aid-de-camp was ſent by Buonaparte, to aſk liberty of the grand maſter to water in the different anchorages in the iſland; this requeſt being refuſed, admiral Brueys was ordered to pre-

* The iſland of Malta is governed by a Grand Maſter.

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pare for making a deſcent. He ſent rear-admiral Blanquet with his ſquadron, and the convoy from Civita Vecchia, to effect a deſcent in the bay of Marſa Siroco. On the 10th at day-break the French troops were landed at all points, notwithſtanding the oppoſition of a heavy cannonade. In the evening the fortreſs was inveſted on all ſides, and the reſt of the iſland ſubmitted. The unfortunate inhabitants being alarmed beyond any thing that can be imagined, took refuge in the town of Malta; which was by theſe means filled with people. During all the evening a briſk cannonade was kept up from the town. The beſieged made a ſortie; but the chief of brigade, Marmont, at the head of the 12th, took from them the ſtandard of their order. The grand maſter, ſent on the morning of the 11th, to requeſt a ſuſpenſion of arms. The chief of the brigade, Junot was immediately ſent to him with authority to ſign a ſuſpenſion of arms, if he conſented as a preliminary to negotiate for the ſurrender of the place. The ſuſpenſion of arms was then concluded for 24 hours; and the whole iſland ſurrendered to the French.

ARMS AND ORDERS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follow: The pope, as ſovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long headcape, or, ſurmounted with a croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in ſaltier. The arms of Tuſcany, or, five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-Luces, or. Thoſe of Venice, azure, a lion winged, ſejant, or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent. Thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for the iſland of Corſica; and for ſupporters, two griffins, or. The arms of Naples, are, azure, ſemée of flower-de-Luces, or, with a label of five points, gules. The French after the conqueſt of Italy had for their arms the figure of Brutus riſing out of the tomb and its ſtandard tricoloured, with white, and red, and black.

The "order of *St. Januarius*," was inſtituted by the preſent king of Spain, when king of Naples, in July 1738. The number of knights is limited to 30, and after the preſent ſovereign, that office of the order is to be poſſeſſed by the kings of Naples. All the knights muſt prove the nobility of their deſcent for four centuries, and are to be addreſſed by the title of excellency. St. Januarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of this order. The "order of *Annunciation*" was inſtituted in the year 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I. who bravely defended Rhodes againſt the Turks, and won thoſe arms which are now borne by the dukes of Savoy, "Gules, a croſs argent." It is counted among the moſt reſpectable orders in Europe: the knight muſt be of a noble family, and alſo a papiſt. In the year 1572, Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, inſtituted the "order of *St. Lazarus*," and revived and united the obſolete order of *St. Maurice* to it; which was confirmed by the pope on the condition of maintaining two gallies againſt the Turks.

In the year 828 it is pretended that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria in Egypt to Venice. Accordingly this ſaint hath been taken for their tutelar ſaint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their enſigns and banners. When the "order of *St. Mark*" was firſt inſtituted is uncertain, but it is an honour conferred by the doge or duke of Venice and the ſenate, on perſons of eminent quality, or who have done ſome ſignal ſervice to the republic. The knights, when made, if preſent, are dubbed with a ſword on their ſhoulders, the duke ſaying "*Eſto miles fidelis*" (be

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a faithful ſoldier). Abſent perſons are inveſted by letters patent, but their title, "*Knights of St. Mark*," is merely honorary: they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligation by vows as other orders. About the year 1460, Frederick III. emperor of Germany, inſtituted the "order of *St. George*," and dedicated it to St. George, tutelar ſaint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand-maſter. The badge, a plain croſs enamelled, gules, pendant to a gold chain and wore about their necks. The croſs is alſo embroidered on their cloaks. In the year 1561, Caſimir of Medicis, firſt grand duke of Tuſcany, inſtituted the "order of *St. Stephen*," in memory of a victory which ſecured to him the ſovereignty of that province. He and his ſucceſſors were to be the grand-maſters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houſes are at Piſa. It is a religious as well as military order, but the knights of Juſtice and the Eccleſiaſtics are obliged to make proof of nobility of four deſcents. They wear a red croſs with right angles, orled, or, on the left ſide of their habit, and on their mantle.

The "order of the *Holy Ghoſt*" was founded with their chief ſeat, the hoſpital of that name in Rome, by pope Innocent III. about the year 1198. They have a grand-maſter, and profeſs obedience, chaſtity, and poverty. Their revenue is eſtimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain ſtrangers, relieve the poor, train up deſerted children, &c. Their enſign is a white patriarchial croſs with 12 points, ſewed on their breaſt on the left ſide of a black mantle. The "order of *Jeſus Chriſt*," inſtituted by pope John XXII. was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always ſovereign of it, and was deſigned as a mark of diſtinction for the popes Italian nobility, but on account of its frequent proſtitution, hath fallen into diſcredit. The "order of the *Golden Spur*" is ſaid to have been inſtituted by pope Pius IV. 1559, and to have been connected with the "order of Pius," inſtituted a year afterwards; but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are ſuppreſſed, and all that the knights of the Golden Spur have preſerved to themſelves, is the title of counts of the ſacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a ſtar of eight points, white, and between the two bottom points, a ſpur, gold.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably firſt peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the Introduction, to which we refer the reader for the ancient hiſtory of this country, which, for many ages, gave law to the then known world under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, ſoon experienced that of Alexander. Under his ſucceſſors it was in a ſhort time entirely diſmembered. His ſon, Lewis the Debonair, ſucceeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grandſon of Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adjacent iſlands. But Bernard having loſt his life by the cruelty of his uncle, againſt whom he levied war, and Lewis himſelf dying in 840, his dominions were divided among his ſons Lothario, Lewis, and Charles. Lothario with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries ſituated between the Saone and the Rhine; Lewis had Germany; and France fell to the ſhare of Charles, the youngeſt of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho the Great, re-united Italy to the Imperial dominions. Italy afterwards ſuffered much by the conteſts between the popes and the emperors; it was harraſſed by wars and internal diviſions; and at length various principalities and ſtates were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the

the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, whoſe father became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718*. In 1794 Savoy and Piedmont were ſubdued by the French, and were aded to them by their late treaty with the king of Sardinia.

The great duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous diſtinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes then perſuaded the imperial governors in Tuſcany to put themſelves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a ſhort time, formed themſelves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties againſt both parties by turn. Faction at laſt ſhook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, who was deſervedly called the Father of his Country, being in the ſecret, ſhared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt-India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueſe. His revenue, in ready money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe, enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power; and pope Pius V. gave one of his deſcendants, Coſmo (the great patron of the arts), the title of Great Duke of Tuſcany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſton de Medicis in 1737, without iſſue. The great duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI. as a fief of the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law, the duke of Lorrain, (afterwards emperor, and father of Joſeph II.) in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain, which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold, his ſecond ſon, (brother and ſucceſſor to the emperor Joſeph II.) upon the death of his father, became Grand Duke. When he ſucceeded to the imperial crown, his ſon Ferdinand entered upon the ſovereignty of the great duchy of Tuſcany, who has now ſucceeded his father in the empire of Germany. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade: and ſeveral ſhips of very conſiderable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts to prevent the depredations of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives, which ſeems to be incorporated with the air. Chriſtians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks, eſtabliſhed there, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance, a moſt reſpectable monarchy flouriſhing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their in-

* Charles-Emanuel Ferdinand Maria, king of Sardinia, and duke of Savoy, born May 24, 1751; married in 1775 to Maria Adelheid, ſiſter to Louis XVI. the late unfortunate king of the French.

Brothers and ſiſters of the king.

1. Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa, born September 2, 1753; married to the count de Provence, vid. France.
2. Maria-Thereſa, born Jan. 31, 1756; married to the Count d'Artois, vid. France.
3. Anna-Maria-Caroliua, born December 17, 1757.
4. Victor-Emanuel Cajetan duc d'Aoſte, born, July 24, 1759; married April 25. 1789, Maria-Thereſa, niece to the preſent emperor.
5. Maurice-Joſeph-Maria, duc de Montſerrat, born September, 12, 1762.
6. Maria-Charlotta, born January 17, 1764.
7. Charles-Joſeph, duc de Genevois, born April 6, 1765.
8. Joſeph Benedict, comte de Maurienne, born October, 5, 1766.

trigues broken into the succession of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at last came into the possession of the French; and the house of Anjou, with some interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Austrian line, was so oppressive, that it gave rise to the famous revolt, headed by Massaniello, a young fisherman, without shoes or stockings, in the year 1647. His success was so surprising, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to abolish the oppressive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before these could be re-established perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Austrian line opened a new scene of litigation. In 1706 the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took possession of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, to the possession of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, about the possession of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effusion of blood was stopt by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at first demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his accession to the crown of Spain in 1759, it being found, by the inspection of physicians, and other trials, that his eldest son was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his second being heir apparent to the Spanish monarchy, he resigned the crown of Naples to his third son, Ferdinand IV. who married an archduchess of Austria.*

The king of Naples joined the coalition which was formed by the princes of Europe against the French Republic; but terrified by the rapid and unparalleled successes of his enemies, he was forced to request an armistice, which was granted to him, together with the pope; and on the 25th of October 1797 a definitive treaty was concluded upon such conditions as the French were pleased to dictate.

It was impossible, however that a peace concluded on such disgraceful conditions could be of long continuance; being insulted beyond endurance, they began, particularly after admiral Nelson's victory, to give evident proofs of enmity towards the French, and clearly shewed an inclination to join any confederacy, which might be formed against them. The king of Naples however, either not being sufficiently informed of the designs and views of the other powers or misunderstanding them, commenced his military operations before they were ready to cooperate with him. His troops were not able to withstand those of the enemy but were defeated in almost every engagement. Finally the unfortunate monarch was at last forced to abandon his capital to the enemy. He embarked together with his queen and family on board Lord

* Ferdinand IV. king of the two Sicilies, third son of his late Catholic Majesty, the king of Spain, born Jan. 12, 1751; ascended the throne October 6, 1759; married April 7, 1768, to the archduchess Maria Carolina Louisa, sister to the late emperor, by whom he has had issue 13 children, viz. [illegible]

1. Maria [illegible]

[illegible] the archduke Ferdinand.

[illegible]

Nelson's

Nelſon's ſhip, and arrived after a moſt tempeſtuous paſſage, in which one of the young princes Albert died through exceſſive ſickneſs and fatigue. It is to be hoped, however that the enemy will be expelled from this as well as from all their other poſſeſſions and the rightful ſovereign reſtored to his throne.

The Milaneſe, the faireſt portion in Italy, went through ſeveral hands; the Viſcontis were ſucceeded by the Galeazzos and the Sforzas, but fell at laſt into the hands of the emperor Charles V. about the year 1525, who gave it to his ſon Philip II. king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1706, by the imperialiſts. They were diſpoſſeſſed of it in 1743; but by the emperor's ceſſion of Naples and Sicily to the preſent king of Spain, it returned to the houſe of Auſtria who governs it by a viceroy. It has been ſince overrun by the French, and lately reconquered from them by thoſe powers, who, arouſed at laſt to a ſenſe of their danger, have coaleſced in order to humble thoſe miſcreants who have uſurped the government of France.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who, adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the houſe of Auſtria, which now poſſeſſes it, the laſt duke dying without male iſſue; but Guaſtalla was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The firſt duke of Parma was natural ſon to pope Paul III. the duchy having been annexed to the holy ſee, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The deſcendants of the houſe of Farneſe terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his preſent catholic majeſty, obtained that duchy, and his nephew now holds it with the duchy of Placentia.

The Venetians were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Conſtantinople itſelf, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Aſia. They were more than once brought to the brink of deſtruction, by the confederacies formed againſt them among the other powers of Europe, eſpecially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often ſaved by the diſunion of the confederates. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions on the continent; and ſo late as the year 1715 they loſt the Morea. In 1798 when the French banditti had over-run Italy, having contrived ſeveral accuſations againſt the inhabitants of Venice, they addreſſed a manifeſto to the doge, complaining of the hoſtile diſpoſition that government had always manifeſted towards them, and demanding inſtant ſatisfaction for the recent injuries. Commiſſaries were appointed, to wait on Buonaparte, and a treaty was concluded, the terms of which were the ceſſion of the whole of the Terra Firma to the French; the port of Venice to be occupied by French troops; and to pay 80 millions of livres; and laſtly the government to be changed. The laſt article was almoſt immediately put in execution. The ſenate and council of ten were alſo aboliſhed; and three ſtate inquiſitors put under arreſt. A proviſional adminiſtration was appointed, and a municipality of 50 members was choſen, under the preſidency of ſix commiſſaries appointed by the commander of the French army. The Venetian territory was filled with their troops, and the only article of the treaty they took care to fulfil was the levying of the contributions.

The Genoeſe for ſome time diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean ſea with the Venetians, but were ſeldom or never able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes ſubjected, by the

the French and Imperialists. Their doge, or first magistrate, used to be crowned king of Corsica, though it does not clearly appear by what title; that island is now ceded to the French by the Genoese. The successful effort they made in driving the victorious Austrians out of their capital, during the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748, has few parallels in history, and serves to shew the effect of despair under oppression. At present they are possessed of revenue barely sufficient to preserve the appearance of a sovereign state.

At the same time that the government of Venice was overturned, the republic of Genoa felt the predominant influence of the French; and its government, which was one of those mild aristocracies, where the great are content with having all the political power without oppressing their fellow citizens, was destroyed in order to make way for a government formed upon their vile principles. That the change is for the worse, it is quite unnecessary to relate; for however despotic the government of any country in Europe may be, a change for that execrable system of tyranny, which subsists in France, must assuredly be for the worse.

The history of the Papacy is connected with that of Christendom itself. The most solid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, countess of Tuscany, and heiress to the greatest part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his accession in 1073, was so well known by the name of Hildebrand). It is not to be expected that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other causes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the Reformation. Even since that æra the state of Europe has been such, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakness and bigotry of temporal princes who have long ago recovered from their religious delusions.

The Papal power even before the French revolution was reduced very low; but that dreadful event struck the finishing blow; the order of Jesus had been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples and Portugal. On the resumption of Avignon, and the Comtat Venaissin by the national assembly the pontiff sent a memorial to most European courts, in which he vehemently and justly remonstrated against this nefarious act of robbery. In consequence of this unprovoked injury, the Pope joined the confederacy which was formed against France; but was compelled by the misfortunes of war to seek a temporary enjoyment of his kingdom in a humiliating and disgraceful peace. His holiness agreed, without reserve, to the annexation of Avignon, and the county of Venaissin to France, and also transferred to the republic the legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna. In conclusion, he consented to pay the conquerors the sum of 30 millions of livres, 20 of them in specie, and the rest in diamonds and other valuables, with 16,000 horses, as the ransom of that remnant of his dominions of which he was still permitted to enjoy the precarious possession. This treaty, however, so dearly purchased, was not of long continuance. Pretending that the brother of Buonaparte, the French envoy at Rome had been insulted by the populace, they declared war against the Pope and immediately commenced their operations. As the sovereign Pontiff was in no situation to resist, they were not interrupted in their march by hostile troops, and in a short time they entered Rome in triumph, and placed their trees of liberty on the capitol. Immediately on their arrival, they laid a contribution on the city of four millions in ready money, two millions in provisions, and three thousand horses. They disbanded the militia,

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The hiſtory of the Papacy is connected with that of Chriſtendom itſelf. The moſt ſolid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, counteſs of Tuſcany, and heireſs to the greateſt part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII. (who, before his acceſſion in 1073, was ſo well known by the name of Hildebrand). It is not to be expected that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other cauſes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the Reformation. Even ſince that æra the ſtate of Europe has been ſuch, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakneſs and bigotry of temporal princes who have long ago recovered from their religious deluſions.

The Papal power even before the French revolution was reduced very low ; but that dreadful event ſtruck the finiſhing blow ; the order of Jeſus had been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples and Portugal. On the reſumption of Avignon, and the Comtat Venaiſſin by the national aſſembly the pontiff ſent a memorial to moſt European courts, in which he vehemently and juſtly remonſtrated againſt this nefarious act of robbery. In conſequence of this unprovoked injury, the Pope joined the confederacy which was formed againſt France ; but was compelled by the misfortunes of war to ſeek a temporary enjoyment of his kingdom in a humiliating and diſgraceful peace. His holineſs agreed, without reſerve, to the annexation of Avignon, and the county of Venaiſſin to France, and alſo transferred to the republic the legations of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna. In concluſion, he conſented to pay the conquerors the ſum of 30 millions of livres, 20 of them in ſpecie, and the reſt in diamonds and other valuables, with 16,000 horſes, as the ranſom of that remnant of his dominions of which he was ſtill permitted to enjoy the precarious poſſeſſion. This treaty, however, ſo dearly purchaſed, was not of long continuance. Pretending that the brother of Buonaparte, the French envoy at Rome had been inſulted by the populace, they declared war againſt the Pope and immediately commenced their operations. As the ſovereign Pontiff was in no ſituation to reſiſt, they were not interrupted in their march by hoſtile troops, and in a ſhort time they entered Rome in triumph, and placed their trees of liberty on the capitol. Immediately on their arrival, they laid a contribution on the city of four millions in ready money, two millions in proviſions, and three thouſand in horſes. They diſbanded the militia,

and disarmed the Papal troops, they plundered the city, likewise of all those monuments of the arts by which it was adorned, and removed them to Paris. The Pope himself after being confined and treated with the utmost indignity was permitted to embark for Spain in a Spanish frigate. Such was the final overthrow of the Papal power, which at one period had risen to such a towering height, that it made the greatest monarch of Europe tremble on the throne.

John Angelo Brafchi, born in 1717, was elected pope in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

TURKEY.

The Grand Signior's dominions are divided into,

	Sq. Miles.
1. TURKEY in EUROPE.	
2. TURKEY in ASIA.	960,060
3. TURKEY in AFRICA.	

TURKEY in EUROPE.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 1000	between	17 and 40 East long.
Breadth 900		36 and 49 North lat.

Containing 181,400 square miles, with 44 inhabitants to each;

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the North; by Circaſſia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Helleſpont, and Archipelago, on the Eaſt; by the Mediterranean, on the South; by the ſame ſea, and the Venetian and Auſtrian territories, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north coaſt of the Black Sea are the provinces of	Crim and little Tartary and the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſus*	Precop, Brachiſeria, Kaffa	26,200
	Budziac Tartary,	Oczacow	12,000
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Beſſarabia —	Bender, Belgorod	8,000
	Moldavia, olim Dacia —	Jazy, Choczim, Falczin	26,000
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia —	Tergoviſc	10,500

* The Ruſſians in 1783 ſeized on the Crimea, the principal part of this diviſion, and by a treaty ſigned January 9, 1784, the Turks ceded it to them, with the iſle of Taman and that part of Cuban which which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tatrar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea.

Diviſions.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
South of the Danube are	Bulgaria, the eaſt part of the ancient Myſia —	Widin Nicopoli Siliſtria Scopia	17,000
	Servia, the weſt part of Myſia	Belgrade Semendria Niſſa	22,570
	Boſnia, part of the ancient Illyricum	Seraio	8,640
On the Boſphorus and Helleſpont	Romania, olim Thrace	Conſtantinople, N. l. 41. E. l. 29, Adrianople	21,200
South of Mount Rhodope or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece	Macedonia —	Strymon Conteſſa	18,980
	Theſſaly, now Janua	Salonichi Lariſſa	4,650
	Achio and Bœotia, now Livadia	Athens, Thebes, Lepanto	3,420
On the Adriatic ſea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Epirus —	Chimæra Burtinto Scodra	7,955
	Albania —	Durazzo Dulcigno	6,375
	Dalmatia —	Zara Narenza	4,560
	Raguſa Republic *	Raguſa	430
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponneſus, being the ſouth diviſion of Greece are	Corinthia —	Corinth	
	Argos	Argos Napoli de Ro-	

*The republic of Raguſa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkiſh government. It is an ariſtocratical ſtate, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is ſtyled rector, is changed every month, and elected by ſcrutiny or lot. During his ſhort adminiſtration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Raguſans are unable to protect themſelves, they make uſe of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand ſignior. They endeavour alſo to keep them upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring ſtates. But in the year 1783 a diſpute aroſe between them and the king of Naples, reſpecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Raguſan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itſelf under that king's protection. The city of Raguſa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains ſome handſome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was ſituated not far from this city. The Raguſans profeſs the Romiſh religion, but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks, are tolerated. Almoſt all the citizens are traders, and they keep ſo watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Raguſa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in uſe among the Raguſans is the Sclavonian, but the greateſt part of them ſpeak the Italian. They have many trading veſſels, and are carriers in the Mediterranean like the Dutch, being conſtantly at peace with the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The city of Gravoſa, and Stagno, 30 miles N. E. of Raguſa, are within the territories of this republic, and there are alſo five ſmall iſlands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

Diviſions,

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece are	Sparta —	mania Lacedæmon, now Misitra, on the river Eurotus	7,220
	Olympia, where the Games were held	Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus	
	Arcadia —	Modon	
		Coron	
		Partas	
	Elis	Elis, or Belvidere on the riv. Peneus.	

Soil, air, seasons, and water.] Nature has lavished upon the inhabitants of Turkey all her blessings in those four particulars. The soil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond description. The air is salubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unless when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regular and pleasant, and have been celebrated from the remotest times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholesomeness of the water all over their dominions.

Mountains.] These are the most celebrated of any in the world, and at the same time often the most fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninsula, running into the Ægean sea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, separate Thessaly from Epirus. Parnassus, in Achaia, so famous for being consecrated to the muses, is well known. Mount Hæmus is likewise often mentioned by the poets: but most of the other mountains have changed their name; witness the mountains Suha, Witoska, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the most celebrated mountains above mentioned, have modern names imposed upon them by the Turks, their new masters, and others in their neighbourhood.

Seas.] The Euxine or Black sea; the Palus Mæotis, or sea of Asoph; the sea of Marmora, which separates Europe from Asia; the Archipelago; the Ionian sea, and the Levant, are so many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, of all other countries, had the best claim to be the mistress of the world.

Straits.] Those of the Hellespont and Bosphorus are joined to the sea of Marmora, and are remarkable in modern as well as ancient history. The former viz. the Hellespont, or Dardanelles, is only two miles and an half in breadth, and is famous for the passage of Xerxes over it, when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition against Asia. The former, for the more easy transportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is also celebrated by the poets in the story of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom the latter swam across it to his mistress; but one night was unhappily drowned. The Bosphorus is about the same breadth, but has not been so much celebrated by historians and poets.

Rivers.] The Danube, the Save, the Neister, the Neiper, and the Don, are the best known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and historians.

Lakes.]

LAKES.] These are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applauſe, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Sentari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, ſo famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Peneus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx iſſues, conceived by the ancients to be the paſſage into hell.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all ſorts of mines, and its marbles are eſteemed the fineſt in the world.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe are excellent all over the European Turkey, eſpecially when aſſiſted by the ſmalleſt degree of induſtry. Beſides pot and garden herbs of almoſt every kind, this country produces in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon ſweetneſs, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Beſides theſe, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Theſſalian or Turkiſh horſes are excellent both for their beauty and ſervice. The black cattle are large, eſpecially in Greece. The goats are a moſt valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and fleſh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi, furniſh the beſt feathers for arrows for the Turkiſh archers, and they ſell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe; but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Almoſt every ſpot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, preſents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Iſthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Iſthmean games were celebrated, are ſtill viſible. Athens, which contains at preſent above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful ſource of the moſt magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world; a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work: but it will be proper to mention ſome of the moſt conſiderable. Among the antiquities of this once ſuperb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompaſſed with forty-ſix fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and ſeven feet and a half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with baſſo relievos, admirably executed, repreſenting the wars of the Athenians. To the ſouth eaſt of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are ſeventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthean order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and baſes. Juſt without the city ſtands the temple of Theſeus, ſurrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order; the portico at the weſt end is adorned with the battle of the Centaurs, in baſſo-relievo; that at the eaſt end appears to be a continuation of the ſame hiſtory; and on the outſide of the porticos, in the ſpaces between the triglyphs, are repreſented the exploits of Theſeus. On the ſouth-weſt of Athens is a beautiful ſtructure, commonly called the Lantern of Demoſthenes; this is a ſmall round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is ſupported by ſix fluted columns of the Corinthean order, nine feet and a half high; in the ſpace between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the reſemblance of ſcales; and on the frieze are beautifully repreſented in relievo the labours of Hercules. Here are alſo to be ſeen the temple of the Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; of the magnificent

nificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temples of Jupiter Olympus, and Auguſtus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are ſtill viſible at Caſtri, on the ſouth ſide of mount Parnaſſus, and the marble ſteps that deſcend to a pleaſant running water, ſuppoſed to be the renowned Caſtalian ſpring, with the niches for ſtatues in the rock, are ſtill diſcernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is ſtill a natural curioſity in Livadiæ, the old Bœotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monto Santo, lies on a peninſula, which extends into the Ægean ſea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninſula, ſeven Turkiſh miles in length, and three in breadth: but it is only a ſingle mountain that is properly called Athos. This is ſo lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the ſun-riſing was beheld four hours ſooner than by the inhabitants of the coaſt; and, at the ſolſtice, its ſhade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which iſland was diſtant eighty-ſeven miles eaſtward. There are twenty-two convents on mount Athos, beſides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no leſs than ſix thouſand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty: the other monks are anchorites, or ſuch as live in cells. Theſe Greek monks, who call themſelves the inhabitants of the holy mountain, are ſo far from being a ſet of ſlothful people, that, beſides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, maſons, ſtone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &c. They alſo live a very auſtere life; their uſual food, inſtead of fleſh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheeſe, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fiſh. Their faſts are many and ſevere; which, with the healthfulneſs of the air, renders longevity ſo common there, that many of them live above an hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the ſummit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life: whence the inhabitants were called Macrobii, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philoſtratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philoſophers uſed to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtleſs built their cells.

CITIES.] Conſtantinople, the capital of this great empire, is ſituated on the European ſide of the Boſphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, as a more inviting ſituation than Rome for the ſeat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire, and having eſcaped the deſtructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greateſt as well as the moſt beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the Eaſt Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the cruſaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the cruſades, ſpeak of it with aſtoniſhment. "O what a vaſt city is Conſtantinople (exclaims one, when he firſt beheld it), and how beautiful! How many monaſteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! How many manufactures are there in the city, amazing to behold! It would be aſtoniſhing to relate how it abounds with all good things, with gold, ſilver, and ſtuffs of various kinds; for every hour ſhips arrive at this port with all things neceſſary for the uſe of man." Conſtantinople

tinople is at this day one of the fineſt cities in the world by its ſituation and its port. The proſpect from it is noble. The moſt regular part is the Beſeſtin, incloſed with walls, and gates, where the merchants have their ſhops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong ſquare of 400 paces by 100, where they exerciſe on horſeback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large ſpacious ſquare, the general reſort of all ranks. On the oppoſite ſide of the port, are four towns, but conſidered as a part of the ſuburbs, their diſtance being ſo ſmall, a perſon may eaſily be heard on the other ſide. They are named Pera, Galata, Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera the foreign ambaſſadors and all the Franks or ſtrangers reſide, not being permitted to live in the city: Galata alſo is moſtly inhabited by Franks or Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities. The tomb of Conſtantine the Great is ſtill preſerved. The moſque of St. Sophia, once a Chriſtian church, is thought in ſome reſpects to exceed in grandeur and architecture St. Peter's at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the Seraglio ſtanding on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a proſpect of the delightful coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, which is not to be equalled. When we ſpeak of the ſeraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand ſignior's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole incloſure of the Ottoman palace, which might well ſuffice for a moderate town. The wall which ſurrounds the ſeraglio, is thirty feet high, having battlements, embraſures, and towers, in the ſtyle of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of theſe the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public tranſactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Conſtantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is ſurrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but ſhallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land ſide. The ſite forms an unequal triangle reſembling a harp, and the total circumference may be twelve or fourteen Engliſh miles, including a ſurface of about 2000 acres, ſurrounded by walls, and defended on two ſides by the ſea, and the harbour called "the Golden Horn." Not leſs than 400,000 inhabitants are numbered in the whole capital; but in this eſtimation muſt be included the ſuburbs of Galata, Pera, Tophana, and Scutari. Two hundred thouſand are Turks, one hundred thouſand Greeks, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks, of all the European nations. Amongſt the former, it is aſſerted that population is much on the decline; for there are few cities in which can be found ſo many young men unmarried. The inhabitants are frequently changed, and the ravages of the plague are reſupplied by ſettlers from other parts of the empire. With no people is longevity more common or extended, nor health more conſtant, than with the Turks. The city hath been frequently aſſailed by fires, either owing to the narrowneſs of the ſtreets and the ſtructure of the houſes, or the arts of the Janizaries. In Auguſt 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter ſituated towards the harbour, and ſpread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houſes, (moſt of which had been rebuilt ſince the fire in 1782) were conſumed.

Oppoſite to the ſeraglio, on the Aſian ſide, and about a mile and a half diſtant acroſs the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal moſque, and a pleaſant houſe of the grand ſignior. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand proſpect. In one view are the cities of Conſtantinople, Galata, and Pera, the ſmall ſeas of the Boſphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each ſhore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military ſtrength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks, theſe ſeveral heads depending on the ſame principles all over the empire, ſhall be mentioned under Turkey in Aſia.

CRIM-TARTARY or the CRIMEA, is the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſus, and is a peninſula, lying on the Euxine, or Black ſea, by which it is bounded on the weſt and ſouth, and on the eaſt and north-eaſt, by that of Aſoph. It is between 44 and 46 degrees of north latitude; and 34 and 37 degrees of eaſt longitude.

This peninſula was eſteemed a part of Turkey in Europe, until it was ceded to Ruſſia, in conſequence of the peace in 1784. Many cities were built on it by the Greeks, particularly thoſe of Kherſon, Theodoſia, Panticapeum, and ſome others, which carried on a great trade with the Scythians, as well as with the Greek cities on the continent.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in the Crimea are thoſe of Karaſu and Salagir, both of which take an eaſterly courſe.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have but very ſlight deſcriptions; and indeed where the country has been ſo often the ſeat of war, and the inhabitants are ſtill ſo rude, very little can be expected from their buildings. Lady Craven, now the margravine of Anſpach, who, without doubt, had acceſs to the beſt lodgings in the country, informs us, that "a Tartar's houſe is a very ſlight building of only one ſtory, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cuſhions are ranged round the room for ſeats; and what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the ſpace of the room, behind the wainſcot, which draws back in moſt places; ſo that in a place where the room appears exceedingly ſmall and confined, there is yet every conveniency to be met with."

Among the curioſities in this country, we may reckon the ſource of the river Karaſu, which is ſituated among rocks, in a very romantic manner, and riſes in a conſiderable ſtream. It was viſited by lady Craven in 1786. No leſs wonderful are thoſe lakes which receive the rivulets without any viſible outlet. This celebrated female traveller mentions a houſe near Sebaſtopool ſituated in a very romantic manner at the foot of ſome rocks, from which iſſue many clear ſprings that amply ſupply the houſes and baths with water. On the ſummit of theſe rocks, there are places where immenſe cables have certainly paſſed and been tied. The Tartars inſiſt that the ſea was once cloſe to the foot of them, and ſhips were faſtened there. Near Bacziſeria there is a mine of earth, exactly like ſoap, which is reckoned very good for the ſkin, and vaſt quantities of it are conſumed by the women at Conſtantinople. Lady Craven beſtows the greateſt encomiums on the ſheep, which in this peninſula are innumerable, and afford the moſt beautiful and coſtly fleeces. The ſheep are all ſpotted; the lambkins very beautiful, and they kill the ewes to have them before birth, when their ſkins have ſmall ſpots, and are ſmooth like the fineſt and lighteſt ſattins. Coats lined with theſe ſkins are called Peliſſes; and as a great number of theſe ſmall animals muſt be killed to make the lining of one coat, this is one of the fineſt preſents the empreſs can make to an ambaſſador.

The peninſula of the Crimea has a conſiderable trade in what is called Morocco leather, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and like ſattin. At Bacziſeria there is a great trade of ſword-blades, knives, and hangers, many of which are not to be diſtinguiſhed from ſuch as are made at Damaſcus.

ISLANDS

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE being part of Ancient GREECE.

I Shall mention theſe iſlands chiefly for the uſe of ſuch readers as are converſant with ancient hiſtory, of which they make ſo diſtinguiſhed a part.

NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubœa, ſtretches from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia or Livadia. It is 90 miles long, and 25 broad, and contains about 1300 ſquare miles. Here the Turkiſh gallies lie. The tides on its ſhore are irregular; and the iſland itſelf is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in ſuch abundance, that all kinds of proviſions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the iſland are, Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the Iſland, on the narroweſt part of the ſtrait; and Caſtel Roſſo, the ancient Caryſtus.

LEMNOS or STALIMENE, lies on the north part of the Egean ſea or Archipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches ariſe from its mineral earth, much uſed in medicine, ſometimes called *terra Lemna*, or *ſigillata*, becauſe it is ſealed up by the Turks, who receive from it a conſiderable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying oppoſite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity. It hath a tower of the ſame name.

SCYROS is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about 300 Greek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or MYTELENE, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philoſophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about 80 miles weſt of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This iſland, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and about 3,000 Latins. It hath 300 churches, beſides chapels and monaſteries; and a Turkiſh garriſon of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of ſilk, velvet, gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The iſland likewiſe produces oil and ſilk, and the lentiſk-tree, or maſtic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almoſt all the other Greek iſlands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their perſons have been the moſt perfect models of ſymmetry to painters and ſtatuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, ſays, "The beautiful Greek girls are the moſt ſtriking ornaments of Scio. Many of theſe were ſitting at the doors and windows, twiſting cotton or ſilk, or employed in ſpinning and needle-work, and accoſted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome as we paſſed. The ſtreets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear ſhort petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white ſilk or cotton hoſe. Their head-dreſs, which is peculiar to the iſland, is a kind of turban, the linen ſo white and thin it ſeemed ſnow. Their ſlippers are chiefly yellow,

with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them faſtened with a thong. Their garments were ſilk of various colours; and their whole appearance ſo fantaſtic and lively, as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a ſeparate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and hiſtorians ſaid to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and ſhew a little ſquare houſe, which they call Homer's ſchool.

SAMOS lies oppoſite to Epheſus, on the coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, about ſeven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long, and 15 broad. This iſland gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Chriſtians, who are well treated by the Turks, their maſters. The muſcadine Samian wine is in high requeſt; and the iſland alſo produces wool, which they ſell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and ſilk. This iſland is ſuppoſed to have been the native country of Juno; and ſome travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the fineſt remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the ſouth of Samos lies PATMOS, about 20 miles in circumference, but ſo barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an iſland. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the iſland ſhew a cave where St. John is ſuppoſed to have written the Apocalypſe.

The CYCLADES iſlands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is ſouth of the iſlands Mycone and Tirſe, and almoſt midway between the continents of Aſia and Europe. Though Delos is not above ſix miles in circumference, it is one of the moſt celebrated of all the Grecian iſlands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent ruins of whoſe temples are ſtill viſible. This iſland is almoſt deſtitute of inhabitants.

PAROS lies between the iſlands of Luxia and Melos. Like all the other Greek iſlands, it contains the moſt ſtriking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteneſs of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHEREA, lies, ſouth-eaſt of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favourite reſidence of Venus.

SANTORIN is one of the moſt ſouthernmoſt iſlands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Caliſta, and afterwards Thera. Though ſeemingly covered with pumice-ſtones, yet, through the induſtry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with ſome wheat. One-third of the people are of the Latin Church, and ſubject to a popiſh biſhop. Near this iſland another aroſe of the ſame name, from the bottom of the ſea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with moſt dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the ſea for ſeveral days, ſo that when it aroſe out of the ſea, it was a mere volcano, but the burning ſoon ceaſed. It is about 200 feet above the ſea; and at the time of its firſt emerging, it was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has ſince increaſed. Several other iſlands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original; but the ſea in their neighbourhood is ſo deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous iſland of RHODES is ſituated in the 28th degree of eaſt longitude, and 36 degrees 20 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles ſouth-weſt of the continent of Leſſer Aſia, being about 60 miles long, and 25 broad. This iſland is healthful and pleaſant, and abounds in wine, and many of the neceſſaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town of the ſame name

ſtands

ſtands on the ſide of a hill fronting the ſea, and is three miles in circumference, interſperſed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour is the grand ſignior's principal arſenal for ſhipping, and the place is eſteemed among the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes belonging to the Turks. The coloſſus of braſs, which anciently ſtood at the mouth of its harbour, and was 50 fathoms wide, was deſervedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each ſide of the harbour, ſhips paſſed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-houſe for the direction of mariners. The face of the coloſſus repreſented the ſun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this iſland were formerly maſters of the ſea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, after loſing Paleſtine, took this iſland from the Turks in 1301, but loſt it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is ſtill renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth place of Jupiter, the ſeat of legiſlature to all Greece, and many other hiſtorical and political diſtinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long, and 60 broad, almoſt equally diſtant from Europe, Aſia, and Africa, and contains 3220 ſquare miles. The famous Mount Ida ſtands in the middle of the iſland, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid ſtream. Some of the vallies of this iſland produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them are remarkably excellent in their kind. The ſiege of Candia, the capital of the iſland, in modern times, was far more wonderful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks inveſted it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garriſon, after bravely defending itſelf againſt 56 ſtorms, till the latter end of September 1669, made, at laſt, an honourable capitulation. The ſiege coſt the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant ſea, about 30 miles diſtant from the coaſts of Syria and Paleſtine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almoſt an equal diſtance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worſhip of Venus, the Cyprian goddeſs; and, during the time of the Cruſades, was a rich flouriſhing kingdom, inhabited by Chriſtians. Its wine, eſpecially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the moſt palatable and the richeſt of all that grows in the Greek iſlands. Nicoſia is the capital, in the midſt of the country, and the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop: indeed, moſt part of the inhabitants of the iſland are Greeks. Famaguſta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour, and the natural produce of the iſland is ſo rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping conſuls reſiding upon it; but the oppreſſions of the Turks have depopulated and impoveriſhed it to a ſurpriſing degree, that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250l. a year. The iſland produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made; and alſo cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, ſilk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their anceſtors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient ſeat of pleaſure and corruption, is one of the diviſions of the iſland. Richard I. king of England, ſubdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Luſignan, king of Jeruſalem, from whence it paſſed to the Venetians, who ſtill hold that empty honour.

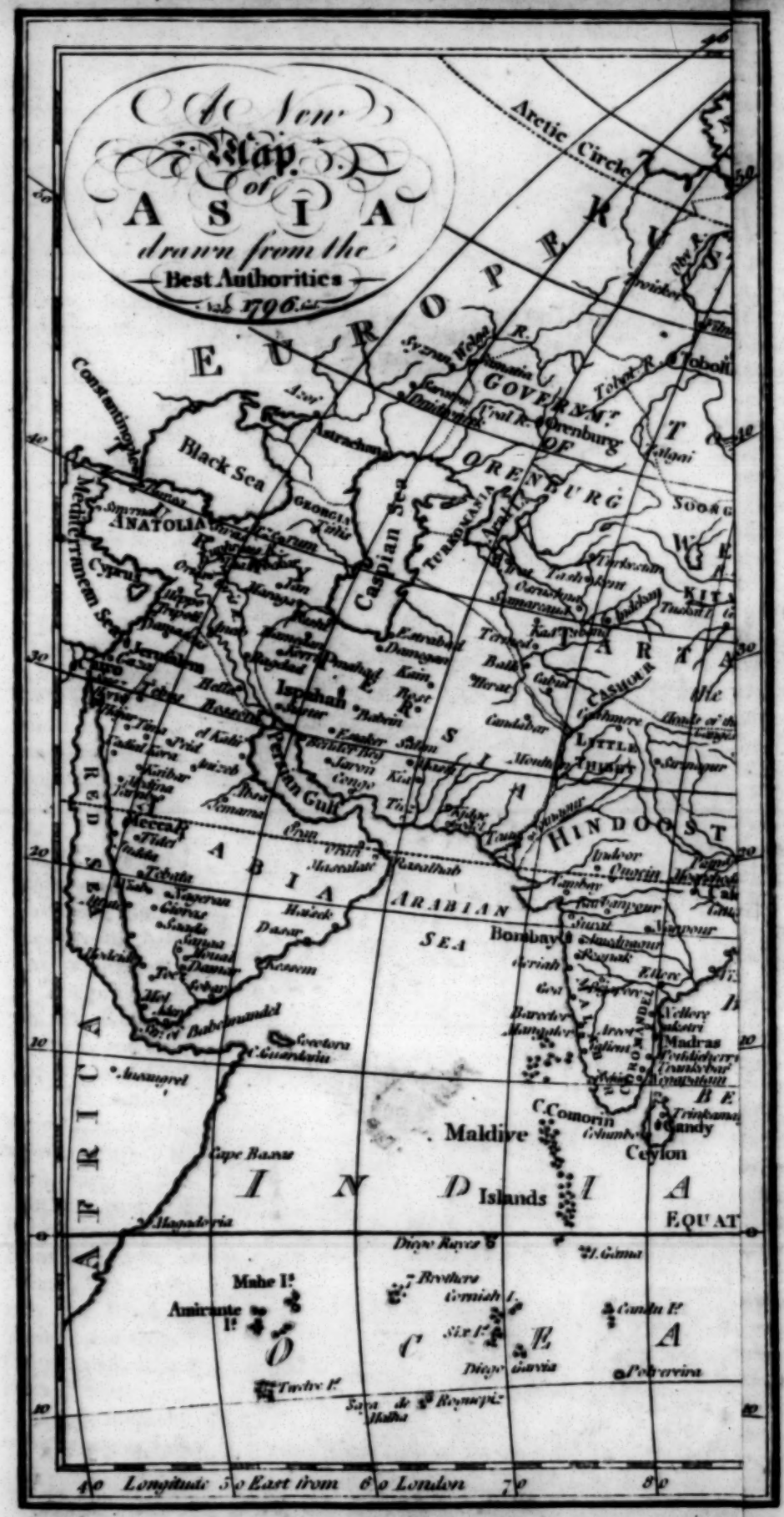
The iſlands in the Ionian ſea are, SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTAMAURA, CORFU, FANNU, and others of ſmaller note, particularly Iſola del Compare, which would not deſerve mention, had it not been the

the ancient Ithaca, the birth place and kingdom of Ulyſſes. Theſe iſlands in general are fruitful, and belong to the Venetians.

Zante has a populous capital of the ſame name, and is a place of conſiderable trade, eſpecially in currants, grapes, and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, ſtrong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garriſon of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet and the iſland of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, moſtly Greeks, and friendly to ſtrangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that iſland, and the reſidence of the governor general over all the other iſlands, is a place of great ſtrength, and its circumference about four miles. The Venetians are ſaid to concern themſelves very little about the welfare or government of theſe iſlands, ſo that the inhabitants, who are generally Greeks, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is eſtimated at 50,000, and their manners more ſevere than at Zante.

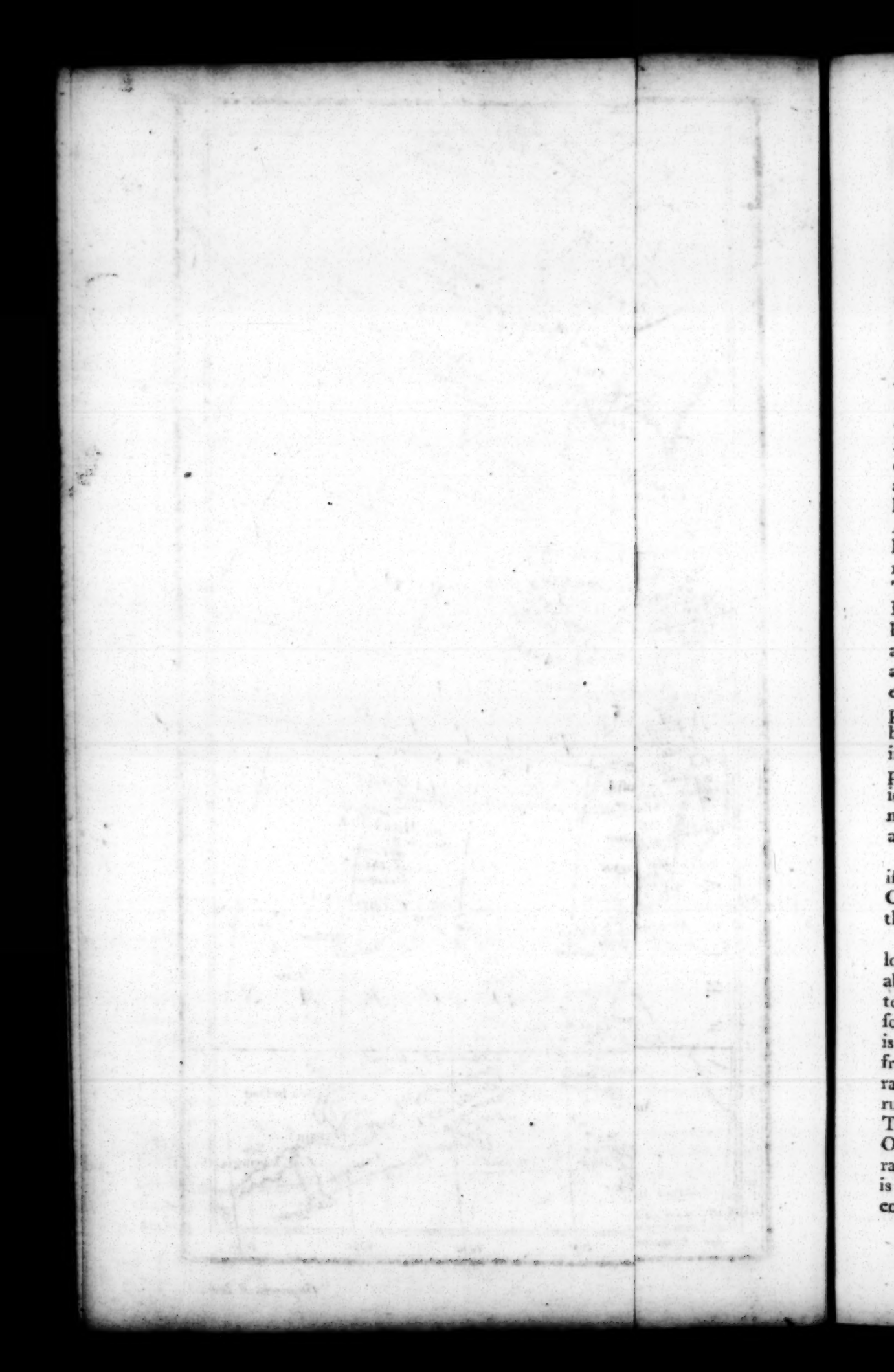
ASIA.

AS Aſia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is alſo ſuperior to them in the ſerenity of its air, the fertility of its ſoil, the deliciouſneſs of its fruits, the fragrancy and balſamic qualities of its plants, ſpices, and gums; the ſalubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems, the richneſs of its metals, and the fineneſs of its ſilks and cottons. It was in Aſia, according to the ſacred records, that the all-wiſe Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the firſt man and firſt woman, from whom the race of mankind was to ſpring. Aſia became again the nurſery of the world after the deluge, whence the deſcendants of Noah diſperſed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Aſia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accompliſhed by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious goſpel was carried with amazing rapidity into all the known nations by his diſciples and followers. Here the firſt Chriſtian churches were founded, and the Chriſtian faith miraculouſly propagated and cheriſhed even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Aſia that the firſt edifices were reared, and the firſt empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all theſe accounts, this quarter claims a ſuperiority over the reſt; but it muſt be owned, that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath loſt much of its ancient ſplendor; and from the moſt populous and beſt cultivated ſpot in Aſia, is become a wild and uncultivated deſert. The other parts of Aſia continue much in their former condition, the ſoil being as remarkable for its fertility, as moſt of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in ſome meaſure heightened by cuſtom and education; and the ſymptoms of it are more or leſs viſible, as the ſeveral nations are ſeated nearer or farther from the north. Hence the Tartars who live near the ſame latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, ſtrong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robuſt frame of their bodies among the Chineſe, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the moſt ſouth-


A New Map of ASIA drawn from the Best Authorities 1796
Arctic Circle
EUROPEAN RUSSIA
GOVERNMENT OF ORENBURG
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
ANATOLIA
Mediterranean Sea
Cyprus
Cairo
Ispahan
Persian Gulf
Mecca
ARABIA
ARABIAN SEA
HINDOOST
Bombay
Madras
Maldive Islands
Ceylon
C. Comorin
Cape Basso
INDIA
EQUAT
Mahe Is.
Amirante Is.
Six Is.
Diego Garcia
Longitude East from London


A New Map of ASIA drawn from the Best Authorities
Anno 1796
Arctic Circle
Nova Zembla
EUROPEAN RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT
GOVERNMENT OF ORENBURG
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Mediterranean Sea
ANATOLIA
Persian Gulf
RED SEA
ARABIA
ARABIAN SEA
Bombay
HINDOOSTAN
Ispahan
Mecca
Madras
BAY OF BENGAL
Maldive Islands
Ceylon
Cape Bassa
INDIAN OCEAN
EQUATOR
AFRICA
Mahe I.
Amirante I.
Longitude East from London


ARCTIC SEA
TUNGUSI
EMPIRE
RUSSIAN
YAKUTSK
Sea of Ochotsk
Kamtschatka
Bootchka or Port S. Peter & Paul
Petropaulsky
Kurile Isles
Island Jesso
Nadeshda
3 Sisters
Terroney
Gulf of Corea
Bay of Nanking
ISLES of JAPAN
NORTH
PACIFIC
OCEAN
Tropic of Cancer
LA DIONE
or MARIANE
ISLES
THE CAROLINAS
PELEW ISLES
Pelew
Borneo
CHINA SEA
PHILIPPINE
Manilla
Luconia
Formosa I.
Gulf of Tonkin
Gulf of Siam
MALACCA
SUNDA
Timor
Timorland
NEW GUINEA
New Ireland
Admiralty Is.
Schouten I.
Mallicolo
Tanna
Mallicolo
Christmas I.
Sandwich
Rotta
Sumatra
Java
Celebes
Gilolo I.
Mysol
Waygiou
Natuna
Banca
Malacca
Pulo Condore
Cochin China
Tonkin
Canton
Formosa
Corea
Japan
Yedso
Kurile Isles
Kamtschatka
Behring I.
Copper I.
Atau I.
Lena R.
Baikal
Gobi or Shamo
Mongul Tartary
Eastern Tartary
Kalmucks
Tibet
China
Pekin
Nankin
Liquea Is.
Lamaism
Thibet
Ava
Pegu
Siam
Laconia
Luzon
Mindoro
Panay
Samar
Leyte
Bohol
Celebes Sea
Banda Sea
Arafura Sea
Timor Sea
Java Sea
Sooloo Sea
Gulf of Bengal
Gulf of Martaban
Gulf of Siam
Gulf of Tonkin
Gulf of Corea
Gulf of Nankin
Gulf of Kamtschatka
Gulf of Anadir
Sea of Ochotsk
Sea of Baikal
Lake Aral
Lake Palcati
Lake Chinai
Lake Kitai
Lake Kamtschatka
Lake



ern regions, is in a great meaſure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanſhip, which our moſt ſkilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vaſt extent of territory was ſucceſſively governed in paſt times by the Aſſyrians, the Medes, the Perſians, and the Greeks; but the immenſe regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of thoſe empires, great part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, or, as they were uſually called, Saracens, founded in Aſia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extenſive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman, when in its height of power. The Saracen greatneſs ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every ſide, took poſſeſſion of the middle regions of Aſia, which they ſtill enjoy. Beſides the countries poſſeſſed by the Turks and Ruſſians, Aſia contains at preſent three large empires, the Chineſe, the Mogul, and the Perſian, upon which the leſſer kingdoms and ſovereignties of Aſia generally depend. The prevailing form of government in this diviſion of the globe is abſolute monarchy. If any of them can be ſaid to enjoy ſome ſhare of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Aſiatic nations, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not conceive how it was poſſible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a deſpotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Perſia, part of Tartary and part of India, profeſs Mahometaniſm. The Perſian and Indian Mahometans are of the ſect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their lawgiver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Aſiatic Iſlands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia. Chriſtianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apoſtles and primitive fathers, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe by the conqueſts of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks. Incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and ſufferings of popiſh miſſionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the moſt diſtant regions, and among the groſſeſt idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of ſucceſs, owing in a great meaſure to their own avarice, and the avarice and profligacy of the Europeans, who reſort thither in ſearch of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages ſpoken in Aſia are, the modern Greek, the Turkiſh, the Ruſſian, the Tartarian, the Perſian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chineſe, and the Japaneſe. The European languages are alſo ſpoken upon the coaſts of India and China.

The continent of Aſia is ſituated between 25 and 180 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the weſt, to the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the moſt ſouthern part of Malacca, to the moſt northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the weſt it is ſeparated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the ſea of Marmora, the Boſphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the eaſt, it is bounded by the Paciſic Ocean, or South Sea, which ſeparates it from America; and on the ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; ſo that it is almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follow:

	Nations.	Length.	Breadth	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fm. Lond.	Diff. of time from London	Religions
Tartary.	Ruſſian	The bounds of theſe parts are unlimited, each power puſhing on his conqueſts as far as he can.		3,050,000	Tobolsk	2160 N. E.	4 10 bef.	Ch. & Pag
	Chineſe			644,000	Chynian	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
	Mogulean			185 350	Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
	Independ.			600,500	Samar / Laſſa	2800 E. / 4370	6 36 bef.	Pagans
Turkey in Aſia.	China	1440	1000	1,105,000	Peking	4320 S. E.	7 24 bef	Pagans
	Moguls	2000	1500	1,116,000	Delhi	3720 S. E.	5 16 bef	Mah. & P
	Ind. beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	741 500	Siam Pegu	5040 S.E.	6 44 bef.	Pag. & M.
	Perſia	1300	1100	800 000	Iſpahan	2460 S. E.	3 20 bef.	Mahom.
	Part of Arab	1300	1200	700,000	Mecca	2640 S. E	2 52 bef.	Mahom.
	Syria	270	160	29,000	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Ch. & Ma
	Holy Land	210	90	7,600	Jeruſalem	1920 S. E	2 24 bef.	Ch. & Ma.
	Natolia	750	390	195,000	Burſa or Smyrna	1440 S. E	1 48 bef.	Mahom.
	Diarbeck or Meſopotam	240	210	27,000	Diarbeck	2060 S. E	2 56 bef.	Mahometans with ſome few Chriſtians.
	Irac or Chalden	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240	3 04 bef.	
	Turcomania or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S. E	2 44 bef.	
	Georgia *	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	
	Curdiſtan or Aſſyria	210	205	23,900	Mouſul	2220 E.	3 — bef	Mahom.

All the iſlands of Aſia (except Cyprus already deſcribed in the Levant belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eaſtern Ocean, and the Indian Seas; of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have ſettlements, are,

Iſlands.	Towns.	Sq. Miles.	Trade with or belong to
The Japaneſe iſles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch
The Ladrones	Guam ——		Spain
Formoſa	Tai-ouan-fou	17,000	China
Anian	Kiontcheow	11,900	China
The Philippines	Manilla ——	33,700	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove iſles	Victoria Fort, Ternate		Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg iſles	Lantor ——		Dutch
Amboyna, Celebes, Gilolo, &c. (ſurrounding the Molucca & Banda iſles)	Amboyna ——	400	Dutch
	Macaſſar ——	68,400	Dutch
	Gilolo ——	10,400	Dutch
The Sunda iſles (Borneo, Sumatra, Java, &c.)	Borneo, Caytongee	228,000	All nations
	Achen Bencoolen	129 000	Engliſh and Dutch
	Batavia, Bantam	38,250	Dutch
The Andaman & Nicobar iſles	Andaman, Nicobar		All nations
Ceylon — — —	Candy ——	27,730	Dutch
The Maldives ——	Caridon ——		All nations
Bombay —— ——	Bombay ——		Engliſh
The Kurile iſles, and thoſe in the ſea of Kamtſchatka, lately diſcovered by the Ruſſians —— —— ——			Ruſſia

* Georgia hath lately put itſelf under the protection of Ruſſia.

TURKEY

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1000 Breadth 800	between	27 and 46 east longitude. 28 and 45 north latitude.	520,820.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circaſſia on the North; by Perſia on the Eaſt; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the South; and by the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, and Propontis, which ſeparate it from Europe, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Sub-diviſions.	Chief Towns.
The eaſtern provinces are	1. Eyraca Arabic or Chaldea	Baſſora and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbec, or Meſopotamia	Diarbec, Orfa, &c.
	3. Curdiſtan or Aſſyria	Mouſul and Betlis.
	4. Turcomania or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circaſſia	Teflis, Amarchia, & Gonie.
Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia, on the weſt,	1. Natolia Proper	Burſa, Nici, Smyrna, and Epheſus.
	2. Amaſia — —	Amaſia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia — —	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania — —	Satalia and Teraſſo.
Eaſt of the Levant Sea,	Syria, with Paleſtine, or the Holy Land.	Aleppo, Antioch Damaſcus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, and Jeruſalem.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are famous in ſacred as well as profane writings. The moſt remarkable are, Olympus, Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucaſus and Ararat; Lebanon; and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The ſame may be obſerved of the rivers, which are the Euphrates, Tigris, Orontes, Meander, Sarabat, Kara, and Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Though both are delightful in the utmoſt degree, and naturally ſalubrious to the human conſtitution, yet ſuch is the equality with which the Author of nature has diſpenſed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Aſia, is often viſited by the plague; a frightful ſcourge to mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly deſtructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their ſuperſtitious belief in a predeſtination, which prevents them from uſing the proper precautions to defend themſelves againſt this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the moſt fertile provinces of Aſia, I need ſcarcely inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmoſt abundance, notwithſtanding the indolence of its owners. Raw ſilk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every ſpecies, coffee, myrrh, frankincenſe, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almoſt without

culture, which is practiſed chiefly by Greek and Armenian Chriſtians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in theſe provinces, are highly delicious, and in ſuch plenty, that they coſt the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is ſaid, in ſome places nothing. Their aſparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed thoſe of other countries in largeneſs. In ſhort, nature has brought all her productions here to the higheſt perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The ſame may be ſaid of their animals, The breed of the Turkiſh and Arabian horſes, the latter eſpecially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have conſiderably improved that of the Engliſh. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to theſe countries, but they contain all that are neceſſary for the uſe of mankind. Camels are here in much requeſt, from their ſtrength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camels hair and ſilk, though it is now often made with wool and ſilk. Their kids and ſheep are exquiſite eating, and are ſaid to ſurpaſs, in flavour and taſte, thoſe of Europe; but their own butchers meat, beef particularly, is not ſo fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in vaſt perfection; their oſtriches are well known by their tallneſs, ſwiftneſs in running, and ſtupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fiſh except lampreys, mullets and oyſters, but thoſe that were found in Aſia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richeſt kingdoms and provinces in Europe; and its medicinal ſprings and baths exceed thoſe of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] THE population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the beſt geographers been able to aſcertain it, becauſe of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not ſo great as it was before the Chriſtian æra, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various cauſes, and above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reaſons; and particularly, becauſe the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practiſed, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cauſe of depopulation. The Turkiſh emperor, however, has more ſubjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robuſt men; when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handſome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handſome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypocondriac, grave, ſedate, and paſſive; but when agitated by paſſion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive beyond conception; in matters of religion, tenacious, ſuperſtitious, and moroſe. Though the generality ſeem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity with regard to Jews, Chriſtians, or any

who

who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of ſocial affections for thoſe of their own religion. But intereſt is their ſupreme good, and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, conſanguinity, or friendſhip, are with the generality ſpeedily diſſolved. The morals of the Aſiatic Turks are far preferable to thoſe of the European. They are hoſpitable to ſtrangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their great men. They are likewiſe ſaid to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public ſpirit is moſt conſpicuous in their building caravanſeras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are deſtitute of accommodations, for the refreſhment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view they ſearch out the beſt ſprings, and dig wells, which in thoſe countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks ſit croſs-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are ſimple and confined, ſeldom reaching without the walls of their own houſes; where they ſit converſing with their women, drinking coffee, ſmoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curioſity to be informed of the ſtate of their own, or any other country. If a viſier, baſhaw, or other officer, is turned out, or ſtrangled, they ſay no more on the occaſion, than that there will be a new viſier or governor, ſeldom enquiring into the reaſon of the diſgrace of the former miniſter. They are perfect ſtrangers to wit and agreeable converſation. They have few printed books, and ſeldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negociated in Turkey without preſents; and here juſtice may commonly be bought and ſold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they ſup at five in the winter, and ſix in the ſummer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife or fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high ſeaſoned.—Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, and ſometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief diſh is pilan, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags, and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup is high ſeaſoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, ſherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them ſenſations reſembling thoſe of intoxication. Gueſts of high rank ſometimes have their beards perfumed by a female ſlave of the family. They are temperate and ſober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the uſe of wine: though in private many of them indulge themſelves in the uſe of ſtrong liquors. Their common ſalutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breaſt. They ſleep in linen waiſtcoats and drawers, upon mattreſſes, and cover themſelves with a quilt. Few or none of the conſiderable inhabitants of this vaſt empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diverſion. The moſt religious among them find, however, ſufficient exerciſe when they conform themſelves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites preſcribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diverſions conſiſt in ſhooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purpoſes, that they may know the ſtrength of their dependents. Within doors, the cheſs or draught-board are their uſual amuſements; and if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

DRESS.] The men ſhave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they ſleep. Their ſhirts are without collar or wriſt-band, and over them they throw a long veſt, which they tie with a ſaſh, and over the veſt they wear a looſe gown ſomewhat ſhorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their ſtockings; and inſtead of ſhoes they wear ſlippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or houſe. They ſuffer no Chriſtians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear ſtiffened caps upon their heads with horns ſomething like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are ſo muffled up as not to be known by their neareſt relation. Such of the women as are virtuous make no uſe of paint to heighten ther beauty, or to diſguiſe their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make uſe of the ſame expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negociated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a ſum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or proper magiſtrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furniſhing the houſe of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Accordingly, beſides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of ſeraglio of women; but all theſe indulgences are ſometimes inſufficient to gratify their unnatural deſires.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpſe is attended by the relations, chanting paſſages from the Koran; and after being depoſited in a moſque (for ſo they call their temples), they are buried in a field by the iman or prieſt, who pronounces a funeral ſermon at the time of the interment. The male relations expreſs their ſorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a huſband they wear a particular head-dreſs, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion is the Mahometan, ſo called from Mahomet the author of it; ſome account of whom the reader will find in the following hiſtory of Arabia, the native country of that impoſtor. The Turks profeſs to be of the ſect of Omar; but theſe are ſplit into as many ſectaries as their neighbours the Chriſtians. There is no ordination among their clergy; any perſon may be a prieſt that pleaſes to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleaſes. Their chief prieſt, or mufti, ſeems to have great power in the ſtate.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS OF CHRISTIANS. The Turkiſh government having formed theſe into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they are moſt profitable; but the hardſhips impoſed upon the Greek church are ſuch, as muſt always diſpoſe that people to favour any revolution of government. Conſtantinople, Jeruſalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an eccleſiaſtical authority over their votaries. The ſame may be ſaid of the Neſtorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege, has its archbiſhop or biſhop. All male chriſtians pay alſo a capitation tax from ſeventeen years old to ſixty, according to their ſtations.

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LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, which ſeems to have been the mother-tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but ſtill bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic and the Syriac, a dialect of which is ſtill ſpoken.—A ſpecimen of the modern Greek follows in their paternoſter.

Pater hemas, opios iſo ees tos ouranous: hagiaſthito to onoma ſou: na eti he baſilia ſou: to thelema ſou na genetez itzon en te ge, os is ton ouranon: to ptſomi hemas doze hemas ſemoren: ka ſi chorafe hemos ta crimata hemon itzone, ke hemas fichoraſomen ekinous opou: mas adikounke men ternes hemais is to piraſmo, alla ſoſon hemas apo to kako. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks, till of late, profeſſed a ſovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and ſciences, produces at preſent, beſides Turks, numerous bands of Chriſtian biſhops, prieſts, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themſelves, and are divided into various abſurd ſects of what they call Chriſtianity. The education of the Turks ſeldom extends farther than reading the Turkiſh language, and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them underſtand aſtronomy, ſo far as to calculate the time of an eclipſe; but the number of theſe being very ſmall, they are looked upon as extraordinary perſons.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Theſe are ſo various, that they have furniſhed matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. Theſe countries contained all that was rich and magnificent in architecture and ſculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have ſuffered from the Europeans, ſeem to have diminiſhed their number. They are more or leſs perfect, according to the air, ſoil, or climate, in which they ſtand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the fineſt temples are converted into Turkiſh moſques, or Greek churches, and are more diſfigured than thoſe which remain in ruin. Amidſt ſuch a plentitude of curioſities, all that can be done here is to ſelect ſome of the moſt ſtriking; and I ſhall begin with Balbec and Palmyra, which form the pride of all antiquity.

Balbec is ſituated on a riſing plain, between Tripoli in Syria, and Damaſcus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cœlo Syria. Its remains of antiquity diſplay, according to the beſt judges, the boldeſt plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpreſſibly ſuperb, though diſfigured by two Turkiſh towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. The walls were adorned with Corinthian plaiſters and ſtatues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the ſame taſte and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now ſo ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, ſupported by nine lofty columns, each conſiſting of three pieces joined together, by iron pins, without cement. Some of thoſe pins, are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the ſordid Turks are daily at work to deſtroy the columns for the ſake of the iron. A ſmall temple is ſtill ſtanding, with a pedeſtal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expreſſing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the ancient mythology. To the weſt of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but diſfigured with Turkiſh moſques and houſes,

houſes. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and ſtupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of theſe immenſe buildings. The inhabitants of Aſia aſcribe them to Solomon, but ſome make them ſo modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his ſucceſſors may have rebuilt ſome part of them, yet the boldneſs of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the ſtupendous execution of the whole, ſeem to fix their foundation to a period before the Chriſtian æra, but without mounting to the ancient times of the jews or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek ſtyle in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at preſent a little city, encompaſſed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houſes built out of the ancient ruins.—A free-ſtone quarry, in the neighbourhood, furniſhed the ſtones for the body of the temple; and one of the ſtones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, and reduced to our meaſure is 1135 tons. A coarſe white marble quarry, at a greater diſtance, furniſhed the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Deſert, is ſituated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, about 33 degrees of N. lat. and 200 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and, opening all at once, the eye is preſented with the moſt ſtriking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the Sun lies in ruins; but the acceſs to it is through a vaſt number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and publiſhed by Mr. Wood, who with his friends, paid it a viſit ſome years ago, purpoſely to preſerve ſome remembrance of ſuch a curioſity. As thoſe drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we muſt refer the reader to them, eſpecially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mauſoleum, temples, fine porticos, periſtyles, intercolumniations, aud entablatures, all of them in the higheſt ſtyle, and finiſhed with the moſt beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but ſo diſperſed and diſjointed, that it is impoſſible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Theſe ſtriking ruins are contraſted by the miſerable huts of the wild Arabs, who reſide in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that ſo ſuperb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable ſands. Nothing however is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans, and the weſtern nations, for the merchandiſes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent altered ſituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural cauſes, which have turned the moſt fertile tracts into barren deſerts. The Aſiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive ſome countenance from ſacred hiſtory. In profane hiſtory it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony; and its moſt ſuperb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus: Odenathus, the laſt king of Palmyra was highly careſſed by that emperor, and even declared Au-

Auguſtus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for ſome time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic was her ſecretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againſt the emperor Aurelian, who took her priſoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards deſtroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended large ſums out of Zenobia's treaſures in repairing the temple of the ſun, the majeſtic ruins of which have been mentioned. This it muſt be acknowledged is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inſcriptions reach above the Chriſtian æra, though there can be no doubt but the city itſelf is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Juſtinian made ſome efforts to reſtore it to its ancient ſplendor, hut without effect, for it dwindled by degrees to its preſent wretched ſtate. It has been obſerved very juſtly, that its architecture and the proportions of its columns are by no means equal in purity to thoſe of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile, than the boaſted antiquities ſhewn by the Greek and Armenian prieſts in and near Jeruſalem, which is well known to have been ſo often razed to the ground, and re-built anew, that no ſcene of our Saviour's life and ſufferings can be aſcertained; and yet thoſe eccleſiaſtics ſubſiſt by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every ſpot mentioned in the Old and New Teſtament. They are, it is true, under ſevere contributions to the Turks, but the trade ſtill goes on, though much diminiſhed in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, ſaid to be built by Helena, mother to Conſtantine the great, is ſtill ſtanding, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different diviſions and the diſpoſitions made round it are chiefly calculated to ſupport the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches built by the ſame lady are found in Paleſtine: but the country is ſo altered in its appearance and qualities that it is one of the moſt deſpicable of any in Aſia, and it is in vain for a modern traveller to attempt to trace in it any veſtiges of the kingdom of David aud Solomon. But let a fertile country be under the frowns of heaven, and abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, it will in time become a deſert. Thus oppreſſion ſoon thinned the delicious plains of Italy; and the noted countries of Greece and Aſia the Leſs, once the glory of the world, are now nearly deſtitute of learning, arts, and people.

Mecca and Medina are curioſities only through the ſuperſtition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean when compared to European houſes or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture makes but a ſorry appearance. though erected on the ſpot where the great prophet is ſaid to have been born. The ſame may be ſaid of the moſque at Medina, where that impoſtor was buried: ſo that the vaſt ſums ſpent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in viſiting thoſe places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uſes. I ſhall not amuſe the reader with any accounts of the ſpot which is ſaid to have formed Paradiſe, and to have been ſituated between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are ſome tracts which undoubtedly deſerve that name. The different ruins, ſome of them inexpreſſibly magnificent, that are to be found in thoſe immenſe regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founder: ſo great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for theſe thouſand years paſt. It is indeed eaſy to pronounce whether the ſtyle of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen; but all other information muſt come from their inſcriptions.

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The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Ifmir) contains many valuable antiquities. The ſame may be ſaid of Aleppo and a number of other places celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical obſervations. The ſeat of Old Troy cannot be diſtinguiſhed by the ſmalleſt veſtige, and is known only by its being oppoſite to the iſle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook, which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble built in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar, at Milaſſo in Caria, and a few ſtructures of the ſame kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are ſtill entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have ſuffered very little from time or barbariſm; and ſome travellers think that they diſcern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana near Epheſus.

CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. Theſe are very numerous, and at the ſame time very inſignificant, becauſe they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon ſtands upon the ſite of Old Alexandria, but it is now almoſt depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preſerves a reſpectable rank among the cities of the Aſiatic Turkey. It is ſtill the capital of Syria, and is ſuperior in its buildings and conveniences to moſt of the Turkiſh cities. Its houſes, as uſual in the Eaſt, conſiſt of a large court, with a dead wall to the ſtreet, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the ſame in the middle. Aleppo and its ſuburbs are ſeven miles in compaſs, ſtanding on eight ſmall hills, on the higheſt of which the citadel or caſtle is erected, but of no great ſtrength. An old wall and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, ſurrounded the city, which contains 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Chriſtians and 5000 are Jews. It is furniſhed with moſt of the conveniences of life, excepting good water within the walls, and even that is ſupplied by an aqueduct diſtant about four miles, ſaid to have been erected by the empreſs Helena. The ſtreets are narrow, but well paved with large ſquare ſtones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens are pleaſant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and piſtachio trees; but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and tranſact their buſineſs in caravanſeras or large ſquare buildings, containing their warehouſes, lodging rooms, and compting houſes. This city abounds in neat, and ſome of them magnificent moſques, public bagnios, which are very refreſhing, and bazars, or market-places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched or covered ſtreets, with little ſhops, as in other parts of the Eaſt. Their coffee is excellent, and conſidered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their ſweetmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater ſplendor and ſafety than in any other city of the Turkiſh empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not uſed here, but perſons of quality ride on horſeback with a number of ſervants before them, according to their rank. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have conſuls who are much reſpected, and appear abroad, the Engliſh eſpecially, with marks of diſtinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to ſleep in the open air, here, over all Arabia, and many other parts of the Eaſt, for which reaſon their houſes are flat on the top. This practice accounts, for the early acquaintance thoſe nations had with aſtronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains ſome parts of the holy ſcripture. As

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the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkiſh cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far it is ſuppoſed from the ſite of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular ſquare, and rudely fortified, but the conveniency of its ſituation renders it one of the ſeats of the Turkiſh government, and it has ſtill a conſiderable trade, being annually viſited by the Symrna, Aleppo, and weſtern caravans. The houſes of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the freer circulation of the air; many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glaſs, and the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Moſt of the houſes have alſo a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a ſmall plantation of orange trees. The number of houſes is computed at 80,000, each of which pay an annual tribute to the Baſhaw, which is calculated to produce 300,000l. ſterling. Their bazars, in which their tradeſmen have their ſhops, are tolerably handſome, large, and extenſive, filled with ſhops of all kinds of merchandiſe, to the number of 12,000. Theſe were erected by the Perſians, when they were in poſſeſſion of the place, as were alſo their bagnios, and almoſt every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five moſques, two of which are well built, and have handſome domes, covered with varniſhed tiles of ſeveral colours. Two chapels are permitted for thoſe of the Romiſh and Greek perſuaſions. On the north-weſt corner of the city ſtands the caſtle, which is of white ſtone, and commands the river, conſiſting of curtains, and baſtions, on which ſome large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each baſtion; but in the year 1779 they were ſo honey-combed and bad, as to be ſuppoſed not to ſupport one firing. Below the caſtle, by the water-ſide, is the palace of the Turkiſh governor; and there are ſeveral ſummer-houſes on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians, who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Aſſyria is now called the Turkiſh Curdiſtan, though part of it is ſubject to the Perſians. The capital is Curdiſtan, the ancient Nineveh, being now a heap of ruins. Curdiſtan is ſaid to be for the moſt part cut out of a mountain, and is the reſidence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfa, formerly Edeſſa, is the capital of the fine province of Meſopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly ſupported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mouſul is alſo in the ſame province, a large place ſituated on the weſt ſhore of the Tigris, oppoſite where Nineveh formerly ſtood.

Georgia, or Gurgiſtan, now no longer ſubject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Chriſtians, a brave, warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handſome city, and makes a fine appearance; all the houſes are of ſtone, neat and clean, with flat roofs, which ſerve as walks for the women, but the ſtreets are dirty and narrow; its inhabitants being about 30,000. It is ſituated at the foot of a mountain, by the ſide of the river Kur, and is ſurrounded by ſtrong walls, except on the ſide of the river. It has a large fortreſs on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuſe for criminals and debtors, and the garriſon conſiſts of native Perſians. There are thirteen Greek churches in Teflis, ſeven Armenian, and one Roman Catholic church: the Mahometans who are here have no moſques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleaſant houſes, and fine gardens. The Georgians in general are by ſome travellers ſaid to be the

handſomeſt people in the world; and ſome think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the ſmall-pox. They make no ſcruple of ſelling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many diſtinguiſhing liberties and privileges. Lately they have formed an alliance with Ruſſia, under the brave prince Heraclius; as hath the czar or prince Solomon, ſovereign of Immeretta, a diſtrict between the Caſpian and Black Seas, who is diſtinguiſhed from his ſubjects (all of the Greek religion) by riding on an aſs, and wearing boots.

The ancient cities of Damaſcus, Tyre, and Sidon, ſtill retain part of their former trade. Damaſcus is called Sham, and the approach to it by the river is expreſſively beautiful. It contains a fine moſque, which was formerly a Chriſtian church. It ſtill is famous for its ſteel works, ſuch as ſword blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is ſaid to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture alſo thoſe beautiful ſilks, called damaſks, from their city, and carry on a conſiderable traffic in raw and worked ſilk, roſe-water, extracted from the famous damaſk roſes, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is ſtill beautiful, eſpecially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewiſe lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has ſtill ſome trade, and a tolerable harbour.

Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles diſtant from Sidon, ſo famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by ſcarcely any but a few miſerable fiſhermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are ſtrong walls on the land ſide, of ſtone, eighteen feet high, and ſeven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half, and Chriſtians and Mahometans make up the number of about 500. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are ſtill viſible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us, he ſaw, and obſerves that they were 7½ feet lower than the ground upon which the preſent city ſtands. Paſſing by Tyre (ſays our author, who deſerves much praiſe for ſome happy elucidations of ſcripture) I came to be a mournful witneſs of the truth of that prophecy, That Tyre the Queen of Nations ſhould be a rock for fiſhers to dry their nets on *. Two wretched fiſhermen, with miſerable nets, having juſt given over their occupation with very little ſucceſs, I engaged them, at the expence of their nets, to drag in thoſe places, where they ſaid ſhell-fiſh might be caught, in hopes to have brought out one of the famous purple fiſh. I did not ſucceed, but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fiſhers had ever been. The purple-fiſh at Tyre ſeems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as, had they depended upon the fiſh for their dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing elſe but fiſhing, they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year †.

Natolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Piſidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amaſia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman hiſtory, are now, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, either forſaken, or a theatre of ruins. The ſites of ancient cities are ſtill diſcernible; and ſo luxurious is nature in thoſe countries, that in many places ſhe triumphs over her forlorn condition. The ſelfiſh Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themſelves, and their gardens and ſummer-houſes fill up the circuit of their moſt flouriſhing cities. The moſt judicious travellers, upon an attentive

* Ezek. chap. xxvi. 5.
† Bruce's Travels, vol. 1. Introduction, p. lix.

tentive ſurvey of thoſe countries, fully vindicate all that has been ſaid by ſacred and profane writers of their beauty, ſtrength, fertility, and population. Even Paleſtine and Judæa, the moſt deſpicable at preſent of all thoſe countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own ſoil. The Turks ſeem particularly fond of repreſenting it in the moſt dreadful colours, and have formed a thouſand falſehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by ſome among ourſelves, have impoſed upon weak Chriſtians *.

Whether thoſe countries of Aſia could ever be reſtored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population, may be a queſtion with ſome; but I apprehend that it would now be impoſſible (let the Turkiſh government be ever ſo beneficent) to divert commerce, without which all attempts of that kind muſt be feeble, from its European channels. There can, however, be no queſtion, that a government leſs brutal and bigoted than that of the Turks, might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people within themſelves. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other ſects of Chriſtians there, partake but too much of the Turkiſh ſtupidity. Though they are not ſuffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horſeback, and are ſubjected to a thouſand indignities and miſeries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppreſſors, yet ſo abject is their ſpirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance, and they are contented under all their mortifications. If they are leſs indolent than their oppreſſors, it is becauſe they muſt otherwiſe ſtarve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, leſt it ſhould be diſcovered to their tyrants, who would conſider it as their own.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe objects are little attended to in the Turkiſh dominions. The nature of their government deſtroys that happy ſecurity which is the mother of arts, induſtry, and commerce; and ſuch is the debaſement of the human mind, when borne down by tyranny and oppreſſion, that all the great advantages of commerce, which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their ſituation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all thoſe countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. They command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the ſouthern ocean, and preſents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey, muſt admire the ſituation of their capital, upon a narrow ſtrait that ſeparates Europe from Aſia, and communicates on the ſouth by the Mediterranean ſea, thereby opening a paſſage to all the European nations as well as the coaſt of Africa. The ſame ſtrait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a paſſage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Ruſſia.

* The late reverend Dr. Shaw, profeſſor of Greek at Oxford, who ſeems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the ſoundeſt philoſophy to make the moſt juſt obſervations, ſays, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts of Syria and Phœnicia, becauſe the ſoil is generally much richer, and, every thing conſidered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenneſs, ſays he, of which ſome authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the country, but from the want of inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare this fine country. Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Paleſtine, ſays Mr. Wood, we have often ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the ſeed". And, after all, whoever ſows, is uncertain whether he ſhall ever reap the harveſt.

In this extenſive empire, where all the commodities neceſſary for the largeſt plan of induſtry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themſelves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and ſoap. The moſt valuable of their commodities, ſuch as ſilk, a variety of drugs, and dying ſtuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely ſmall, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe, the Turks are altogether paſſive. The Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, reſort hither with their commodities, and bring back thoſe of Turkey in the ſame bottoms. They ſeldom attempt any diſtant voyages, and are poſſeſſed of only a few coaſting veſſels in the Aſiatic Turkey; their chief royal navy lying on the ſide of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the beſt ſecurity to their government. The balance of power eſtabliſhed among the princes of Europe, and their jealouſies of one another, ſecure to the Turks the poſſeſſion of countries, which, in the hands of the Ruſſians, or any active ſtate, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, eſpecially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkiſh government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is ſhocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of Sir James Porter, who reſided at the Porte in quality of ambaſſador from his Britannic majeſty, it appears that the rigours of that deſpotic government are conſiderably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary ſucceſſion to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and ſecure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconſiderable expence. Even Jews and Chriſtians may in this manner ſecure the enjoyment of their lands to the lateſt poſterity; and ſo ſacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no inſtance of an attempt on the ſide of the prince to treſpaſs or reverſe it. Neither does the obſervance of this inſtitution altogether depend on the ſuperſtition of the Sultan; he knows that any attempt to violate it would ſhake the foundations of his throne, which is ſolely ſupported by the laws of religion. Were he to treſpaſs theſe laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceaſes to be the lawful ſovereign. The ſame obſervation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was deſigned by Mahomet both as a political code and as a religious ſyſtem. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to ſupport them, are inviolable: and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explain the law where it is obſcure, or extend and complete what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the firſt inſtitutions of the propliet; and no member of the ſociety, however powerful, can tranſgreſs them without cenſure, or violate them without puniſhment.

The Aſiatic Turks, or rather ſubjects of the Turkiſh empire, who hold their poſſeſſions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their ſerving in the field with a particular number of men, think themſelves, while they perform that agreement, almoſt independent of his majeſty, who ſeldom calls for the head or the eſtate of a ſubject, who is not an immediate ſervant of the court. The moſt unhappy ſubjects of the Turkiſh government, are thoſe who approach the higheſt dignities of ſtate, and whoſe fortunes are conſtantly expoſed to ſudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their maſter. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the vizier or prime miniſter; the chiaya, ſecond in power to the vizier; the reis effendi, or ſecre-

ſecretary of ſtate, and the aga of the janizaries, are the moſt conſiderable. Theſe, as well as the mufti, or high prieſt, the baſhaws, or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raiſed, by their application and aſſiduity, from the meaneſt ſtations in life, and are often the children of Tartar or Chriſtian ſlaves taken in war. Tutored in the ſchool of adverſity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thouſand difficulties and dangers, theſe men are generally as diſtinguiſhed for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They poſſeſs all the diſſimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in an humble rank, and they have a farther reaſon for plundering the people, becauſe they are uncertain how long they may poſſeſs the dignities to which they are arrived. The adminiſtration of juſtice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire, muſt be immenſe. The revenues ariſe from the cuſtoms, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Chriſtians, and other ſubjects, not of the Mahometan religion. The rich pay a capitation tax of 30 ſhillings a year; tradeſmen 15 ſhillings, and common labourers 6 ſhillings and ten-pence half-penny. Another branch of the revenue ariſes from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All theſe, however, are trifling, when compared with the vaſt ſums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of ſtate, under the name of *preſents*. Theſe harpies, to indemnify themſelves, as we have already obſerved, exerciſe every ſpecies of oppreſſion that their avarice can ſuggeſt, till, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries and people they are ſent to govern, their riches frequently give riſe to a pretended ſuſpicion of diſloyalty or miſconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is ſeldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accuſers; but without giving him the leaſt opportunity of making a defence, an officer is diſpatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy baſſa receives it with the higheſt reſpect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, ſays, "*The will of God and the emperor be done*," or ſome ſuch expreſſion, teſtifying his entire reſignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the ſilken cord, which the officer has ready in his boſom, and having tied it about his own neck, and ſaid a ſhort prayer, the officer's ſervants throw him on the floor, and, drawing the cord ſtrait, ſoon diſpatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to the court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkiſh empire is of two ſorts: the firſt have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treaſury. Thoſe that have certain lands, amount to about 268,000 troopers, effective men. Beſides theſe, there are alſo certain auxiliary forces raiſed by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and till of late, the Georgians, who are commanded by their reſpective princes. The Khan of the Crim Tartars, before his country was ſubjected to Ruſſia, was obliged to furniſh 100,000 men, and to ſerve in perſon, when the grand ſignior took the field. In every war, beſides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of ſucceeding the officers. Theſe adventurers do not only promiſe themſelves an eſtate if they ſurvive, but are taught, that if they die in war againſt the Chriſtians,

tians, they ſhall go immediately to paradiſe. The forces which receive their pay from the treaſury, are called the ſpahis, or horſe-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janizaries, or foot-guards, who are eſteemed the beſt ſoldiers in the Turkiſh armies, and on them they principally depend in an engagement. Theſe amount to about 25,000 men, who are quartered in and near Conſtantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded ſo far ſometimes as to depoſe the ſultan. They are educated in the ſeraglio, and trained up to the exerciſe of arms from their infancy; and there are not leſs than 100,000 foot ſoldiers, ſcattered over every province of the empire, who procure themſelves to be regiſtered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janizaries, which are very great, being ſubject to no juriſdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are ſwelled with all the pomp of eaſtern magnificence. He is ſtyled by his ſubjects, *the ſhadow of God, a God on earth, brother to the Sun and Moon, Diſpoſer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand ſignior's arms are, vert, a creſcent argent, creſted with a turban charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths who are deſigned for the ſtate, the army, or the navy; but they are ſeldom preferred till about 40 years of age, and they riſe by their merit. They are generally the children of Chriſtian parents, either taken in war, purchaſed, or preſents from their viceroys and governors of diſtant provinces, the moſt beautiful, well made, and ſprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the grand ſignior, before they are ſent to the colleges or ſeminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the ſeraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly ſent as preſents from the provinces and the Greek iſlands, moſt of them the children of Chriſtian parents. The brave prince Heraclius, hath for ſome years paſt aboliſhed the infamous tribute of children of both ſexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the harem, depends on the taſte of the reigning monarch. Sultan Selim had 2000. Achmet had but 300, and the preſent ſultan hath nearly 1600. On their admiſſion they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to ſew and embroider, muſic, dancing, and other accompliſhments, and furniſhed with the richeſt clothes and ornaments. They all ſleep in ſeparate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptreſs. Their chief governeſs is called *Katon Kiaja*, or governeſs of the noble young ladies. There is not one ſervant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation; the laſt that is entered ſerves her who preceded her, and herſelf. Theſe ladies are ſcarcely ever ſuffered to go abroad, except when the grand-ſignior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats, which are incloſed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land they are put into cloſe chariots, and ſignals are made at certain diſtances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converſe by ſigns with great quickneſs, and ſome dwarfs who are exhibited for the diverſion of his majeſty.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more ſouthern and fertile parts of Aſia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vaſt country, known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary

Tartary. One tribe of theſe people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name ſignifies *wanderers*, extended its conqueſts under various leaders, and during ſeveral centuries, from the ſhore of the Caſpian to the ſtrait of the Dardanelles. Being long reſident in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief reſidence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucaſus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the ſultans of Perſia, they ſeized that kingdom, about the year 1037, and ſpread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometaniſm, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were ſometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declenſion of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themſelves maſters of Paleſtine; and the viſiting the Holy City of Jeruſalem, being then part of the Chriſtian exerciſes, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the turks laid the European pilgrims under ſuch heavy contributions, and exerciſed ſuch horrible cruelties upon the Chriſtian inhabitants of the country, as gave riſe to the famous Cruſades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progreſs of the Chriſtians than the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were ſpilt, a Chriſtian kingdom was erected at Jeruſalem under Godfrey of Bouillon, neither he nor his ſucceſſors were poſſeſſed of any real power of maintaining it. The Turks about the year 1299, had extended their dominions on every ſide, and poſſeſſed themſelves, under Othman, of ſome of the fineſt provinces in Aſia, of Nice, and Pruſa in Bithynia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, firſt embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader; the appellation of Turks, as it ſignifies in the original, wanderers, or baniſhed men, being conſidered by them as a term of reproach. Othman, is to be ſtyled the founder of the Turkiſh empire, and was ſucceeded by a race of the moſt warlike princes that are mentioned in hiſtory. About the year 1357, they paſſed the Helleſpont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath ſettled the ſeat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of Janizaries was eſtabliſhed. Such were their conqueſts, that Bajazet I. after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigiſmund, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, in hopes of ſubjecting all the Greek empire. His greatneſs and inſolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was juſt then returned from his eaſtern conqueſts, to declare war againſt him. A deciſive battle was fought between thoſe rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, when Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himſelf taken priſoner, and ſhut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, by declaring war againſt one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever: and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderbeg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long ſiege, Mahomet II. took Conſtantinople in 1453. Thus, after an exiſtence of ten centuries, from its firſt commencement under Conſtantine the Great, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long foreſeen, and was owing to many cauſes; the chief was the total degeneracy

generacy of the Greek emperors themſelves, their courts and families; and the diſlike their ſubjects had to the popes, and the weſtern church, one of the patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romiſh legate, "that he would rather ſee a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Conſtantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conqueſts, did not exterminate, but reduced the nation, to ſubjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks ſtill exiſt, as we have already obſerved, particularly in Conſtantinople, and the neighbouring iſlands, where, though under grievous oppreſſions, they profeſs Chriſtianity under their own patriarchs of Conſtantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jeruſalem; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, who are richer than thoſe of the Greek church, on account of their people being richer and more converſant in trade. It is ſaid that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkiſh government, ſtill preſerve ſomewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors.

The conqueſt of Conſtantinople was followed by the ſubmiſſion of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was ſucceeded by Bajazet II. who carried on war againſt the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Perſians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was harraſſed by family differences, and at laſt, by order of his ſecond ſon, Selim, he was poiſoned by a Jew phyſician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldeſt brother, Achmet, to be ſtrangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Perſians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Perſia, he turned his arms againſt Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damaſcus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was ſucceeded, in 1520, by his ſon, Soliman the Magnificent; who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Chriſtian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that Iſland to Malta, which was given them by the emperor Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Chriſtian powers, and generally ſucceſsful, both by ſea and land. He took Buda the metropolis of Hungary, at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A. D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Auſtria and beſieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He miſcarried alſo in an attempt he made to take the iſle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greateſt prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was ſucceeded, in 1566, by his ſon Selim II. In his reign, the Turkiſh marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Chriſtians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkiſh power, had the blow been purſued by the Chriſtians, eſpecially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa, from the Moors: he was ſucceeded, in 1575, by his ſon Amurath III. who forced the Perſians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewiſe took the important fortreſs of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was ſucceeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is diſtinguiſhed by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be ſtrangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were ſuppoſed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. He was often unſucceſsful in his wars with the Chriſtians, and died of the plague in 1604. Though his ſucceſſor Achmet was beaten by the Perſians, yet he forced the Auſtrians to a treaty in 1606, and to conſent that he

he ſhould keep what he was poſſeſſed of in Hungary. Oſman, a prince of great ſpirit, but no more than ſixteen years of age, being unſucceſsful againſt the Poles, was put to death by the janizaries, whoſe power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV. ſucceeded, in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Perſians. His brother, Ibrahim, ſucceeded him in 1640; a worthleſs inactive prince, and ſtrangled by the janizaries in 1648. His ſucceſſor, Mahomet IV. was excellently well ſerved by his grand vizier, Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been beſieged for thirty years. This conqueſt coſt the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is ſaid, 180,000. A bloody war ſucceeded between the Imperialiſts and the Turks, in which the latter were ſo ſucceſsful, that they laid ſiege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raiſe it with great loſs, by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, and other Chriſtian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, ſhut up in priſon by his ſubjects, and ſucceeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unſucceſsful in their wars during this reign, and that of his brother and ſucceſſor, Achmet II. but Muſtapha II. who mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in perſon, and after ſome briſk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene: and the peace of Carlowitz, between the Imperialiſts and Turks, was concluded in 1709. Soon after, Muſtapha was depoſed, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother Achmet III. mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave ſhelter at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden; and ended a war with the Ruſſians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Ruſſian army was ſurrounded without hope of eſcape, the Czarina inclined the grand vizier to the peace, by a preſent of all the money, plate, and jewels that were in the army, but the Ruſſians delivered up to the Turks, Aſoph, Kaminieck, and Paiganrog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Chriſtian powers. The ſcene of action was tranſlated to Hungary, where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave ſo many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a diſgraceful peace at Paſſarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Perſians, under Kouli Khan, ſucceeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizier, the chief admiral, and ſecretary, which were accordingly ſtruck off; but the ſultan alſo was depoſed, and Mahomet V. advanced to the throne. He was unſucceſsful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at laſt obliged to recogniſe that uſurper as king of Perſia. He was, after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialiſts and Ruſſians; againſt the former he was victorious; but the ſucceſſes of the latter, which threatened Conſtantinople itſelf, forced him to agree to a haſty treaty with the emperor, and after that, another with the Ruſſians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died in 1754.

He was ſucceeded by his brother Oſman III. who died in 1757, and was ſucceeded by his brother, Muſtapha III. who died on the 21ſt of January, 1774, whilſt engaged in an unſucceſsful war with the Ruſſians, of which ſome account has been already given in the hiſtory of that country. In the courſe of this war, a conſiderable Ruſſian fleet was fitted out, which ſet ſail from the Baltic, with a view of ſhaking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February 1770, and ſhaped its courſe for the Morea. Count Orlow, having debarked ſuch land forces as he had with him at Maina, which lies a little to the weſtward of cape Metapan, and about 50 miles to the ſouth weſt of Miſitra, the ancient Sparta; the Mainotes, the deſcendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who ſtill poſſeſſed the country of their anceſtors, under ſubjection to the grand ſignior, immediately flew to their arms in every quarter, and

joined the Ruſſians by thouſands, from their averſion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear of the arrival of the Ruſſians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea ſeemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, and Miſitra, Arcadia, and ſeveral other places, as ſpeedily taken, while the Ruſſian ſhips, that had been ſeparated, or that put into Italy, arrived ſucceſſively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every ſmall detachment ſoon ſwelled into a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time, the Greeks gave the utmoſt looſe to their revenge, and every where ſlaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were ſeized, extended itſelf to the iſlands, where alſo the Turks were maſſacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head againſt the Ruſſians and Greeks in the field: their only protection was found within the fortreſſes. The malcontents had ſo much increaſed ſince the firſt debarkation of the Ruſſians, that they inveſted Napoli de Romania, Corinth, and the caſtle of Patras, with ſeveral other places of leſs note. But whilſt they were employed in theſe enterprizes, an army of thirty thouſand men, compoſed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Seraſkier, Baſha of Boſnia. This Turkiſh general recovered all the northern part of the peninſula, as ſoon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms, or out of their villages, were inſtantly put to death. The Ruſſians were now driven back to their ſhips; but about the ſame time, another Ruſſian ſquadron, commanded by admiral Elphinſtone, arrived from England to reinforce count Orlow's armament. The Turkiſh fleet alſo appeared, and an obſtinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that iſland from Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia. The Turkiſh fleet was conſiderably ſuperior in force, conſiſting of fifteen ſhips of the line, from ſixty to ninety guns, beſides a number of chebeques and gallies, amounting in the whole to near thirty ſail; the Ruſſians had only ten ſhips of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ſhips engaged with great reſolution, while others on both ſides found various cauſes for not approaching ſufficiently near. But Spiritof, a Ruſſian admiral, encountered the captain pacha, in the Sultana, of ninety guns, yard-arm and yard-arm; they fought with the greateſt fury, and at length run ſo cloſe, that they locked themſelves together with grappling-irons and other tackling. In this ſituation, the Ruſſians, by throwing hand-granades from the tops, ſet the Turkiſh ſhip on fire, and as they could not now be diſentangled, both ſhips were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumſtanced, without a poſſibility of ſuccour, they both at length blew up with a moſt terrible exploſion. The commanders and principal officers on both ſides were moſtly ſaved; but the crews were almoſt totally loſt. The dreadful fate of theſe ſhips, as well as the danger to thoſe that were near them, produced a kind of pauſe on both ſides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night without any material advantage on either ſide. When it became dark, the Turkiſh fleet cut their cables, and run into a bay on the coaſt of Natolia: the Ruſſians ſurrounded them thus cloſely pent up, and in the night ſome fire ſhips were ſucceſsfully conveyed among the Turkiſh fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Engliſhman in the Ruſſian ſervice, who, though abandoned by his crew, himſelf directed the operations of the fire-ſhips. The fire took place ſo effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few gallies that were towed off by the Ruſſians, was totally deſtroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a caſtle that protected it, with ſuch

ſuch ſucceſs, that a ſhot having blown up the powder magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbiſh. Thus was there ſcarcely a veſtige left at nine o'clock, of a town, a caſtle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in exiſtence at one the ſame morning.

Some of the principal military tranſactions by land, in the war between Ruſſia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire we ſhall here only add, that after a moſt unfortunate war on the ſide of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Ruſſians, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, a few months after the acceſſion of Achmet IV. The emperor, Muſtapha III. left a ſon, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government in the then critical ſituation of the Turkiſh affairs, Muſtapha appointed his brother, the late emperor, to ſucceed him in the throne: and to this prince, under the ſtrongeſt terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant ſon.

The perſeverance of the Turks, ſupplied by their numerous Aſiatic armies, and their implicit ſubmiſſion to their officers, rather than an excellency in military diſcipline or courage in war, have been the great ſprings of thoſe ſucceſſes which have rendered their empire ſo formidable. The extenſion, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in ſome meaſure owing to the military inſtitution of the Janizaries, a corps originally compoſed of children of ſuch Chriſtian parents as could not pay their taxes. Theſe being collected together, were formed to the exerciſe of arms under the eyes of their officers in the ſeraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and ſo excellent was their diſcipline, that they were deemed to be invincible: and they ſtill continue the flower of the Turkiſh armies; but the Ottoman power is in a declining ſtate. The political ſtate of Europe, and the jealouſies that ſubſiſt among its princes, is now the ſureſt baſis of this empire, and the principal reaſon why the fineſt provinces in the world are ſuffered to remain any longer in the poſſeſſion of theſe haughty infidels.

Notwithſtanding the peace which was eſtabliſhed in 1774, between Ruſſia and the Porte, various ſources of diſcord having been left open, very little tranquillity could ſubſiſt between them. For an account of theſe we refer our readers to our hiſtorical narrative of the former empire. Towards the latter end of the year 1786, the Turks ſeem to have adopted a regular ſyſtem of indirect hoſtility againſt Ruſſia, who was continually making ſuch encroachments, as made the Turks reſolve to tempt again the fortune of war. Scarce had the empreſs returned from the ſplendid journey which ſhe made to Cherſon, before a declaration of Turkiſh hoſtilities was announced at Peterſburg. What part the emperor of Germany would take in this war was not at firſt known. The capriciouſneſs of his character kept the ſpirit of curioſity in ſuſpence for ſome little time, but he ſoon declared himſelf determined to ſupport all the claims which Ruſſia had upon the Porte.

Inſtead of being diſheartened at the formidableneſs of the confederacy that had broken out againſt them, the Turks applied themſelves with redoubled ardour to prepare for reſiſtance. But an event that ſeems greatly to have contributed to the bad ſucceſs, experienced by the creſcent in the year 1789, was the death of Achmet the Fourth, grand ſignior, on the 7th of April.

This prince, if we make ſuitable allowances for the diſadvantages under which he laboured, as a deſpotic monarch and the prejudices of his country, may be allowed to poſſeſs ſome claim to toleration. He filled the throne of Conſtantinople without reflecting diſgrace upon human nature. His temper

appears to have been mild and humane. He not only permitted Selim his nephew, ſon of the late emperor, to live, but even publicly acknowledged him for his ſucceſſor. His reign was not ſtained with ſo many arbitrary murders, as thoſe of his predeceſſors, nor did he think it at all neceſſary that a diſgraced miniſter ſhould part at once with his office and his life. He ſuffered his countrymen to improve by the arts and military diſcipline of Europe. Yſſouf, his prime miniſter, during the three laſt years of his life, though by no means conſiſtently great, muſt be allowed to deſerve our applauſe; and will be better known to poſterity as the patron of the Turkiſh tranſlation of the Encyclopédie, than as the victorious and ſkilful rival of the Auſtrian arms in the Bannat of Tranſylvania.

Achmet died at the unenterprizing age of ſixty-four, and Selim the Third ſucceeded at twenty-eight. In the vigour of youth he thought it neceſſary to diſtinguiſh himſelf by ſomething extraordinary, and at firſt purpoſed to put himſelf at the head of his forces. He was eaſily, as might be expected from his effeminate education, diſſuaded from this raſh and ridiculous project. But he conceived that at leaſt it became him to diſcountenance the miniſters of his predeceſſor, to confound their plans, and reverſe all their proceedings. Theſe miniſters had acquired in ſome degree the confidence of thoſe who acted under their command; and it appeared in the ſequel that the fantaſtic ſplendour of a new and juvenile ſovereign, could not compenſate for the capricious and arbitrary changes with which his acceſſion was accompanied.

In the year 1788 Choczim ſurrendered to the arms of Ruſſia, as will be found in the hiſtory of that country and Ockzacow was taken by ſtorm; on the 12th of September, 1789, the Auſtrian forces ſat down before Belgrade, and with that good fortune which ſeemed almoſt conſtantly to attend their preſent commander marſhal Laudohn. The place, together with its numerous garriſon, ſurrendered, after a vigorous reſiſtance, on the 8th of October. The reſt of the campaign was little elſe than a ſucceſſion of the moſt important ſucceſſes; and a circumſtance that did not little contribute to this, was the ſyſtem adopted by the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, of ſuffering the Turkiſh troops to march out of the ſeveral places they garriſoned without moleſtation. Buchareſt, the capital of Walachia, fell without oppoſition into the hands of prince Cobourg; while Akerman on the Black Sea was reduced by the Ruſſians; and Bender ſurrendered to prince Potemkin, not without ſuſpicion of ſiniſter practices, on the 15th of November. One only check preſented itſelf to the allied arms. The garriſon of Orſova diſplayed the moſt inflexible conſtancy, and marſhal Laudohn was obliged to raiſe the ſiege of this place in the middle of December, after having ſat down before it for a period of ſix weeks. In a ſhort time after the ſiege was renewed, and Orſova was reduced the 16th of April, 1790.

After the reduction of Orſova, the war was carried on with languor on the part of Auſtria; and in the month of June a conference was agreed upon at Reichenbach, at which the miniſters of Pruſſia, Auſtria, England, and the United Provinces aſſiſted, and at which alſo an envoy from Poland was occaſionally preſent. After a negociation, which continued till the 17th of Auguſt, it was agreed that a peace ſhould be concluded between the king of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte; that the baſis of this treaty ſhould be a general ſurrender of all the conqueſts made by the former, retaining only Choczim as a ſecurity till the Porte ſhould accede to the terms of the agreement, when it was alſo to be reſtored. On the other hand, the king of Pruſſia gave up the Belgic provinces, and even promiſed his aſſiſtance in reducing them to the Auſtrian dominions.

The king of Pruſſia was leſs ſucceſsful in his mediation with Ruſſia. Catherine

therine had not, like Leopold, an imperial crown at ſtake, which, unſubſtantial as it is, has always its charms with thoſe who are educated in the habitual adoration of rank and dignities. Her conqueſts alſo, on the ſide of Turkey, were too important to be eaſily relinquiſhed; and ſhe conſidered her dignity attacked by the inſolent ſtyle of Pruſſian mediation. The ſubſtance of her anſwer to the Pruſſian memorial was therefore. "That the empreſs of Ruſſia would make peace and war with whom ſhe pleaſed, without the interference of any foreign power."

The campaign of 1791 opened, on the part of Ruſſia, with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th of April, by prince Gallitzin; and in a ſubſequent victory, on the 12th, by the ſame general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, the Turks loſt not leſs than 4000 men, and upwards of 100 officers beſides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Ruſſian arms experienced a check, by which they loſt about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquiſh the intention of beſieging Brailow. After reinforcing this place, the vizir proceeded to the banks of the Danube near Siliſtria; and by means of a bridge, which he threw acroſs the river, his advanced poſts were enabled to make incurſions on the oppoſite ſide. The ability of the vizir, and the valour of the Turks, were however exerted in vain againſt the diſcipline and experience of European armies. In the month of June, 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under general Kutuſow. On the 3d of July the fortreſs of Anape was taken by general Gudowitſch, and the garriſon, to the amount of 6000 men, made priſoners. This event was followed on the 9th of the ſame month by a ſignal victory which prince Repnin obtained near Maczin over a body of 70,000, the flower of the Turkiſh army. The Ottomans left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and loſt their entire camp equipage, colours, and 30 pieces of cannon. The Ruſſians are ſaid to have loſt only 150 men killed, and between 2 and 300 wounded.

While the war was thus vigorouſly carried on, the mediating powers were not inactive. Great Britain and Pruſſia, in particular, declared themſelves determined to ſupport the balance of Europe, and to force the empreſs to peace upon the baſis of a *ſtatus quo*. Of the interference of Britain in this diſpute, we have treated more largely in another place. To the firſt applications of the Engliſh miniſter, the empreſs anſwered in nearly the ſame terms in which ſhe had before replied to the memorial of Pruſſia—"That the Britiſh court would not be permitted to dictate the terms of peace." In the courſe of the negociation, however, her demands became more moderate; and as the northern powers, and particularly Denmark, began to exert themſelves for the prevention of hoſtilities, ſhe confined her views to the poſſeſſion of Oczakow, with the diſtrict extending from the Bog to the Nieſter, and even then providing for the free navigation of the latter river. The negociation was protracted to the 11th of Auguſt, when at length peace was concluded between the Czarina and the Porte, nearly upon theſe terms;—terms which, conſidering the ill ſucceſs of the war, cannot be accounted very diſadvantageous to the Porte, who have loſt a fortreſs more uſeful for the purpoſe of annoying Ruſſia, than for defending their own territories; but certainly of conſiderable importance to Ruſſia, which, by this ceſſion has ſecured the peaceable enjoyment of the Crimea. Peace was probably more deſirable to Ruſſia at this period as the Poles had taken an opportunity of emancipating themſelves from the ignominious yoke which Ruſſia had impoſed upon them.

It is computed that in the laſt war Turkey loſt 200,000 ſoldiers; Ruſſia 100,000; the Auſtrians, who fell in battle, or in the unhealthy marſhes, are ſuppoſed to exceed 130,000.

Selim

Selim III. grand ſignior, born in 1761; ſucceeded to the throne of Turkey on the death of his uncle, the late ſultan, April 6, 1789.

No event of any conſequence has ſince happened in the Turkiſh empire till the year 1798 when the French among other mad and ambitious projects added to the number the plan of invading Egypt. This unprovoked inſult rouſed the Turkiſh government from the indifference and unconcern with which they had regarded the conteſt of the European powers, and they determined to make vigorous preparations for repelling this attack. A proclamation of war was iſſued Aug. 18 with the uſual ſolemnities. The ſtandard of Mahomet was hoiſted, and the declaration of war diſpatched on the ſame day by couriers through the whole empire. It calls upon all Muſſulmen, in the name of the moſt high and of the prophet, to aſſemble and range themſelves under the banners of the Ottoman empire, in order to ſupport and vindicate its juſt cauſe. Orders have been iſſued for forming immenſe magazines to obviate any embarraſſment which might ariſe from want of proviſions; in ſhort warlike preparations are carried on upon all ſides with vigour and activity. The French miniſter likewiſe together with his legation was ſent to the Caſtle of the ſeven Towers, and ſeveral merchant ſhips in the harbour of Conſtantinople were taken poſſeſſion of.

The grand Signior partook of the joy which the memorable victory of admiral Nelſon occaſioned through all Europe. Immediately upon receiving the news, he directed a ſuperb diamond, taken from one of the imperial turbans to be ſent to the gallant admiral, together with a piece of ſable fur of the fineſt quality. He directed alſo a purſe of 2000 ſequins to be diſtributed among the Britiſh ſeamen wounded at the battle of the Nile. Conſidering the hoſtile diſpoſition of the Grand Signior to the French, the deſtruction of their fleet, and the dangers of the climate, we may venture to predict that very few of them will ever ſee their native country.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 4000	between	50 and 150 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 2400		30 and 72 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT would be deceiving the reader to deſire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers of the extent, limits, and ſituation of theſe vaſt regions. Even the empreſs of Ruſſia and her miniſtry are ignorant of her preciſe limits with the Chineſe, the Perſians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fulleſt extent, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the North, by the Pacific Ocean on the Eaſt, by China, India, Perſia, and the Caſpian Sea, on the South; and by Muſcovy on the Weſt.

Grand diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
North-eaſt diviſion	Kamtſchatka Tartars	Kamtſchatka	
	Jakutſkoi Tartars	Jakutſkoi	
South-eaſt diviſion	Bratſki	Bratſki	
	Thibet and Mogul Tartars	Thibet	
		Poion	985,380
		Kudak	

Grand

Grand diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
North-weſt diviſion	Samoieda —	Mangaſia	
	Oſtiack	Kortſkoi	
South weſt diviſion	Circaſſian and Aſtracan Tartary	Terki	
		Aſtracan	
Middle diviſion	Siberia	Tobolſk	
	Kalmuc Tartary	Bocharia	850,000
	Uſbeck Tartary	Samarcand	339,840

Kamtſchatka is a great peninſula, which extends from North to South about ſeven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four diſtricts, Bolchereſk, Tigilſkaia Krepoſt, Verchnei or Upper Kamtſchatkoi Oſtrog, and Niſhnei or Lower Kamtſchatkoi Oſtrog.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are Caucaſus in Circaſſia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat, ſo contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the ſame mountains, which croſs all Aſia from Mongalia to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

SEAS.] Theſe are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caſpian Sea.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a courſe of two thouſand miles; the Obey, which divides Aſia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtis, Geneſa or Jenſka; the Burrumpooter; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Ruſſian and Chineſe empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this country is very different, by reaſon of its vaſt extent from north to ſouth; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the ſouthern being in the ſame latitude with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and Ruſſian Lapland are moſt uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with ſnow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholeſome marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneſes. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air pure and wholeſome; and Mr. Took obſerves, that its inhabitants in all probability would live to an extreme old age, if they were not ſo much addicted to an immoderate uſe of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almoſt to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radiſhes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but ſcarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit-trees to bear have hitherto been in vain: but there is reaſon to believe that induſtry and patience may at length overcome the rudeneſs of the climate. Currants and ſtrawberries of ſeveral ſorts are ſaid to grow here in as great perfection as in the Engliſh gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in all Siberia. Aſtrachan and the ſouthern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than induſtry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almoſt all the kinds known in Europe, eſpecially grapes, which are reckoned the largeſt and fineſt in the world. The ſummers are very dry; and from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is peſtered, and the ſoil ſometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locuſts. Mr. Bell, who travelled with the Ruſſian ambaſſador to China, repreſents ſome parts of Tartary as deſirable and fertile countries, the graſs growing ſpontaneouſly to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the higheſt in Aſia, and is a part of that elevated tract which gives riſe to the rivers of India and China, and thoſe of Siberia, and other parts of Tartary.

METALS

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is ſaid that Siberia contains mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, jaſper, lapis lazuli, and loadſtones; a ſort of large teeth found here, creates ſome diſpute among the naturaliſts, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimſical and curious, when poliſhed with art and ſkill. It is now apprehended that they are real, and muſt have been brought there by the waters of a deluge, being found ſeparate as if they had been ſcattered by the waves, covered with a ſtratum of mud, and commonly intermixed with the remains of marine plants and ſimilar ſubſtances: which prove that theſe regions of Siberia were once overwhelmed with the ſea.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe. Their horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and very hardy; as they run wild till they are five or ſix years old, they are generally headſtrong. Near Aſtracan there is a bird called by the Ruſſians baba, of a grey colour, and ſomething larger than a ſwan; he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more: he wades near the edge of a river, and on ſeeing a ſhoal or fry of ſmall fiſhes, ſpreads his wings and drives them to a ſhallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going aſhore, eats them, or carries them to the young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The foreſts of Siberia are well ſtocked with a variety of animals, ſome of which are not to be found in other countries. Theſe ſupply the inhabiants with food and cloaths: and at the ſame time furniſh them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be conſidered as the native country of black foxes, ſables, and ermines, the ſkins of which are here ſuperior to thoſe of any part of the world. Horſes and cattle are in great plenty, and ſold at low prices. The bos grunniens of Linnæus, or grunting ox, which inhabits Tartary and Thibet, hath a tail of uncommon beauty, full and flowing, of a gloſſy and ſilky texture. Theſe tails are a conſiderable article of exportation from Thibet. The Indians faſten ſmall bundles of the hair to a handle which they uſe for fly flaps; the Chineſe dye tufts of it with a beautiful ſcarlet, to decorate their caps, and the Turks employ it as ornaments to their ſtandards, and by ſome erroneouſly called horſetails.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, DIVERSIONS AND CUSTOMS.] We can form no probable gueſs as to the number of inhabitants in Tartary; but from many circumſtances we muſt conclude, that they are far from being proportioned to the extent of their country. They are in general ſtrong made, ſtout men; their faces broad, their noſes flattiſh, their eyes ſmall and black, but very quick; their beards are ſcarcely viſible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots. The beauty of the Circaſſian women is a kind of ſtaple commodity in that country; for parents there make no ſcruple of ſelling their daughters to recruit the ſeraglios of the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They are purchaſed when young, by merchants, and taught ſuch accompliſhments as ſuit their capacities, to render them more valuable againſt the day of ſale. The Tartars are in general a wandering ſort of people: in their peregrinations they ſet out in the ſpring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all its graſs and verdure is eaten up. They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Ruſſians, Perſians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchaſe cloth, ſilks, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except thoſe who make arms. They avoid all labour as the greateſt ſlavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horſes. If they are angry with a perſon, they wiſh he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Ruſſian.

Among

Among themſelves they are very hoſpitable, and wonderfully ſo to the ſtrangers and travellers who confidentially put themſelves under their protection. They are naturally of an eaſy, chearful temper, always diſpoſed to laughter, and ſeldom depreſſed by care or melancholy. There is a ſtrong reſemblance between the northern and independent Tartars, and ſome nations of Canada in North America: particularly, when any of their people are infirm through great age, or ſeized with diſtempers reckoned incurable, they make a ſmall hut for the patient near ſome river, in which they leave him with ſome proviſions, and ſeldom or never return to viſit him. On ſuch occaſions, they ſay they do their parents a good office, in ſending them to a better world. Notwithſtanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, eſpecially towards the ſouth, are tractable, humane, and are ſuſceptible of pious and virtuous ſentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their ſubmiſſion to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has diſtinguiſhed them in all ages. Hiſtory tells us, that Darius king of Perſia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius ſent an ambaſſador to demand where it was they propoſed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for an anſwer, with a ſpirit ſo peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they ſhould give him battle: but when once he was come to the place of their father's monuments, he ſhould then underſtand in what manner the Scythians uſed to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy; they ſeldom appear on foot. They are dexterous in ſhooting at a mark, inſomuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will ſplit a pole with an arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance. The dreſs of the men is very ſimple and fit for action; it generally conſiſts of a ſhort jacket with narrow ſleeves made of deer's ſkin, having the fur outward; trowſers and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half ſunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the ſmoke, and benches round the fire to ſit or lie upon. This ſeems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eaſtward, to the Japaneſe Ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itſelf as it were under ground; and we are told, that ſo ſociable are they in their diſpoſitions, that they make ſubterraneous communications with each other, ſo that they may be ſaid to live in an inviſible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horſe fleſh, eſpecially if it be young, and a little tainted, which make their cabbins extremely nauſeous. Though horſe-fleſh be preferred raw by ſome northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after it has been ſmoked and dried. The Tartars purchaſe their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or ſlave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes the wife's ſon is always preferred to the ſucceſſion. After a wife is turned of forty, ſhe is employed in menial duties as another ſervant, and as ſuch muſt attend the young wives who ſucceed to their places, nor is it uncommon, in ſome of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The deſcendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are ſtill moſt of them idolaters. They conſiſt of many nations, entirely different from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on

by ſome Tartars, and ſuch as are converted to Chriſtianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increaſed ſince it became a Ruſſian province; for the Ruſſians have founded therein a number of towns, fortreſſes, and villages. Notwithſtanding which, it preſents but a void and deſert view; ſince, by its extent, it is capable of ſeveral millions more than it at preſent contains. For the manners and cuſtoms of the other Tartars belonging to the Ruſſian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars ſomewhat reſembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours: for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the popiſh religions. Some of them are the groſſeſt idolaters, and worſhip little rude images dreſſed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free when matters do not go according to their own mind. But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet, and Laſſa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are the moſt remarkable, and the moſt worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Dalai Lama, who is not only ſubmitted to, and adored by them, but is alſo the great object of adoration for the various tribes of Heathen Tartars, who roam through the vaſt tract of continent which ſtretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Correa on the ſea of Japan. He is not only the ſovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but as ſuperſtition is ever the ſtrongeſt where it is moſt removed from its object, the more remote Tartars abſolutely regard him as the Deity himſelf. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts to worſhip and make rich offerings at his ſhrine; even the emperor of China, who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgements to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him; and actually entertains at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama deputed as his nuncio from Thibet. The opinion of thoſe who are reputed the moſt orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama ſeems to die, either of old age or of infirmity, his ſoul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is diſcovered again in the body of ſome child, by certain tokens known only to the Lamas or prieſts, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been diſcovered ſome time before by the Tayſhoo Lama, who in authority and ſanctity of character is next to the Grand Lama, and during his minority acts as chief. The Lamas, who form the moſt numerous, as well as the moſt powerful body in the ſtate, have the prieſthood entirely in their hands; and beſides, fill up many monaſtic orders, which are held in great veneration among them. The reſidence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vaſt palace on a mountain near the banks of Burrompooter, about ſeven miles from Lahaſſa. The Engliſh Eaſt India Company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774. The religion of Thibet, though in many reſpects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others it has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and alſo highly reſpect the waters of the Ganges, the ſource of which they believe to be in heaven. The ſuniaſſes, or Indian pilgrims, often viſit Thibet as a holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred in his pay. Beſides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is poſſeſſed of unlimited power throughout his dominions which are very extenſive, and border on Bengal.

Ano-

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamaniſm. The profeſſors of this religious ſect believe in one Supreme God, the Creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his ſight. But they alſo maintain, that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the deſtiny of men, among a great number of ſubaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who nevertheleſs generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot diſpenſe with uſing all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewiſe ſuppoſe, that, for the moſt part, theſe inferior deities abominate and puniſh premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly perſuaded of a future exiſtence; but they have many ſuperſtitious notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are conſidered as beings vaſtly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their ſenſual pleaſure, to people the world, and to look after houſehold affairs; and in conſequence of theſe principles, they are treated with much ſeverity and contempt.

LEARNING.] The reader may be ſurpriſed to find this article among a nation of Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early deſcendants, Aſtracan and the neighbouring countries were the ſeats of learning and politeneſs, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever ſo ſplendid, falls ſhort of that of thoſe princes; and ſome remains of their taſte in architecture are ſtill extant, but in ſpots ſo deſolate, that they are almoſt inacceſſible. The cultivation of learning was the firſt care of the prince, and generally alſo committed to the care of his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Perſian and Arabic tongues; and their hiſtories, many of which are ſtill extant in manuſcript, carry with them the ſtrongeſt marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] Theſe are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the above mentioned great conquerors and their ſucceſſors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently met with, which heretofore either ſurrounded ſmall towns, now quite demoliſhed, or were deſigned for the defence of camps, forts or caſtles, the veſtiges of which are often to be diſcovered upon the ſpot, as well as other traces of decayed importance. Many of them are in tolerable preſervation, and make ſome figure even at preſent. The Slabode, or Tartarian ſuburb of Kaſimof, on the Oka, ſeems to have been the reſidence of ſome khan. In the midſt of the ruins of that city is a round and elevated tower, called in their language *Miſquir*, a ſort of temple, or building dedicated to devotion. Here are alſo the remains of the walls of a palace; and in one of the maſarets or burial places, is a very conſiderable mauſoleum: all which edifices are built of hewn ſtone and bricks. From an Arabic inſcription we learn, that the khan of Schagali was buried there in the 962d year of the hegira, or the 1520th of the Chriſtian æra. Near mount Caucaſus are ſtill very conſiderable remains of Madſchar, a celebrated city of former times. In the environs of Aſtracan the ruins of ancient Aſtracan are very viſible; and the rubbiſh and ramparts of another reſpectable town ſtill exiſt near Tzaritzin, on the left ſhore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itſelf into the abovementioned river, are many ſuperb monuments of the ancient city Bulgaria, conſiſting of towers, moſques, houſes, and ſepulchres, all built of ſtone or

brick. The oldeſt epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the moſt modern at leaſt four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tſcheremtſcham, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins ſomewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are thoſe of Boulymer, an ancient and very conſiderable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the ſmall town of Bilyairſk. In the fortreſs of Kaſan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are ſo broad, that they ſerve at preſent for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn ſtone. Aſcending the river Kaſanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the ſtrong ramparts of the old Kaſan. Near the Oufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inſcriptions, and ſeveral ſepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are ſtill ſeen about Toboliſk upon the Irtiſch. The lofty walls of Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Oural are the ditches of the city Saratſchik. Not to mention a great number of other cities and ruins of Siberia; and eſpecially all thoſe that are to be met with in the deſert of Kirguis, which abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and ſilver coins have likewiſe been found, with ſeveral manuſcripts neatly written, which have been carried to Peterſburg. In 1720, there were found in Calmuc Tartary a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, ſome urns, lamps, and ear-rings, an equeſtrian ſtatue, an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women ſeated on thrones, and a roll of manuſcripts, which was ſent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, and proved to be the language of Thibet. The quantity of gold ornaments found in the tombs of Siberia; and of elegant workmanſhip, as bracelets, collars in the ſhape of ſerpents, vaſes, crowns, rings, bucklers, ſabres, figures of animals, Tartar idols, &c. is ſurpriſing. It is ſuppoſed that theſe burial places were made about the time of Zinghis Khan, and that the ſuperſtition prevailed in thoſe parts, of departed ſouls following the ſame kind of life they did in this world, and therefore on the death of a prince, they ſacrificed his favourite wife, &c. and buried with him his arms and other valuable things.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of theſe we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be ſaid to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence againſt an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding diviſions of this country, merit notice. Toboliſk and Aſtrachan are conſiderable cities, the firſt containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns, have alſo lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Ruſſian government.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the hiſtory of Tartary, their chief traffic conſiſting in cattle, fine ox tails, ſkins, beavers, rhubarb, muſk, and fiſh. The Aſtracans, notwithſtanding their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a conſiderable traffic into Perſia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and ſome European manufactures. The Bucharians alſo are a very commercial people: their caravans travel through a great part of Aſia, and traffick with Thibet, China, India, Perſia, and Ruſſia. Their principal marts are Tomſk and Orenburg. Gold duſt is often found in the ſand of the rivers of Bucharia.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name

name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furniſhed thoſe amazing numbers, who, under various names, deſtroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and thoſe fine provinces, where learning and the arts reſided, are now ſcenes of horror and barbarity. This muſt have been owing to the dreadful maſſacres made among the nations by the two above mentioned conquerors and their deſcendants; for nothing is more common in their hiſtories, than their putting to the ſword three or four hundred thouſand people in a few days.

The country of Uſbec Tartary was once the ſeat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country, but the favourite reſidence of Zingis, or Jenghis Khan and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the ſpoils of India and the eaſtern world. But ſome authors have abſurdly queſtioned the veracity of the hiſtorians of theſe great conquerors, though it be better eſtabliſhed than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The ſame may be ſaid of Tamerlane, whoſe memory has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan: his defeat of the Turkiſh emperor Bajazet, hath been noticed in the hiſtory of that nation, and great were his conqueſts. His deſcent is claimed not only by all the Khans and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indoſtan himſelf. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharia, and it is ſituated in the latitude of 39 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles diſtant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

The preſent inhabitants of this immenſe common compoſe innumerable tribes, who range at pleaſure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by ſeparate Khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power over ſtrangers as well as natives, and who can bring into the field from 20 to 100,000 horſemen. Their chief reſidence is a kind of military ſtation, which is moved and ſhifted according to the chance of war and other occaſions. When the vaſt dominions of Zingis Khan fell to pieces under his ſucceſſors in the 16th century the Mogul and Tartar hordes who had formed one empire, again ſeparated, and have ſince continued diſtinct. They are bounded on every ſide by the Ruſſian, the Chineſe, the Mogul, the Perſian, or the Turkiſh empires; each of whom are puſhing on their conqueſts in this extenſive, and in ſome places fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgment of their dependency upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendſhip of theſe barbarians is of the utmoſt conſequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency: and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chineſe.

The method of carrying on war, by waſting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practiſed by all of them from the Danube eaſtward. This circumſtance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who muſt thereby be deprived of all ſubſiſtence; while the Tartars, having always many ſpare horſes to kill and eat, are at no loſs for proviſions.

THE

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1450 Breadth 1260	between	20 and 42 north latitude. 98 and 123 east longitude.	1,105,000
	CHINESE TARTARY.		644,000

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Tartary and an amazing ſtone-wall of five hundred leagues in length, on the North; by the Pacific ocean, which divides it from North America, on the Eaſt; by the Chineſian ſea, South; and by Tonquin and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Ruſſia, on the Weſt.

DIVISIONS.] The great diviſion of this empire, according to the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory, and the abbé Groſier, in his general deſcription of China, is into fifteen provinces (excluſive of that of Lyautong, which is ſituated without the Great Wall, though under the ſame dominion); each of which might, for their largeneſs, fertility, populouſneſs, and opulence, paſs for ſo many diſtinct kingdoms. We give the following account of the diviſion of this empire from the beſt authority:

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Pe-tcheli	Pekin
Kiang-nan	Kiang-ning-fou
Kiang-ſi	Nan-tchang-fou
Fo-kien	Fou-tcheou-fou
Tche-kiang	Hang-tcheou-fou
Hou-quang	Vou-tchang-fou
Ho-nan	Cai-fong-fou
Chang-tong	Tſi-nan-fou
Chan-ſi	Tai-yuen-fou
Chen-ſi	Si-ngan-fou
Se-tchuen	Tching-tou-fou
Quang-tong	Canton
Quang-ſi	Quei-ling-fou
Yun-nan	Yionan-fou
Koei-teheou	Koei-yang

States tributary to CHINA.

Corea
Tong-king
Cochin China
Thibet
The country of Ha-mil
The iſles of Lieon-kieou

CHINESE TARTARY.

This is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the eaſt by the Gulf of Kamtſchatka and the Eaſtern ſea; on the ſouth by China; and on the weſt by the country of the Kalmouks, who are eſtabliſhed between the Caſpian ſea, and Caſghar.

EASTERN CHINESE TARTARY.

Extends north and ſouth from the 41ſt. to the 55th degree of north latitude, and eaſt and weſt from about the 137th degree of longitude to the eaſtern ſea. It is bounded on the north by Siberia, on the South by the Gulf of Lea-tong and Corea; on the eaſt by the eaſtern ſea; and on the weſt by the country of the Moguls. The country is divided into three grand departments.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Chen-yang	Mougdon
Kirin	Kirin
Tritcicar	Tritcicar

But

But it is neceſſary to acquaint the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jeſuits, and other religious ſent thither by the pope, but whoſe miſſions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of thoſe fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are juſtly to be ſuſpected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing only by magnifying their own labours and ſucceſſes, as well as the importance of the Chineſe empire. If their accounts are to be received with much caution, much more are thoſe of ſucceeding travellers, who have it ſcarce in their power to enter the empire farther than what is abſolutely neceſſary for the purpoſes of trade. On account of this want of information, therefore, which is acknowledged even by M. Groſier, the lateſt writer on the ſubject, we muſt be much more brief in our deſcription of this celebrated empire, than otherwiſe we would wiſh to be.

NAME.] It is probably owing to a Chineſe word, ſignifying middle, from a notion the natives had that their country lay in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe Tartary; the Crocceus, or Whamboo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River, and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in ſome places boiled to make it fit for uſe.

BAYS.] The chief are thoſe of Nankin and the Canton.

CANALS.] Theſe are ſufficient to entitle the ancient Chineſe to the character of a moſt wiſe and induſtrious people. The commodiouſneſs and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn ſtone on the ſides, and they are ſo deep, that they carry large veſſels, and ſometimes they extend above 1000 miles in length. Thoſe veſſels are fitted up for all the conveniencies of life; and it has been thought by ſome, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges of an amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſels ſometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perſeverance, for the ſafety of the paſſengers, in caſe a canal is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from the mountains. Theſe canals, and the variety that is ſeen upon their borders, renders China delightful in a very high degree, as well as fertile, in places that are not ſo by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the induſtry of the Chineſe, that they are not encumbered with foreſts or wood, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They ſuffer, however, none to grow but for ornament, and uſe, or on the ſides of mountains, from whence the trees when cut down can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the ſituation of the places. Towards the north it is ſharp, in the middle mild and in the ſouth hot. The ſoil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can miniſter to the neceſſities, conveniencies, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almoſt beyond deſcription. The rare trees, and aromatic productions either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and ſome are

peculiar to itſelf; but even a catalogue of them would form a little volume. Some however, muſt be mentioned.

The tallow-tree has a ſhort trunk, a ſmooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, ſhaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil, ſerves the natives as candles; but they ſmell ſtrong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are ſome which yield a kind of flour; ſome partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of ſome is poiſonous, but affords the fineſt varniſh in the world. After all that can be ſaid of theſe, and many other beautiful and uſeful trees, the Chineſe, notwithſtanding their induſtry, are ſo wedded to their ancient cuſtoms, that they are very little, if at all meliorated by cultivation. The ſame may be ſaid of their richeſt fruits, which in general, are far from being ſo delicious as thoſe of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chineſe never practiſing grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw-ſilk, which ſo much abounds in China, and above all the *tea plant* or ſhrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent its luxuriancy. Notwithſtanding our long intercourſe with China, writers are ſtill divided about the different ſpecies and culture of this plant. It is generally thought that the green and bohea grows on the ſame ſhrub, but that the latter admits of ſome kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, ſinglo, and the like, are occaſioned probably by the nature of the ſoils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant ſeems to be very ſimple; and it is certain that ſome kinds are of a much higher and more delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the fineſt, which is called the flower of the tea, is imported over land to Ruſſia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greateſt is between the bohea and the green.

It is ſuppoſed that the Portugueſe had the uſe of tea long before the Engliſh, but it was introduced among the latter before the Reſtoration, as mention of it is made in the firſt act of parliament, that ſettled the exciſe on the king for life, in 1660. Catharine of Liſbon, wife to Charles II. rendered the uſe of it common at his court. The *ginſeng*, ſo famous among the Chineſe as the univerſal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in Britiſh America. When brought to Europe, it is little diſtinguiſhed for its healing qualities; and this inſtance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginſeng, however, is a native of the Chineſe Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe ſome naturaliſts) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itſelf, but we know of no extraordinary quality it poſſeſſes. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chineſe government is, that of not introducing a ſuperabundancy of gold and ſilver, for fear of hurting induſtry. Their gold-mines, therefore, are but ſlightly worked, and the currency of that metal is ſupplied by the grains the people pick up in the ſand of rivers and mountains. The ſilver ſpecie is furniſhed from the mines of Honan.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] According to ſome accounts, there are fifty-eight millions of inhabitants in China, and all between twenty and ſixty

ſixty years of age, pay an annual tax. Notwithſtanding the induſtry of the people, their amazing population frequently occaſions a dearth. Parents, who cannot ſupport their female children are allowed to caſt them into the river; but they faſten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compaſſionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to ſave them from death. The Chineſe, in their perſons, are middle-ſized, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, their noſes rather ſhort. The Chineſe have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers leaving a few ſtraggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion towards the north is fair, towards the ſouth ſwarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handſomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much expoſed to the ſun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to ſhew that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump, roſy lips, black hair, regular features and a delicate though florid complexion. The ſmallneſs of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no ſwathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accompliſhment, ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invited by the ancient Chineſe, to palliate their jealouſy.

To enter into all the ſtarch ridiculous formalities of the Chineſe, eſpecially of their men of quality, when paying or receiving viſits, would give little information, and leſs amuſement, and very probably come too late, as the manners of the Chineſe, ſince they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that the legiſlators of China, looking upon ſubmiſſion and ſubordination as the corner ſtones of all ſociety, deviſed thoſe outward marks of reſpect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the teſt of duty and reſpect from inferiors to ſuperiors; and their capital maxim was, that the man, who was deficient in civility, was void of good ſenſe.

The Chineſe in general have been repreſented, as the moſt diſhoneſt, low, thieving ſet in the world: employing their natural quickneſs only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, eſpecially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great eaſe, particularly the Engliſh; but they obſerve that none but a Chineſe can cheat a Chineſe. They are fond of law diſputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocriſy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practiſe the moſt avowed bribery, and the loweſt meanneſſes to obtain preferment. It ſhould, however, be remembered, that ſome of the late accounts of China have been drawn up by thoſe who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire but the ſea-port towns; in which they probably met with many knaviſh and deſigning people. But it ſeems not juſt to attempt to characteriſe a great nation by a few inſtances of this kind, though well atteſted; and we appear not to be ſufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China to form an accurate judgment of the manners and character of the inhabitants. By ſome of the Jeſuit miſſionaries the Chineſe ſeem to have been too much extolled, and by later writers too much degraded.

DRESS.] This varies according to the diſtinction of ranks, and is intirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours that diſtinguiſh

the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarins are intitled to wear ſattin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony: in general, they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dreſs is always compoſed of plain cotton cloth. The men wear caps on their heads of the faſhion of a bell; thoſe of quality are ornamented with jewels. The reſt of their dreſs is eaſy and looſe, conſiſting of a veſt and ſaſh, a coat or gown thrown over them, ſilk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the ſouth wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and ſometimes it is diſhevelled. Their dreſs differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large open ſleeves. The dreſs both of men and women, varies, however, according to the climate.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never ſee each other in China till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greateſt ſcandal is to bring females into the world: and if a woman of poor family happens to have three or four girls ſucceſſively, it not unfrequently happens that ſhe will expoſe them on the high roads, or caſt them into a river.

FUNERALS.] People of note cauſe their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life-time. No perſons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpſe ſuffered to be brought into a town, if a perſon died in the country. Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather, before which they frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chineſe language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one ſyllable: but then each word is pronounced with ſuch various modulations, and each with a different meaning that it becomes more copious than could be eaſily imagined, and enables them to expreſs themſelves very well on the common occaſions of life. The miſſionaries, who adapt the European characters, as well as they can, to the expreſſion of Chineſe words, have deviſed eleven different, and ſome of them very compounded, marks and aſpirations, to ſignify the various modulations, elevations, and depreſſions of the voice, which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral meanings of the ſame monoſyllable. The Chineſe oral language being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and, therefore, their literature is all compriſed in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about eighty thouſand. This language being wholly addreſſed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as ſpoken, the latter hath ſtill continued in its original rude, uncultivated ſtate, while the former has received all poſſible improvement.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chineſe is peculiar to themſelves, they have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting, and yet in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true ſublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickneſs, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for aſtronomical obſervations; and the metaphyſical learning, which exiſted among them, was only known to their philoſophers; but

but even the arts introduced by the Jeſuits were of very ſhort duration among them, and laſted very little longer than the reign of Canghi, who was contemporary with our Charles II. nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally ſaid, that they underſtood printing, before the Europeans; but that can only be applied to block printing, for the fuſile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chineſe, however, had almanacks, which were ſtamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was diſcovered in Europe.

The difficulty of maſtering and retaining ſuch a number of arbitrary marks and characters, as there are in what may be called the Chineſe written language, greatly retards the progreſs of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with ſuch honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and purſue it. The literati are reverenced as another ſpecies, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever ſo mean and low, they become mandarins of the higheſt rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly ſink into poverty and obſcurity, if they neglect thoſe ſtudies which raiſed their fathers. It has been obſerved, that there is no nation in the world where the firſt honours of the ſtate lie ſo open to the loweſt of the people, and where there is leſs of hereditary greatneſs. The Chineſe range all their works of literature into four claſſes. The firſt is the claſs of *King*, or the ſacred books, which contain the principles of the Chineſe religion, morality, and government, and ſeveral curious and obſcure records, relative to theſe important ſubjects. Hiſtory forms a claſs apart: yet, in this firſt claſs, there are placed ſome hiſtorical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others, the *Tekun tſicou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of *Low*, the native country of that illuſtrious ſage. The ſecond claſs is that of the *Su*, or *Che*, that is, of hiſtory and the hiſtorians. The third claſs, called *Tſu* or *Tſe*, comprehends philoſophy and the philoſophers, and contains all the works of the Chineſe literati, the productions alſo of foreign ſects and religions, which the Chineſe conſider only in the light of philoſophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, aſtronomy, phyſic, military ſcience, the art of divination, agriculture and the arts and ſciences in general. The fourth is called *Teie*, or *Miſcellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chineſe, their pieces of eloquence, their ſongs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chineſe literati in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themſelves leſs to the ſtudy of nature, and to the reſearches of natural philoſophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical ſcience of life, and internal polity and manners. It is ſaid, that it was not before the dynaſty of the Song in the 10th and 11th centuries after Chriſt, that the Chineſe philoſophers formed hypotheſes concerning the natural ſyſtem of the univerſe, and entered into diſcuſſions of a ſcholaſtic kind, in conſequence, perhaps, of the intercourſe they had long kept up with the Arabians, who ſtudied with ardour the works of Ariſtotle. And ſince the Chineſe have begun to pay ſome attention to natural philoſophy, their progreſs in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is juſtly claimed by the Chineſe, who made uſe of it againſt Zinghis Khan and Tamerlane. They ſeem to have known nothing of ſmall fire arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their induſtry in their manufactures of

ſtuffs, porcelane, japanning and the like ſedentary trades is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raiſing gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curioſities preſent themſelves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanos, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Lineſung is ſaid ſometimes to make ſo furious a diſcharge of fire and aſhes, as to occaſion a tempeſt in the air; and ſome of their lakes are ſaid to petrify fiſhes when put into them. The Great Wall ſeparating China from Tartary, to prevent the incurſions of the Tartars, is ſuppoſed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and vallies, and reaches, according to M. Greſier, from the province of the Shenſi to the Whang-Hay, or Yellow Sea. It is in moſt places built of brick and mortar, which is ſo well tempered, that though it has ſtood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of ſtone raiſed in the ſea, in the province of Petcheli, to the eaſt of Peking, and almoſt in the ſame latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraſſed and caſed with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. P. Regis, and the other gentleman, who took a map of theſe provinces, often ſtretched a line on the top, to meaſure the baſis of triangles, and to take diſtant points with an inſtrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or ſix horſemen to travel abreaſt with eaſe. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains preſent on their tops, temples, monaſteries, and other edifices. Some part, however, of what we are told concerning the cavities in theſe mountains, ſeems to be fabulous. The Chineſe bridges cannot be ſufficiently admired. They are built ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly chained together, yet ſo as to be parted, and to let the veſſels paſs that ſail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and conſiſt only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long, and 500 high, though a ſingle arch, and joins two mountains and ſome in the interior parts of the empire are ſaid to be ſtill more ſtupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next ſpecies of artificial curioſities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman ſtyle of architecture, yet they are ſuperb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vaſt labour and expence. They are ſaid in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their ſepulchral monuments made likewiſe a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now ſo common in Europe under the name of pagodas, are vaſt embelliſhments to the face of their country. They ſeem to be conſtructed by a regular order, and all of them are finiſhed with exquiſite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the moſt admired. It is called the Porcelane Tower, becauſe it is lined with Chineſe tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the diſagreeable taſte in which they are built, for their capaciouſneſs, their whimſical ornaments, and the uglineſs of the idols they contain. The Chineſe are remarkably fond of bells, which gave name to one of their principal feſtivals. A bell of Peking weighs 120,000 pounds, but its ſound is ſaid to be diſagreeable. The laſt curioſity I ſhall mention, is their fireworks, which in China exceed thoſe of all other nations. In ſhort, every pro-

province in China is a ſcene of curioſities, their buildings, except the pagodas, being confined to no order, and ſuſceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleaſing elegance, not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and preſent a diverſity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] Little can be ſaid of theſe more than that ſome of them are immenſe, and there is great reaſon to believe their population is much exaggerated. The empire is ſaid to contain 4,400 walled cities; the chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary reſidence of the emperors, is ſituated in a very fertile plain, 20 leagues diſtant from the Great Wall. It is an oblong ſquare, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, becauſe the houſes were given to the Tartars when the preſent family came to the throne; and they refuſing to ſuffer the Chineſe to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a ſhort time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, ſix leagues in compaſs. The walls and gates of Peking are of the ſurpriſing height of fifty cubits, ſo that they hide the whole city; and are ſo broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horſeback; for there are ſlopes within the city of conſiderable length, by which horſemen may aſcend the walls; and in ſeveral places there are houſes built for the guards. The gates, which are nine in number are neither embelliſhed with ſtatues, nor other carving, all their beauty conſiſting in their prodigious height, which at a diſtance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the reſt with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Moſt of the ſtreets are built in a direct line; the largeſt are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The ſhops where they ſell ſilks and china-ware generally take up the whole ſtreet, and afford a very agreeable proſpect. Each ſhop-keeper places before his ſhop, on a ſmall kind of pedeſtal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varniſhed, and often gilt, on which are written in large characters the names of the ſeveral commodities he ſells. Theſe being placed on each ſide of the ſtreet, at nearly an equal diſtance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houſes are poorly built in the front, and very low, moſt of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one ſtory above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the moſt remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not conſiſt ſo much in the nobleneſs and elegance of the architecture, as the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly diſpoſed; for within the walls are not only the emperor's houſe, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houſes of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill-contrived. F. Attiret, a French Jeſuit, who was indulged with a ſight of the palace and gardens, ſays, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the building ſhines with gilding, paint, and varniſh, while the inſide is ſet off and furniſhed with every thing that is moſt beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raiſed, at proper diſtances, artificial mountains, from 20 to 60 feet high, which form a number of ſmall vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks ſail on theſe pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are ſaid to have any reſemblance to each other; which diverſity produces

duces a very pleaſing effect. Every valley has its houſe of pleaſure, large enough to lodge one of our greateſt lords in Europe with all his retinue: many of theſe houſes are built with cedar, brought at a vaſt expence, the diſtance of 500 leagues. Of theſe palaces, or houſes of pleaſure, there are more than 200 in this vaſt encloſure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky iſland, on which is built a palace, containing more than an hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent ſtructure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly ſuch as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with ruſtic pieces of rock, diſpoſed with ſuch art, as exactly to reſemble the wildneſs of nature.

The city of Peking is computed to contain two millions of inhabitants, though Nanking is ſaid to exceed it both in extent and population. But Canton is the greateſt port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, with very pleaſant walks around it. From the top of ſome adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine proſpect of the country. It is beautifully interſperſed with mountains, little hills, and vallies, all green; and theſe again pleaſantly diverſified with ſmall towns, villages, high towers, temples, the ſeats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and ſmall branches from the river Ta; on which are numberleſs boats and junks, ſailing different ways through the moſt fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by ſeveral iron gates, and within-ſide of each there is a guard-houſe. The ſtreets of Canton are very ſtraight, but generally narrow, and paved with flag ſtones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well ſtocked with images. The ſtreets of Canton are ſo crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any faſhion is ſeldom to be ſeen, unleſs by chance when coming out of their chairs. There are great numbers of market places for fiſh, fleſh, poultry, vegetables and all kinds of proviſions, which are ſold very cheap. There are many private walks about the ſkirts of the town, where thoſe of the better ſort have their houſes which are very little frequented by Europeans, whoſe buſineſs lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only ſhops and warehouſes. Few of the Chineſe traders of any ſubſtance keep their families in the houſe where they do buſineſs, but either in the city, in the more remote ſuburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all ſuch a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the ſtreets, but in ſhops and places of public buſineſs, nor do any of their windows look towards thoſe of their neighbours. The ſhops of thoſe that deal in ſilk are very neat, make a fine ſhow, and are all in one place; for tradeſmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the ſame ſtreet. It is computed that there are in this city, and its ſuburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading veſſels lying before the city.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is ſo happily ſituated, and produces ſuch a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be ſaid to be the native land of induſtry; but it is an induſtry without taſte or elegance, though carried on with great art and neatneſs. They make paper of the bark of bamboo, and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink, for the uſe of drawing, is well known in England, and is ſaid to be made of oil and lampblack. I have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they ſtill do by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earth-

earthen ware, generally known by the name of China, was long a ſecret in Europe, and brought immenſe ſums to that country. The ancients knew and eſteemed it highly under the name of porcelain, but it was of much better fabrick than the modern. Though the Chineſe affect to keep that manufacture ſtill a ſecret, yet it is well know that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth, and that ſeveral European countries far exceed the Chineſe in manufacturing this commodity *. The Chineſe ſilks are generally plain and flowered gauſes, and they are ſaid to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing ſilk worms was firſt diſcovered. They manufacture ſilks likewiſe of a more durable kind, and their cotton, and other cloths, are famous for furniſhing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for ſuch is the pride and avarice of the Chineſe, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that ſince the diſcovery of the porcelain manufactures, and the vaſt improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chineſe commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This was a moſt inſtructive and entertaining article, before the conqueſt of China by the Tartars; for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chineſe, they obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient diſcipline in many reſpects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chineſe government was patriarchal, almoſt in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the moſt rigorous manner: but, at the ſame time, the emperor was conſidered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of ſtate, were looked upon as his ſubſtitutes, and the degrees of ſubmiſſion which were due from the inferior ranks to the ſuperior, were ſettled and obſerved with the moſt ſcrupulous preciſion, and in a manner that to us ſeems highly ridiculous. The ſimple claim of obedience required great addreſs and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chineſe legiſlators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of myſtical appearances, ſo as to ſtrike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had modes of ſpeaking and writing different from thoſe of other ſubjects, and the people were taught to believe that their princes partook of divinity, ſo that they were ſeldom ſeen, and more ſeldom approached.

Though this ſyſtem preſerved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect that often convulſed, and at laſt proved fatal to the ſtate, becauſe the ſame attention was not paid to the military as to the civil duties. The Chineſe had paſſions like other men, and ſometimes a weak or wicked adminiſtration drove them into arms, and a revolution eaſily ſucceeded, which they juſtified by ſaying, that their ſovereign had ceaſed to be their father. During thoſe commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours the Tartars to their aſſiſtance, and it was thus thoſe barbarians, who had great ſagacity, became acquainted with the weak ſide of their conſtitution, and they availed themſelves ac-

* The Engliſh in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commiſſions which have been received of late from ſeveral princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture ſo generally uſeful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourſelves.

cor-

cordingly, by invading and conquering the empire, and conforming to the Chineſe inſtitutions.

Beſides the great doctrine of the patriarchal obedience, the Chineſe had ſumptuary laws, and regulations for the expences of all degrees of ſubjects, which were very uſeful in preſerving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their inſtitutions likewiſe, the mandarins might remonſtrate to the emperor, but in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner, upon the errors of his government, and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the moſt ſalutary effects. No country in the world is ſo well provided with magiſtrates for the diſcharge of juſtice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China: but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is ſtyled "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

RELIGION.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chineſe worſhipped idols, yet their philoſophers and legiſlators had juſter ſentiments of the Deity, and indulged the people in the worſhip of ſenſible objects, only to make them more ſubmiſſive to government. The Jeſuits made little oppoſition to this when they attempted to convert the Chineſe, and ſuffered their proſelytes to worſhip Tien, pretending that it was no other than the name of God. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chineſe legiſlators, introduced a moſt excellent ſyſtem of morals among the people, and endeavoured to ſupply the want of juſt ideas of a future ſtate, by preſcribing to them the worſhip of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Chriſtianity; but as we know little of their religion but through the Jeſuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous inſtances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chineſe with the Chriſtian religion. Thoſe fathers, it muſt be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progreſs above a century ago in their converſions; but they miſtook the true character of the emperor, who was their patron; for he no ſooner found that they were in fact aſpiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exerciſe of their religion; ſince which time Chriſtianity has made no figure in China.

PUBLIC ROADS.] The ſecurity of travellers, and an eaſy mode of conveyance for paſſengers and merchandize of every kind, are objects to which particular attention ſeems to have been paid by adminiſtration in China. The manner in which the public roads are managed greatly contributed to the former.

Theſe roads are in general very broad; they are paved in all the ſouthern provinces, and ſome of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and paſſages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preſerve them as nearly as poſſible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees, and ſometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a paſſage into croſs roads, that conduct to different villages. On all the great roads covered ſeats are erected at proper diſtances, where the traveller may ſhelter himſelf from the inclemency of the winter, or the exceſſive heats of ſummer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways and even on the croſs roads. The former are very ſpacious, but they are badly ſupplied with proviſions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to ſleep

ſleep on a plain mat. Government requires of thoſe who inhabit them to give lodging only to thoſe who aſk and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets, (ſays Mr. Bell) called poſt-houſes, erected at certain diſtances one from another, with a flag-ſtaff, on which is hoiſted the imperial pendent. Theſe places are guarded by ſoldiers, who run from one poſt to another with great ſpeed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in ſight of one another, and by ſignals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By theſe means the court is informed in the ſpeedieſt manner of whatever diſturbance may happen in the moſt remote part of the empire.

REVENUES.] Theſe are ſaid by ſome to amount to twenty, or, according to the abbé Groſier, to forty-one millions ſterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the uſe of government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and may eaſily be impoſed, as an account of every man's family and ſubſtance is annually enrolled, and very poſſibly may amount to that ſum.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is, at this time, a far more powerful empire, than it was before its conqueſt by the eaſtern Tartars in 1644. This is owing to the conſummate policy of Chun-tchi, the firſt Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary ſubjects to conform themſelves to the Chineſe manners and policy, and the Chineſe to wear the Tartar dreſs and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chineſe were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the ſeat of his government, and the Tartars quietly ſubmitted to a change of their country and condition, which was ſo much in their favour.

This ſecurity, however, of the Chineſe from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at preſent, is the diſuſe of arms. The Chineſe land army is ſaid to conſiſt of more than ſeven hundred thouſand men; but in theſe are comprehended all who are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preſervation of the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force it is compoſed chiefly of the junks we have already mentioned, and other ſmall ſhips, that trade coaſt-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent ſudden deſcents.

A treatiſe on the military art, tranſlated from the Chineſe into the French language, was publiſhed at Paris in 1772, from which it appears that the Chineſe are well verſed in the theory of the art of war: but caution and care, and circumſpection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themſelves.

HISTORY.] The Chineſe pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all meaſure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the Scripture chronology aſſigns the creation of the world. Poan-Kou is ſaid by them to have been the firſt man, and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of their celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Chriſt, 479, hath been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But upon an accurate inveſtigation of this ſubject it appears, that all the Chineſe hiſtorical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Chriſt, are en-

tirely fabulous, compoſed in modern times, unſupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears alſo, that the origin of the Chineſe empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity: and it is certain that the materials for the Chineſe hiſtory are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in 668 volumes, and conſiſt of the pieces that have been compoſed by the tribunal or department of hiſtory, eſtabliſhed in China, for tranſmitting to poſterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and tranſactions of its ſovereigns. It is ſaid that all the facts, which concern the monarchy ſince its foundation, have been depoſited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of times under the inſpection of government, and with all the precautions againſt illuſion or partiality that could be ſuggeſted. Theſe precautions have been carried ſo far, that the hiſtory of the reign of each imperial family, has only been publiſhed after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound ſecret during the dynaſty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is aſſerted, that many of the Chineſe hiſtorians expoſed themſelves to exile, and even to death, rather than diſguiſe the defects and vices of the ſovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoang-ti, at whoſe command the Great Wall was built, in the year 213 before the Chriſtian æra, ordered all the hiſtorical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppoſe his authority, and the changes he propoſed to introduce into the monarchy. Four hundred literati were burnt with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; ſeveral books were concealed, and eſcaped the general ruin. After this period, ſtrict ſearch was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but though much induſtry was employed for the purpoſe, it appears that the authentic hiſtorical ſources of the Chineſe, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Chriſt, are very few, and that they are ſtill in ſmaller number for more remote periods. But notwithſtanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chineſe hiſtory it is ſtill immenſely voluminous, and has been judged by ſome writers ſuperior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a copy is preſerved in the library of the French king. A chronological abridgement of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was publiſhed in the 42d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgement. From theſe materials the abbé Groſier propoſed to publiſh at Paris, in the French language, a General Hiſtory of China, in 12 volumes 4to. ſome of which have been printed, and a ſmaller work in 12 volumes 8vo. by the late Father de Mailla, miſſionary at Peking, hath been juſt concluded and publiſhed.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon ſo copious a ſubject as that of the Chineſe hiſtory; and which, indeed, would be very unintereſting to the generality of European readers. A ſucceſſion of excellent princes, and a duration of domeſtic tranquillity, united legiſlation with philoſophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whoſe hiſtory is wrapped up in myſteries, their Li-Laokum, and above all their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the moſt dreadful effects, in proportion as its conſtitution was pacific, and they were attended with the moſt

moſt bloody exterminations, in ſome provinces; ſo that though the Chineſe empire is hereditary, the imperial ſucceſſion was more than once broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynaſties, or different tribes and families of ſucceſſion, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chineſe, could ſubdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conqueſts they made there. Their celebrated wall proved but a feeble barrier againſt the arms of thoſe famous Tartars. After their invaſions were over, the Chineſe went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthleſs emperor, Tſong-ching, was upon the throne. In the mean while, a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tſe, in the province of Setchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himſelf, as did moſt of his courtiers and women. Ou-ſan-quey, the Chineſe general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refuſed to recogniſe the uſurper, and made a peace with Tſongate, or Chun-tchi, the Manchew prince, who drove the uſurper from the throne, and took poſſeſſion of it himſelf, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himſelf in his authority, and, as has been already mentioned, wiſely incorporated his hereditary ſubjects with the Chineſe, ſo that in effect Tartary became an acquiſition to China. He was ſucceeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the Jeſuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his governments. About the year 1661, the Chineſe, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the iſland of Formoſa, which the latter had taken from the Portugueſe.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which compoſed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the ſettlements which they had under the Ruſſian government on the banks of the Wolga, and the Iaick, at a ſmall diſtance from the Caſpian ſea, and in a vaſt body of fifty thouſand families, they paſſed through the country of the Haſacks: after a march of eight months, in which they ſurmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themſelves as ſubjects to Kien-long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-ſixth year of his reign. He received them graciouſly, furniſhed them with proviſions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and paſturage. The year following there was a ſecond emigration of about thirty thouſand other Tartar families, who alſo quitted the ſettlements which they enjoyed under the Ruſſian government, and ſubmitted to the Chineſe ſceptre. The emperor cauſed the hiſtory of theſe emigrations to be engraven upon ſtone, in four different languages.

With a view to promote a greater degree of ſocial and commercial intercourſe betwixt the countries, in 1792 Lord Macartney was ſent as ambaſſador from Great Britain to China; the embaſſy was peculiarly ſplendid, the preſents ſent to the emperor noble and magnificent, ſuch as were calculated to impreſs the Chineſe with a high opinion, of our ſuperior advancement in ſcience and the arts, and alſo with a view to create a taſte for the elegant productions of Great Britain in that immenſe Empire. A variety of adventitious and adverſe circumſtances contributed in a great meaſure to render abortive the purpoſes of the embaſſy; from the ill ſucceſs of this attempt on the part of Great Britain to be received on terms of mutual friendſhip in this great empire, it appears that a conſiderable period muſt yet elapſe before they relinquiſh the cautious and forbidding policy by which they have always been guided in their intercourſe with foreign nations.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.] THIS vaſt country is ſituated between the 66th and 109th degrees of Eaſt longitude, and between 1 and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded on the North, by the countries of Uſbec Tartary and Thibet; on the South, by the Indian Ocean: on the Eaſt, by China and the Chineſe ſea; and on the Weſt, by Perſia and the Indian ſea.

DIVISION.] I ſhall divide, as others have done, India at large into three greater parts; firſt, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Farther Peninſula; ſecondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly the Peninſula within or on this ſide the Ganges; all of them vaſt, populous, and extended empires. But it is neceſſary, in order to ſave many repetitions, to premiſe an account of ſome particulars that are in common to thoſe numerous nations, which ſhall be extracted from the moſt enlightened of our modern writers who have viſited the country in the ſervice of the Eaſt India Company.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT.] Mr. Orme, an excellent and an authentic hiſtorian, comprehends the two latter diviſions under the title of Indoſtan. The Mahometans (ſays he) who are called Moors, of Indoſtan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about a hundred millions. Above half the empire is ſubject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their deſcent from the old princes of India, and exerciſe all rights of ſovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and obſerving the treaties by which their anceſtors recogniſed his ſuperiority. In other reſpects, the government of Indoſtan is full of wiſe checks upon the overgrowing greatneſs of any ſubject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the adminiſtration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitleſs.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindooſtan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legiſlator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was ſome great and good genius, whoſe beneficence, like that of the pagan legiſlators, led his people and their poſterity to pay him divine honours. The Bramins (for ſo the Gentoo prieſts are called) pretend that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and inſtitutions; and that though the original is loſt, they are ſtill poſſeſſed of a commentary upon it, called the Shahſtah, which is wrote in the Shanſcrite, now a dead language, and known only to the Bramins, who ſtudy it.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine conſiſted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, ſome ſuperior, and ſome inferior to man; and in the immortality of the ſoul, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, which is to conſiſt of a tranſmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-exiſtent ſtate. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempſychoſis took its riſe in India. The neceſſity of inculcating this ſublime, but

but otherwiſe complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Bramins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourſe to ſenſible repreſentations of the Deity and his attributes; ſo that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worſhip of different animals, and various images, and of the moſt hideous figures, either delineated or carved.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The firſt and moſt noble tribe are the Bramins, who alone can officiate in the prieſthood, like the Levites among the Jews. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are ſtrictly prohibited from all menial offices by their laws. The ſecond in order is the Sittri tribe, who, according to their original inſtitution, ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other profeſſions. The third is the tribe of Beiſe, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias or ſhopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial ſervants; and they are incapable of raiſing themſelves to any ſuperior rank. If any one of them ſhould be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his poſterity are for ever ſhut out from the ſociety of every body in the nation, excepting that of the Harri caſt, who are held in utter deteſtation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meaneſt and vileſt offices. This circumſtance renders excommunication ſo dreadful, that any Hindoo will ſuffer the torture, and even death itſelf, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Beſides this diviſion into tribes, the Gentoos are alſo ſubdivided into caſts of ſmall claſſes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of theſe caſts, though ſome have ſuppoſed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the caſts, in a particular city or province, is generally indiſputably decided. The Indian of an inferior would think himſelf honoured by adopting the cuſtoms of a ſuperior caſt; but this would give battle ſooner than not vindicate its prerogatives; the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a ſuperior caſt with reſpect, but the ſuperior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior caſt. Their marriages are circumſcribed by the ſame barriers as the reſt of their intercourſes; and hence, beſides the national phyſiognomy, the members of each caſt preſerve an air of ſtill greater reſemblance to one another. There are ſome caſts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarkable for their uglineſs.

The members of each caſt, ſays Dr. Robertſon, adhere invariably to the profeſſion of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the ſame families have followed, and will always continue to follow, one uniform line of life. To this may be aſcribed that high degree of perfection conſpicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneration for the practices of their anceſtors may check the ſpirit of invention, yet, by adhering to theſe, they acquire ſuch an expertneſs and delicacy of hand, that Europeans, with all the advantages of ſuperior ſcience, and the aid of more complete inſtruments, have never been able to equal the exquiſite execution of their workmanſhip. While this high improvement of their more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the commerce of other nations, the ſeparation of profeſſions in India, and the early diſtribution of the people into claſſes, attached to particular kinds of labour, ſecured ſuch abundance of the more common and uſeful commodities, as not only ſupplied their own wants, but miniſtered to thoſe of the countries around them.

To this early diviſion of the people into caſts, we muſt likewiſe aſcribe a ſtriking peculiarity in the ſtate of India; the permanence of its inſtitutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and is ſtill likely to continue: neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticiſm of its Mahomedan conquerors, nor the power of its European maſters, have effected any conſiderable alteration. The ſame diſtinctions of condition take place, the ſame arrangements in civil and domeſtic ſociety remain, the ſame maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the ſame ſciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the ſame; gold and ſilver have uniformly been carried thither in order to purchaſe the ſame commodities with which it now ſupplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the preſent times, it has always been conſidered and execrated as a gulf which ſwallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows inceſſantly towards it, and from which it never returns *.

All theſe caſts acknowledge the Bramins for their prieſts, and from them derive their belief of the tranſmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themſelves even at the death of a fly, although occaſioned by inadvertence.—But the greater number of caſts are leſs ſcrupulous, and eat, although very ſparingly, both of fiſh and fleſh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice and vegetables, dreſſed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter ſpices, which grow almoſt ſpontaneouſly in their gardens. They eſteem milk the pureſt of foods, becauſe they think it partakes of ſome of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and becauſe they eſteem the cow itſelf almoſt like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happineſs conſiſts in the ſolaces of a domeſtic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indiſpenſable duty in every man, who does not entirely ſeparate himſelf from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion alſo permits them to have ſeveral wives; but they ſeldom have more than one; and it has been obſerved, that their wives are diſtinguiſhed by a decency of demeanour, a ſolicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the moſt civilized countries. The amuſements of the Hindoos conſiſt in going to their pagodas, in aſſiſting at religious ſhews, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies preſcribed to them by the Bramins. Their religion forbids them to quit their own ſhores †; nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have lived in much tranquillity and happineſs, if others had looked on them with the ſame indifference with which they regard the reſt of the world.

The ſoldiers are commonly called Rajah-poots, or perſons deſcended from rajahs, and reſide chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the ſouthern provinces, who are quite black.

* Dr. Robertſon's hiſtorical diſquiſition concerning India, Appendix p. 261, 262.

† The Gentoos are perſuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kiſtna, and Indus, have the ſacred virtue of purifying thoſe who bathe in them, from all pollutions and ſins. This religious idea ſeems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to reſtrain the natives from migrating into diſtant countries: for it is remarkable, that the ſacred rivers are ſo ſituated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of waſhing away their ſins. The Ganges, which riſes in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriza, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcund, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kiſtna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Viſiapore into the interior parts of the Deccan. And the Indus bounding the Guzurat provinces, ſeparates Indoſtan from the dominions of Perſia.

black. Theſe rajah-poots are a robuſt, brave, faithful people, and enter into the ſervice of thoſe who will pay them: but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finiſhed, and they run off the field without any ſtain upon their reputation.

The cuſtom of women burning themſelves, upon the death of their huſbands, ſtill continues to be practiſed, though much leſs frequently than formerly. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniencies, as the Chineſe; and there ſcarcely is an inſtance of a robbery in all Indoſtan, though the diamond merchants travel without defenſive weapons.

RELIGION.] The inſtitutions of religion, publicly eſtabliſhed in all the extenſive countries ſtretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, preſent to view an aſpect nearly ſimilar. They form a regular and complete ſyſtem of ſuperſtition, ſtrengthened and upheld by every thing which can excite the reverence and ſecure the attachment of the people. The temples, conſecrated to their deities, are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the moſt exquiſite works in painting and ſculpture, which the artiſts, higheſt in eſtimation among them, were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their worſhip are pompous and ſplendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in all the tranſactions of common life, but conſtitutes an eſſential part of them. The Brahmins, who, as miniſters of religion, preſide in all its functions, are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be ſacred. They have eſtabliſhed among themſelves a regular hierarchy and gradation of ranks, which by ſecuring ſubordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more abſolute dominion in the minds of the people. This dominion they ſupport by the command of the immenſe revenues, with which the liberality of princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched their pagodas.

It is far from my intention to enter into any minute detail with reſpect to this vaſt and complicated ſyſtem of ſuperſtition. An attempt to enumerate the multitude of deities which are the objects of adoration in India; to deſcribe the ſplendour of worſhip in their pagodas, and the immenſe varieties of their rites and ceremonies: to recount the various attributes and functions which the craft of prieſts, or the credulity of the people, have aſcribed to their divinities; eſpecially if I were to accompany all this with a review of the numerous and often fanciful ſpeculations and theories of learned men on this ſubject, would too much ſwell this part of our work.

The temples or pagodas of the Gentoos are ſtupendous but diſguſtful ſtone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Bramins. To this, however, there are ſome exceptions; for in proportion, ſays Dr. Robertſon, the philoſophical hiſtorian of India, to the progreſs of the different countries of India in opulence and refinement, the ſtructure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings they became highly ornamented fabrics, and, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taſte of the people by whom they were erected. In this highly finiſhed ſtyle there are pagodas of great antiquity in different parts of Indoſtan, particularly in the ſouthern provinces, which were not expoſed to the deſtructive violence of Mahomedan zeal. In order to aſſiſt my readers in forming a proper idea of theſe buildings, I ſhall briefly deſcribe two, of which we have the moſt accurate accounts. The

entry

entry to the pagoda of Chillambrum, near Porto Nova, on the Coromandel coaſt, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, is, by a ſtately gate under a pyramid an hundred and twenty two feet in height, built with large ſtones above forty feet long, and more than five feet ſquare, and all covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immenſe variety of figures neatly executed. The whole ſtructure extends one thouſand three hundred and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine-hundred and thirty ſix in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finiſhed with an elegance entitled to the admiration of the moſt ingenious artiſts.

The pagoda of Seringham, ſuperior in ſanctity to that of Chillambrum, ſurpaſſes it as much in grandeur; and fortunately I can convey a more perfect idea of it, by adopting the words of an elegant and accurate hiſtorian. This pagoda is ſituated about a mile from the weſtern extremity of the iſland of Seringham, formed by the diviſion of the great river Caveri into two channels. "It is compoſed of ſeven ſquare incloſures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. Theſe incloſures are three hundred and fifty feet diſtant from one another, and each has four large gates with a ſquare tower; which are placed, one in the middle of each ſide of the incloſure, and oppoſite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is near four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the ſouth is ornamented with pillars, ſeveral of which are ſingle ſtones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and thoſe which form the roof are ſtill larger; in the inmoſt incloſures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Brahmins live in a ſubordination which knows no reſiſtance, and ſlumber in a voluptuouſneſs which knows no wants *."

If the Bramins are maſters of any uncommon art or ſcience, they frequently turn it to the purpoſes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that they know how to calculate eclipſes; and that judicial aſtrology is ſo prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head aſtrologer being always conſulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewiſe encourage theſe ſuperſtitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo induſtry as belonging to themſelves. Though the Gentoos are entirely paſſive under all their oppreſſions, and by their ſtate of exiſtence, the practice of their religion, and the ſcantineſs of their food, have nothing of that reſentment in their nature that animates the reſt of mankind; yet they are ſuſceptible of avarice, and ſometimes bury their money, and rather than diſcover it, put themſelves to death by poiſon or otherwiſe. This practice, which, it ſeems, is not uncommon, accounts for the vaſt ſcarcity of ſilver that till of late prevailed in Indoſtan.

The reaſons above mentioned account likewiſe for their being leſs under the influence of their paſſions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual uſe of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nouriſhment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their perſons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of the women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are not therefore to wonder at their being ſoon ſtrangers to all perſonal exertion and vigour of mind; and it is with them a frequent ſaying, that it is better to ſit than to walk, to lie down than to ſit, to ſleep than to wake, and death is the beſt of all.

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* Orme's Hiſt. of Milit. Tranſact. of Indoſtan. vol. i. p. 178.

The Mahometans, who in Indoſtan are called Moors, are of Perſian, Turkiſh, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the califs of Bagdad, to invade Indoſtan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They ſettled colonies in ſeveral places, whoſe deſcendants are called Pytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which ſtill ſubſiſts. Thoſe princes being ſtrict Mahometans, received under their protection all that profeſſed the ſame religion, and who being a brave, active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are ſaid to have introduced the diviſion of provinces, over which they appointed ſoubahs; and thoſe provinces, each of which might be ſtyled an empire, were ſubdivided into nabobſhips; each nabob being immediately accountable to his ſoubah, who in proceſs of time became almoſt independent of the emperor, or, as he is called the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vaſt reſort of Perſian and Tartar tribes has likewiſe ſtrengthened the Mahometan government; but it is obſervable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all thoſe adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horſes and their ſwords, degenerated into all eaſtern indolence and ſenſuality.

Of all thoſe tribes, the Mahrattas at preſent make the greateſt figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indoſtan and Perſia. They commonly ſerve on horſeback, and, when well commanded, thay have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active ſpirits, and pay no great reſpect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that the Mahometans or Moors are of ſo deteſtable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and thoſe were among the Tartar and Perſian officers of the army. They are void, we are told, of every principle even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hoſpitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will ſtab him to the heart. But it is probable, that theſe repreſentations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The people of Indoſtan are governed by no written laws; nor is there a lawyer in their whole empire; and their courts of juſtice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan inſtitutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that ſtate even down to the ſubtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each diſtrict. The imperial demeſne lands are thoſe of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his ſucceſſors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are beſtowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the ſubtenants, even of thoſe lands, are indefeaſible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long ſubſiſted, without almoſt the ſemblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was ſhaken, however, after the invaſion of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by ſo great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the ſoubahs and nabobs became abſolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people,

to pay their armies and ſupport their power; ſo that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-maſters, were left to periſh through want. To ſum up the miſery of the inhabitants, thoſe ſoubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themſelves, and ſome even of the Bramins, as the miniſters of their rapaciouſneſs and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever ſince the invaſion of Kouli Khan, Indoſtan, from being a well regulated government, is become a ſcene of mere anarchy or ſtratocracy; every great man protects himſelf in his tyranny by his ſoldiers, whoſe pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private aſſaſſinations and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people, who know they can be in no worſe eſtate, concern themſelves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above cauſes are owing the late ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in Indoſtan. The reader, from this repreſentation, may perceive, all that the Engliſh have acquired in point of territory, has been gained from uſurpers and robbers; and their poſſeſſion of it being guarantied by the preſent lawful emperor, is ſaid to be founded upon the laws and conſtitutions of that country. We are, however, ſorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the ſervants of the Eaſt India Company towards the natives, and not properly puniſhed or checked by the directors, or the Britiſh legiſlature, has in too many inſtances been highly diſhonourable to the Engliſh name, and totally inconſiſtent with that humanity which was formerly our national characteriſtic.

It may be here proper juſt to obſerve, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both ſexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Perſians and Tartars, on account of the fairneſs of their complexion, reſembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane and his great generals.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	2000	between	1 and 30 north latitude.	741,500
Breadth	1000		92 and 109 eaſt longitude.	

BOUNDARIES. THIS peninſula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the North; by China and the Chineſe ſea, on the Eaſt: by the ſame ſea and the ſtraits of Malacca, on the South; and by the Bay of Bengal and the Hither India on the Weſt. The ſpace between Bengal and China, is now called the Province of Mecklus, and other diſtricts ſubject to the king of Ava or Burmah.

Grand diviſ.	Subdiviſ.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north-weſt,	Acham	Chamdara	180,000
	Ava	Ava	
	Aracan	Aracan	

Grand

Grand divif.	Subdivif.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the south-weſt,	Pegu	Pegu, E. lon. 97. N. lat. 17-30.	50,000
	Martaban	Martaban	
	Siam	Siam, E. lon. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18.	170,000
	Malacca	Malacca, E. lon. 101. N. lat. 2-12.	48,000
On the north-eaſt,	Tonquin	Cachao, or Keccio, E. lon. 105. N. lat. 21-30.	112,000
	Laos	Lanchang	59,400
On the ſouth-eaſt,	C. China	Thoanoa	61,900
	Cambodia	Cambodia	60,200
	Chiampa	Padram.	

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was the beſt known to the Perſians. The whole of this peninſula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly ſo to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Authors differ concerning the air of this country, ſome preferring that of the ſouthern, and ſome that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in ſome places moiſt, and conſequently unhealthy. The climate is ſubject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, ſo that the people build their houſes upon high pillars to defend them from floods, and they have no other idea of ſeaſons, but wet and dry. Eaſterly and weſterly *monſoons* (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe run from North to South almoſt the whole length of the country; but the lands near the ſea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon.

RIVERS.] The chief are Sanpoo or Burrampooter, Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava, or the great river *Nou Kian*.

Of theſe the Burrampooter, called Sanpoo, in the upper part of its courſe, is by far the moſt conſiderable. This rival ſiſter of the Ganges iſſues from the ſame mountains that give birth to that river; but taking a contrary, i. e. an eaſterly direction, through Thibet, winds to the ſouth-weſt through Aſſam, and entering Indoſtan, flows to the ſouth, aſſumes the name of Megna, and joins the weſtern branch of the Ganges with an immenſe body of water, equal if not ſuperior to the Ganges itſelf.

Theſe two noble rivers, when they approach the ſea, divide into ſuch a multitude of channels, and receive ſuch a number of navigable ſtreams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to Great Britain, in extent, enjoys by their means the fineſt inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives conſtant employment to 30,000 boatmen. Theſe channels are ſo numerous that very few places in this tract are even in the dry ſeaſon 25 miles from a navigable ſtream; and in the ſeaſon of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertilizes the ſoil to the extent of more than 100 miles *.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The ſtraits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banſac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS.] The ſoil of this peninſula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delightful fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as

* Major Rennel's Memoir, p. 255.

roots and vegetables: alſo ſaltpetre, and the beſt teek timber or Indian oak, which for ſhip building in warm climates is ſuperior to any European oak. It abounds likewiſe in ſilks, elephants, and quadrupeds both domeſtic and wild, that are common in the ſouthern kingdoms of Aſia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the moſt healthful country of all the peninſula. In ſome places, eſpecially towards the north, the inhabitants have ſwellings in their throats, ſaid to be owing to the badneſs of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. The Tonquineſe are excellent mechanics and fair traders; but greatly oppreſſed by their king and great lords. His majeſty engroſſes the trade, and his factors ſell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquineſe are fond of lacker-houſes, which are unwholeſome and poiſonous. The people in the ſouth are a ſavage race, and go almoſt naked, with large ſilver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or ſhell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin China, the two ſexes are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable by their dreſs which reſembles that of the Perſians. The people of quality are fond of Engliſh broad-cloth, red or green: and others wear a dark-coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the beſt countries in Aſia, the inhabitants prefer dog's fleſh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, becauſe the king is ſole proprietor of all the gold and ſilver and other metals found in his kingdom. They live, however, eaſily and comfortably. Almoſt every houſekeeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women; polygamy being practiſed all over India.

It is unqueſtionable, that thoſe Indians, as well as the Chineſe, had the uſe of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally aſcribed to the Azemeſe. The inhabitants of the ſouthern diviſion of this peninſula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious ſuperſtitions that prevail in this peninſula are extremely groſs, yet the people believe in a future ſtate; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and ſuch veſſels of gold and ſilver as they think can be of uſe to them in their future life. The people in this peninſula are commonly very fond of ſhow, and often make an appearance beyond their circumſtances. They are delicate in no part of their dreſs but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are loathſome; for beſides dogs, they eat rats, mice, ſerpents, and ſtinking fiſh. The people of Aracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to conſummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women moſt when in a ſtate of pregnancy. Their treatment of the ſick is ridiculous beyond belief, and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is expoſed on the bank of ſome river, where he is either drowned or devoured by birds or beaſts of prey.

The diverſions common in this country are fiſhing and hunting, the celebrating of feſtivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

LANGUAGE.] The language of the court of Delhi is Perſian, but in this peninſula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already obſerved, interſperſed with other dialects.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Bramins, who are the tribe of the

the prieſthood, deſcend from thoſe Brachmans who are mentioned to su with ſo much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philoſophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their anceſtors, as prieſts, their religious doctrines are ſtill implicitly followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the ſource of all the knowledge which exiſts in Indoſtan. But the utmoſt ſtretch of their mathematical knowledge ſeems to be the calculation of eclipſes. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatiſes on rhetoric; their ideas of muſic, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no aſſiſtance from the knowledge of anatomy, ſince diſſections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Aſiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their hiſtorians very diffuſe and verboſe: but though the manner of eaſtern compoſitions differs from the correct taſte of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Aſiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow obſerves, that in the Shanſcrita, or learned language of the Bramins, which is the grand repoſitory of the religion, philoſophy, and hiſtory of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in proſe, which treat of the ancient Indians and their hiſtory. The ſame writer alſo remarks, that the Shanſcrita records contain accounts of the affairs of the Weſtern Aſia very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have tranſmitted to poſterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally ſo much prejudiced againſt the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicitly relied on.

Mr. Dow obſerves, that the ſmall progreſs, which correctneſs and elegance of ſentiment and diction have made in the Eaſt did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patronized men of letters with more generoſity and reſpect, than the Mahometan emperors of Indoſtan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which muſt aſtoniſh Europeans, but an infallible road for riſing to the firſt offices of the ſtate. The character of the learned was at the ſame time ſo ſacred, that tyrants, who made a paſtime of embruing their hands in the blood of their other ſubjects, not only abſtained from offering violence to men of genius, but ſtood in fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Theſe vary in the different countries of this peninſula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in ſome parts, are obliged to manufacture their ſalt out of aſhes. In all handicraft trades that they underſtand, the people are more induſtrious, and better workmen, than moſt of the Europeans; and in weaving, ſewing, embroidering, and ſome other manufactures, it is ſaid, that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineneſs of their linen, and their ſillagree works in gold and ſilver, are beyond any thing of thoſe kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in ſhort, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been ſo from the earlieſt ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their higheſt materials of luxury. The greateſt ſhare of it, through events foreign to this part of our work, is now

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centered in England, the Dutch, together with the French, having loſt their poſſeſſions in that part of the world; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, RARITIES, AND CITIES. This article is ſo extenſive, that it requires a ſlight review of the kingdoms that form this peninſula. In Azem I have already obſerved, the king is proprietor of all the gold and ſilver; he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul; his capital is Ghergong, or Kirganu. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently ſubject to the kings of Arracan; and that they ſend to the Chineſe gold and ſilk, for which they receive ſilver in return. Arracan lies to the ſouth of Tipra and is governed by twelve princes ſubject to the chief king, who reſides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, ſeven idols caſt in gold, of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious ſtones. Pegu is about 350 Engliſh miles in length, and almoſt the ſame in breadth. In the year 1754. Pegu was reduced to the ſtate of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in Pegu. We know little of the kingdom of Ava. It is ſaid the honours the king aſſumes are next to divine. His ſubjects trade chiefly in muſk and jewels, rubies and ſapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants reſemble thoſe of Pegu. In thoſe kingdoms, and indeed in the greater part of this peninſula, the doctrines of the Grand Lama of Thibet prevail, as well as thoſe of the Bramins.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay; but that is now ſubject to Ava; we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is ſaid to be immenſely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the groſs ſuperſtitions of the Eaſt, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one ſovereign, who like his oriental brethren, is abſolutely deſpotic, and lives in inexpreſſible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the ſlave of his prieſts and miniſters.

The kingdom of Siam has been often deſcribed by miſſionaries and pretended travellers in the moſt romantic terms; and therefore we can pay little other credit to their accounts, farther than that it is a rich and flouriſhing kingdom, and that it approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickneſs and acuteneſs of its inhabitants, very near to the Chineſe. The kingdom of Siam is ſurrounded by high mountains, which, on the eaſt ſide, ſeparate it from the kingdoms of Camboja and Laos; on the weſt, from Pegu; and on the north, from Ava, or, more properly, from Jangoma; on the ſouth it is waſhed by the river Siam, and has the peninſula of Malacca, the north-weſt part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both ſexes are more modeſt than any found in the reſt of this peninſula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are ſimple, and performed by their talapoins, or prieſts, ſprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating ſome prayers. We are told that gold is ſo abundant in this country, that their moſt ponderous images are made of it; and that it is ſeen in vaſt quantities on the outſide of the king's palace. Theſe relations are found, by modern travellers, to be the fictions of French and other miſſionaries; for the country has no mines of gold, their ornaments are either exceſſively thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker that covers wooden or other materials. The government here is extremely deſpotic; even ſervants muſt appear before their maſters in a kneeling poſture; and the mandarins are proſtrate before

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the king. Siam, the capital, is repreſented as a large city, but ſcarcely a fixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which ſtands about 18 leagues to the ſouth of Siam, and 12 miles from the ſea, is the only place towards the coaſt that is fortified with walls, batteries, and braſs cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninſula of Malacca is a large country, and contains ſeveral kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are ſaid to be the real maſters and ſovereigns of the whole peninſula, being in poſſeſſion of the capital (Malacca). The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the pureſt of any ſpoken in all the Indies. We are told by the lateſt travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes, and gums. Some miſſionaries pretend that it is the Golden Cherſoneſus or Peninſula of the ancients, and the inhabitants uſed to meaſure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent ſituation of this country admits of a trade with India; ſo that when it was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richeſt city in the Eaſt, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at preſent, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chineſe. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an induſtrious, ingenious people, is eaſily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whoſe intereſt it is they ſhould never recover from their preſent ſtate of ignorance and ſlavery.

The Engliſh carry on a ſmuggling kind of trade in their country ſhips, from the coaſt of Coromandel and the bay of Bengal to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their ſuperiors, provided they can enrich themſelves.

Cambodia, or Comboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but according to the beſt information, its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about 520 Engliſh miles: and its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a ſpacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the nation, on account of its ſultry air, and the peſtiferous gnats, ſerpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its ſoil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by ſea and land, are much the ſame with the other kingdoms of this vaſt peninſula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they ſay, an excellent remedy for all thoſe diſeaſes that are common to the inhabitants of the Eaſt Indies, is the higheſt luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peaſant; but is very unpalatable and diſagreeable to the Europeans. The ſame barbarous magnificence, the deſpotiſm of their king, and the ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the reſt of the peninſula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China, lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chineſe, and ſeem therefore to be ſomewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the weſtern China, is ſituated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to ſome authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much leſs extenſive in its breadth from eaſt to weſt. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as ſome other ſmaller kingdoms, are ſaid to be tributary to Cochin-China. The manners and religion of the people ſeem to be originally Chineſe; and they are much given to trade. Their king is ſaid

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to be immenſely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the Eaſt Indies; but at the ſame time we are told that this mighty prince, as well as the king of Tonquin, are ſubject to the Chineſe emperor. It is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that all thoſe rich countries were peopled from China, or at leaſt that they had, ſome time or other, been governed by one head, till the mother-empire became ſo large, that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reſerving to itſelf a kind of feudal ſuperiority over them all.

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and little can be added to what has been ſaid, unleſs we adopt the fictions of the popiſh miſſionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquineſe had revolted from the Chineſe, which was attended by a civil war. A compromiſe at laſt took place between the chief of the revolt and the repreſentative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of the Chouah; but that the Bua, or real king, ſhould retain the royal titles, and be permitted ſome inconſiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can ſtir without the permiſſion of the chouah.

The chouah reſides generally in the capital Cachao, which is ſituated near the centre of the kingdom. The Bua's palace is a vaſt ſtructure, and has a fine arſenal. The Engliſh have a very flouriſhing houſe on the north ſide of the city, conveniently fitted up with ſtore-houſes and office-houſes, a noble dining-room, and handſome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The poſſeſſion of rubies, and other precious ſtones of an extraordinary ſize, and even of white and party-coloured elephants, convey among thoſe credulous people a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and has ſometimes occaſioned bloody wars. After all, it muſt be acknowledged, that however dark the accounts we have of thoſe kingdoms may be, yet there is ſufficient evidence to prove, that they are immenſely rich in all the treaſures of nature; but that thoſe advantages are attended with many natural calamities, ſuch as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempeſts, and above all, rapacious and poiſonous animals, which render the poſſeſſion of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

INDIA within the GANGES, or the empire of the GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT, including the Peninſula Weſt of the Ganges.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 Breadth 1500	between	7 and 40 north latitude. 66 and 92 eaſt longitude.	870,910

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Uſbec Tartary and Thibet on the North; by Thibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the Eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, on the South; by the ſame and Perſia on the weſt. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indoſtan properly ſo called.

Grand

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The north-east division of India, containing the provinces of Bengal on the mouths of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut.	Bengal proper	Calcutta
		Fort William, Hugley, Dacca } Engliſh
		Malda, Engliſh and Dutch
		Chatigan
		Caſſumbazar
	Naugracut	Naugracut
	Jeſuat	Rajapour
	Patna	Patna
	Necbal	Necbal
	Gore	Gore
	Rotas	Rotas
The north-weſt division on the frontiers of Perſia, and on the river of Indus.	Soret	Jaganal
	Jeſſelmere	Jeſſelmere
	Tata, or Sinda	Tata
	Bucknor	Bucknor
	Moultan	Moultan
	Haican	Haican
	Cabul	Cabul
The middle diviſion	Candiſh	Medipour
	Berar	Berar
	Chitor	Chitor
	Ratipor	Ratipor
	Navar	Navar
	Gualeor	Gualeor
	Agra	Agra
	Delhi	DELHI, E. lon. 77-49. lat. 29.
	Lahor or Pencah	Lahor
	Hendowns	Hendowns
	Caſſimere	Caſſimere
	Jengapour	Jengapour
	Aſmer or Bando	Aſmer

The Britiſh nation poſſeſs in full ſovereignty, the whole ſoubah of Bengal, and the greateſt part of Bahar. In Oriſſa or Orixa, only the diſtricts of Midnapour. The whole of the Britiſh poſſeſſions in this part of Indoſtan, contain about 150,000 ſquare Britiſh miles of land; to which, if we add the diſtrict of Benares, the whole will be 162,000, that is, 30,000 more than are contained in Great Britain and Ireland; and near eleven millions of inhabitants. The total net revenue, including Benares, is about 287 lacks of Sicca rupees, which may be reckoned equal to 3,050,000l*. *Rennel.* With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable courſe of the Ganges from its entry on the plains to the ſea, which by its winding courſe is more than 1350 miles.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for ſix months from the ſouth, and ſix from the north. April, May, and the be-

* A conſiderable addition both to the territory and revenue of the Eaſt India Company was obtained by the ceſſions in the late treaty of peace with Tippoo Sultan, to the amount of 15,374 ſquare miles, affording a revenue of 1,316,765 Koonteary pagodas. RENNEL.

ginning of June, are exceſſively hot, but refreſhed by ſea breezes; and in ſome dry ſeaſons, the hurricanes, which tear up the ſands, and let them fall in dry ſhowers, are exceſſively diſagreeable. The Engliſh, and conſequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indoſtan, are commonly ſeized with ſome illneſs, ſuch as flux or fever in their different appearances; but when properly treated, eſpecially if the patients are abſtemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The moſt remarkable mountains are thoſe of Caucaſus and Naugracut, which divide India from Perſia, Uſbec Tartary, and Thibet; and are inhabited by Mahrattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. As to the mountains of Balegaut which run almoſt the whole length of India, from north to ſouth, they are ſo high as to ſtop the weſtern monſoon; the rains beginning ſooner on the Malabar, than they do on the Coromandel coaſt.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Indus called by the natives Sinda and Sindeh, and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and as obſerved in p. 750, held in the higheſt eſteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Beſides thoſe rivers, many others water this country.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are the Indian ocean; the bay of Bengal; the gulf of Cambaya; the ſtraits of Ramanakoel; Cape Comorin and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] I have already made a general review of this great empire, and have only to add, to what I have ſaid of their religion and ſects, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practiſing the greateſt auſterities; but many of them are impoſtors. Their number is ſaid to be 800,000. Another ſet of mendicants are the Joghis, who are idolaters, and much more numerous, but moſt of them are vagabonds and impoſtors, who live by amuſing the credulous Gentoos with fooliſh fictions. The Banians, who are ſo called from their affected innocence of life, ſerve as brokers, and profeſs the Gentoo religion, or ſomewhat like it.

The Perſees, or Parſes, of Indoſtan, are originally the Gaurs, deſcribed in Perſia, but are a moſt induſtrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be poſſeſſed of the works of Zoroaſter, whom they call by various names, and which ſome Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw light upon ancient hiſtory both ſacred and profane. This opinion is countenanced by the few parcels of thoſe books that have been publiſhed; but ſome are of opinion that the whole is a modern impoſtor, founded upon ſacred, traditional, and profane hiſtories. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is ſaid only as an emblem of the divinity.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the ſports of the field. They affect ſhady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous muſic, both in wind and ſtring inſtruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houſes make no appearance, and thoſe of the commonalty are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them ſubject to fire; but the manufacturers chuſe to work in the open air; and the inſides of houſes belonging to principal perſons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleaſant, and many of them magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] I have already mentioned this article, as well as the manufactures of India; but the Mahometan merchants here carry

ry on a trade that has not been deſcribed, I mean that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the weſtern parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular ſpecies of veſſels called junks, the largeſt of which, we are told, beſides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to viſit the tombs of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyſſinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they diſpoſe of their cargoes for gold and ſilver; ſo that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000l.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. The province of Agra, is the largeſt in all Indoſtan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greateſt city, and its caſtle the largeſt fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the Engliſh have none.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewiſe the capital of Indoſtan. It is deſcribed as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the uſual magnificence of the Eaſt. Its ſtables formerly contained 12,000 horſes, brought from Arabia, Perſia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the ſeaſon, as is often the caſe, theſe horſes are ſaid to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and ſugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindia, is a large city; and it is ſaid that a plague which happened there in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in ſilk and cotton. It is ſtill famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repoſe when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; 10 being uſually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at firſt coſt, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten ſhillings a month each, out of which they maintain themſelves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Moultan is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their ſituation, are enabled to deal with the Perſians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horſes.

The province of Caſſimere being ſurrounded with mountains, is difficult of acceſs, but when entered, it appears to be the paradiſe of the Indies. It is ſaid to contain 100,000 villages, to be ſtored with cattle and game, without any beaſts of prey. The capital (Caſſimere) ſtands by a large lake; and both ſexes, the women eſpecially, are almoſt as fair as the Europeans, and are ſaid to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian hiſtory, and is ſtill one of the largeſt and fineſt provinces in the Indies, producing the beſt ſugars of any in Indoſtan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indoſtan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who ſeem never to have been conquered, and though they ſubmit to the Moguls, live in an eaſy, independent ſtate. In ſome of thoſe provinces many of the European fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native ſoil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the moſt intereſting to an Engliſh reader. It is eſteemed to be the ſtorehouſe of the Eaſt Indies. Its

fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile, and the produce of its ſoil conſiſts of rice, ſugar-canes, corn, ſeſamum, ſmall mulberry, and other trees. Its calicoes, ſilks, ſalt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world: and proviſions here are in vaſt plenty, and incredibly cheap, eſpecially pullets, ducks, and geeſe. The country is interſected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near 100 leagues on both ſides the Ganges, full of cities, towns, caſtles, and villages.

In Bengal, the worſhip of the Gentoos is practiſed in its greateſt purity, and their ſacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithſtanding their religion, are ſaid by ſome to be laſcivious and enticing.

The principal Engliſh factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William: it is ſituated on the river Hugley, the moſt weſterly branch of the Ganges. It is about 100 miles from the ſea; and the river is navigable up to the town, for the largeſt ſhips that viſit India. The fort itſelf is ſaid to be irregular, and untenable againſt diſciplined troops, but the ſervants of the company have provided themſelves with an excellent houſe, and moſt convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itſelf has been in fact for ſome time in poſſeſſion of the company, an Engliſh civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the company. But, in 1773, an act of parliament was paſſed to regulate the affairs of the Eaſt India company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act, a governor-general and four counſellors were appointed, and choſen by the parliament, with whom was veſted the whole civil and military government of the preſidency of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government of all the territorial acquiſitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, ſo long as the company ſhould remain poſſeſſed of them. The governor-general and council ſo appointed, are inveſted with the power of ſuperintending and controlling the government and management of the preſidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correſpond with them. The governor-general and counſellors are likewiſe empowered to eſtabliſh a court of judicature at Fort-William; to conſiſt of a chief juſtice and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majeſty: theſe are to exerciſe all criminal, admiralty, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction: to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory of Fort-William, and its limits; and the factories ſubordinate thereto. But the eſtabliſhment of this ſupreme court does not appear to have promoted either the intereſts of the Eaſt India company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and cuſtoms of the natives: acts of great oppreſſion and injuſtice have been committed; and the ſupreme court has been a ſource of great diſſatisfaction, diſorder, and confuſion. For the ſubſequent regulations of the Eaſt India territories and company, we refer to our account in the Hiſtory of England.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The India nabob, or viceroy, quarrelled with the company, and inveſted Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and ſome of the principal perſons of the place, threw themſelves, with their chief effects, on board the ſhips in the river; they who remained for ſome hours, bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended,

pended, they ſurrendered upon terms. The ſoubah, a capricious, unfeeling tyrant, inſtead of obſerving the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwel, the governor's chief ſervant, and 145 Britiſh ſubjects, into a little but ſecure priſon called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet ſquare, and ſhut up from almoſt all communication of free air. Their miſeries during the night were inexpreſſible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the reſt dying of ſuffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrenſy. Among thoſe ſaved was Mr. Holwel himſelf, who has written a moſt affecting account of the cataſtrophe. The inſenſible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the Engliſh out of his dominions; but the ſeaſonable arrival of admiral Watſon and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with ſome difficulty, in poſſeſſion of Calcutta; and the war was concluded by the battle of Plaſſey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Surajah Dowla, in whoſe place Mhir Jaffeir, one of his generals, who had previouſly ſigned a ſecret treaty with Clive to deſert his maſter, and amply reward the Engliſh, was advanced of courſe to the ſoubahſhip.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna or Moorſhedabad; and Benares, lying in the ſame province, is the Gentoo univerſity, and celebrated for its ſanctity.

Chandenagore was the principal place poſſeſſed by the French in Bengal; it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though ſtrongly fortified, furniſhed with a garriſon of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the Engliſh admirals Watſon and Pococke, and colonel Clive, and alſo was taken the laſt war, but reſtored at the peace. Since the beginning of the preſent war it has been taken poſſeſſion of by the Engliſh. Hugley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richeſt of all Indian commodities. The Dutch had here a well fortified factory. The ſearch for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hugley, for about fifty miles farther. Dacca is ſaid to be the largeſt city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. The other chief towns are Caſſumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, and Maldo; beſides a number of other places of leſs note, but all of them rich in the Indiann manufactures.

We know little concerning the province or ſoubah of Malva, which lies to the weſt of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provices, and that its chief cities are Ratiſpor, Ougein, and Indoor. The province of Candiſh includes that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhampoor, a flouriſhing city, and carries on a vaſt trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered ſtuffs. Cattac is the capital of Orixa.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire to the north of what is properly called the Peninſula within the Ganges. Thoſe that lie to the ſouthward fall into the deſcription of the peninſula itſelf.

HISTORY.] The firſt invader of this country, worthy to be noticed, was the famous Alexander of Macedon. Zinghis Khan alſo directed his force there in the year 1221, and made the emperor forſake his capital; he is ſaid to have given the name of Mogul to India. Long before Tamerlane deſcended in the female line from that conqueror, Mahometan princes had entered, made conqueſts, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in India. Valid, the ſixth of the caliphs, named Ommiades, who aſcended the throne in the 708th year of the Chriſtian æra, and in the 90th of the hegira, made

conqueſts in India; ſo that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, ſon of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province ſeparated by mountains from the north-weſt parts of India, and ſituated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the ſword into Indoſtan, in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Chriſtian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treaſures, demoliſhing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Indoſtan is repreſented to be immenſe. The ſucceſſors of this Mahmoud are called the dynaſty of the Gaznavides, and maintained themſelves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Koſrou Schah, the 13th and laſt prince of the Gaznavide race, was depoſed by Kuſſain Gauri, who founded the dynaſty of the Gaurides, which furniſhed five princes, who poſſeſſed nearly the ſame dominions as their predeceſſors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predeceſſor Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treaſures. But an Indian, who had been rendered deſperate by the pollutions and inſults to which he ſaw his gods and temples expoſed, made a vow to aſſaſſinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finiſhed in the year 1212, in the perſon of Mahmoud, ſucceſſor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was alſo cut off by the ſwords of aſſaſſins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, deſcending more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucaſus. This invincible barbarian met with no reſiſtance ſufficient to juſtify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But after an immenſe ſlaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himſelf lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges. The hiſtory of the ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Indoſtan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variouſly repreſented, but all agree in the main, that they were magnificent and deſpotic princes; that they committed their provinces, as has been already obſerved, to rapacious governors, or to their own ſons, by which their empire was often miſerably torn in pieces. At length, the famous Aurengzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngeſt among many ſons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethren, mounted the throne of Indoſtan, and may be conſidered as the real founder and legiſlator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the firſt who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the Peninſula within the Ganges, which is at preſent ſo well known to the Engliſh. He lived ſo late as the year 1707, and it is ſaid that ſome of his great officers of ſtate were alive in the year 1750. From what has been already ſaid of this empire, Aurengzbe ſeems to have left too much power to the governors of his diſtant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful deſpotiſm, which, while in his hands, preſerved the tranquillity of his empire; but when it deſcended to his weak indolent ſucceſſors, occaſioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandſons diſputed the empire, which after a bloody ſtruggle, fell to the eldeſt, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a ſlave to his pleaſures, and was governed by his miſtreſs ſo abſolutely, that his great omrahs conſpired againſt him, and raiſed to the throne one of his nephews, who ſtruck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whoſe name was Furrukhſir, was governed and at laſt enſlaved

ſlaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abuſed his power ſo groſsly, that being afraid to puniſh them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately aſſaſſinated. They diſcovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whoſe place they raiſed a grandſon of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of ſeventeen years of age, after impriſoning and ſtrangling Furrukhſir. The young emperor proved diſagreeable to the brothers, and being ſoon poiſoned, they raiſed to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indoſtan, whoſe anceſtors had entered into ſtipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field againſt the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil poſſeſſion of the empire, but died in 1719. He was ſucceeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and entered into private meaſures with his great rajahs for deſtroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Niſam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is ſaid, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himſelf againſt the brothers, and to proclaim himſelf ſoubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was aſſaſſinated by the emperor's order, and who immediately advanced to Delhi to deſtroy the other brother, but he no ſooner underſtood what had happened, than he proclaimed the ſultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperors. A battle enſued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is ſaid to have uſed his conqueſt with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the priſon from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewiſe a priſoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took poſſeſſion of his vaſt riches. Seyd did not long ſurvive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himſelf to the ſame courſe of pleaſures that had been ſo fatal to his predeceſſors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed againſt the Mahrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almoſt made themſelves maſters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his ſoubahſhip, and was conſidered as the firſt ſubject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadar Shah, otherwiſe Kouli Khan, the Perſian monarch, to invade Indoſtan. It is thought, that he had intelligence of a ſtrong party formed againſt him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have ſucceſs, and at firſt wanted to make himſelf uſeful by oppoſing him. The ſucceſs of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immenſe treaſure which he carried from Indoſtan in 1739. Beſides thoſe treaſures he obliged the Mogul to ſurrender to him all the lands to the weſt of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyſhor, Kabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almoſt equal in value to the crown of Perſia itſelf.

This invaſion coſt the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, ſome accounts, and thoſe too ſtrongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible ſum of two hundred and thirty-one millions ſterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of thoſe times. The moſt moderate ſay that Nadir's own ſhare amounted to conſiderably above ſeventy millions. Be that as it will, the invaſion of Nadir Shah may be conſidered as putting a period to the greatneſs of the Mogul empire in the houſe of Tamerlane. However, when Nadir had raiſed all the money he could in Delhi, he re-inſtated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the ſovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces ſoon after enſued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince

deprived

deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-weſt of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being aſſaſſinated in 1747, Achmet Abdallah, his treaſurer, an unprincipled man, but poſſeſſed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confuſion occaſioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himſelf at the head of an army, and march againſt Delhi with fifty thouſand horſe. Thus was the wealth, drawn from Delhi made the means of continuing thoſe miſeries of war which it had at firſt brought upon them. Prince Ahmed Shah, the Mogul's eldeſt ſon, and the vizier, with other leading men, in this extremity took the field, with eighty thouſand horſe, to oppoſe the invader. The war was carried on with various ſucceſs, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His ſon, Ahmed Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary.

The Mahrattas, a warlike nation, poſſeſſing the ſouth-weſtern peninſula of India, had, before the invaſion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout or tribute from the empire, ariſing out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld, in conſequence of the enfeebled ſtate of the empire, the Mahrattas became clamorous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghires * and to diſtricts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every ſpecies of domeſtic confuſion. Ahmed Shah reigned only ſeven years, after which much diſorder and confuſion prevailed in Indoſtan, and the people ſuffered great calamities. At preſent, the imperial dignity of Indoſtan is veſted in Shah Zadah, who is univerſally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble: the city of Delhi, and a ſmall territory round it, is all that is left remaining to the houſe and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the Engliſh, and whoſe intereſt it is to ſupport him, as his authority is the beſt legal guarantee.

We ſhall now conclude the hiſtory of Indoſtan with ſome account of the Britiſh tranſactions in that part of the world, ſince 1765, when they were quietly ſettled in the poſſeſſion of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa; not indeed as abſolute ſovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This ſtate of tranquillity, however, did not long continue; for in 1767 they found themſelves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally the ſovereign of Myſore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and in the year 1753, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in their ſervice. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Myſore, he depoſed his ſovereign, and uſurped the ſupreme authority under the title of regent. In a ſhort time he extended his dominions on all ſides, except the Carnatic, until at laſt his dominions equalled the iſland of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue of not leſs than four millions ſterling annually. The diſcords which took place in various parts of Indoſtan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him to aggrandize himſelf in ſuch a manner, that his power ſoon became formidable to his neighbours: and in 1767 he found himſelf in danger of being attacked on one ſide by the Mahrattas, and on the other

* Jaghire means a grant of land from a ſovereign to a ſubject, revokable at pleaſure; but generally, or almoſt always, for a life-rent.

by

by the Britiſh. The former were bought off with a ſum of money, and the latter were in conſequence obliged to retire. Having ſoon, however, aſſembled all their forces, ſeveral obſtinate engagements took place; and the Britiſh now, for the firſt time, found a ſteady oppoſition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various ſucceſs during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a ſtrong detachment of his army, paſſing by that of the Britiſh, advanced within a little diſtance of Madras, when he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly loſt by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a moſt dreadful defeat, almoſt his whole army killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the neceſſity of allowing his enemies to deſolate the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved his affairs with incredible perſeverance and diligence, ſo that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made ſome attempts to get poſſeſſion of the provinces of Corah and ſome others, but were oppoſed by the Britiſh; who, next year, defeated and drove them acroſs the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occaſion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowlaw, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promiſed to pay 40 lacks of rupees for the protection offered them; but when the money came to be paid, it was under various pretences refuſed; the conſequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the Britiſh, as well as ſeveral other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced to the weſtward, within 25 miles of Agra; north weſtward to the upper part of the navigable courſe of the Ganges; and ſouth-weſtward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas; on which occaſion a brigade, conſiſting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by Britiſh officers, traverſed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the weſtern ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting aſſiſtance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For ſome time he carried every thing before him; and, having the good fortune to defeat, or rather deſtroy a detachment of the Britiſh army under colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would have ſoon been annihilated. By the happy exertions of Sir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progreſs of this formidable adverſary was ſtopped, and he ſoon become weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expence to himſelf, without any reaſonable proſpect of ſucceſs. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was ſincerely deſirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a concluſion; and his rival Sir Eyre Coote did not ſurvive him above five months; a very remarkable circumſtance, that the commanders in chief of two armies, oppoſed to each other, ſhould both die natural deaths, within ſo ſhort a ſpace of time.

To Hyder Ally ſucceeded his ſon Tippoo Sultan, whoſe military proweſs is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the moſt formidable to the Britiſh government, and the moſt hoſtile to its authority. The peace of Mangalore in 1784 had, it was ſuppoſed, ſecured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the ſplendid embaſſy which, not long after that event, he diſpatched to France, afforded much reaſon to apprehend that ſome plan was concerted between the old

government of that country and the tyrant of Myſore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian poſſeſſions; but the good ſenſe of the unfortunate Louis XVII. induced him to refuſe entering into theſe viſionary ſchemes.

Diſappointed in the hopes of aſſiſtance from this quarter, Tippoo either impelled by real or imagined injuries commenced a hoſtile attack upon one of the allies of Great Britain. An engagement took place and the Britiſh conceived themſelves bound to take an active part, and to unite with two of the moſt powerful ſtates of India, the Nizam and the Mahrattas, to cruſh the riſing power of Myſore. The tranſactions of the Britiſh army have been as fully detailed as is neceſſary for the entertainment of the reader in the Hiſtory of England; they were almoſt invariably crowned with ſucceſs, and Tippoo was at laſt reduced to the greateſt diſtreſs, and on the 24th of February, when the preparations for a general aſſault were in great forwardneſs, it was announced that preliminaries of peace were ſettled. Nothing could equal the diſappointment of the ſoldiers at this news, who expected to make fortunes by the plunder of this wealthy capital. After the ceſſation of arms, which then took place, the conduct of Tippoo Sultan was ſo equivocal and ſuſpicious, as to make it neceſſary on our part, to renew the preparations for the ſiege. Overawed at length, by the firmneſs and deciſion of lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the diſcontent of his own people, the reluctant Sultan ſubmitted to all the terms propoſed; and on the 19th of March, the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in form, by his ſons to lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied princes. The Nizam's ſon, prince Secunder Jah, and the Mahratta plenipotentiary Hurry Punt, thought it beneath their dignity to be preſent on this occaſion in perſon, and were repreſented by their vakeels.

The ſubſtance of the treaty was, 1ſt, That Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d, That he was to pay three crores, and thirty lacks of rupees. 3d, That all priſoners were to be reſtored. 4th, That two of the Sultan's three eldeſt ſons were to become hoſtages for the due performance of the treaty.

Tippoo is ſaid to have been prevailed upon with infinite difficulty to ſubſcribe to the terms of peace; and now that all was ſettled, the uneaſineſs in the ſeraglio became extreme in parting with the boys, who were to be ſent out as hoſtages. The ſultan was again intreated to requeſt they might be allowed to ſtay another day, in order to make ſuitable preparations for their departure: and lord Cornwallis, who had diſpenſed with their coming at the time the treaty was ſent, had again the goodneſs to grant his requeſt.

When the princes left the fort, which appeared to be manned, as they went out, and every where crowded with people, who, from curioſity or affection, had come to ſee them depart; the ſultan himſelf was on the rampart above the gateway. They were ſaluted by the fort when leaving it, and with twenty one guns from the park as they approached our camp, where the part of the line they paſſed was turned out to meet them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents, which had been ſent from the fort for their accommodation, where they were met by Sir John Kennaway, the Mahratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head quarters.

The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly capariſoned, and ſeated in a ſilver canopied ſeat and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the perſons already mentioned, alſo on elephants. The proceſſion was led by ſeveral camel harcarras, [meſſengers] and ſeven ſtandard bearers,

ers, carrying ſmall green flags ſuſpended from rockets *, followed by one hundred pikemen, with ſpears inlaid with ſilver. Their guard of two hundred ſepoys, and a party of horſe, brought up the rear. In this order they approached head quarters, where the battalion of Bengal ſepoys, commanded by captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a ſtreet to receive them.

Lord Cornwallis, attended by his ſtaff, and ſome of the principal officers of the army, met the princes at the door of his large tent, as they diſmounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent; the eldeſt, Abdul Kalick, was about ten, the youngeſt, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were ſeated on each ſide of lord Cornwallis, Gullam Ally, the head vakeel, addreſſed his lordſhip as follows: "Theſe children were this morning the ſons of the ſultan my maſter; their ſituation is now changed, and they muſt now look up to your lordſhip as their father."

Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own ſons, anxiouſly aſſured the vakeel and the young princes themſelves, that every attention poſſible would be ſhewn to them, and the greateſt care taken of their perſons. Their little faces brightened up; the ſcene became highly intereſting; and not only their attendants, but all the ſpectators were delighted to ſee that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would ſoon be reconciled to their change of ſituation, and to their new friends.

The princes were dreſſed in long white muſlin gowns, and red turbans. They had ſeveral rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was ſuſpended an ornament conſiſting of a ruby and an emerald of conſiderable ſize, ſurrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans, each had a ſprig of rich pearls. Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and inſtructed in their manners to imitate the reſerve and politeneſs of age, it aſtoniſhed all preſent to ſee the correctneſs and propriety of their conduct. The eldeſt boy, rather dark in his colour, with thick lips, a ſmall flattiſh noſe, and a long thoughtful countenance, was leſs admired than the youngeſt, who is remarkably fair, with regular features, a ſmall round face, large full eyes, and a more animated appearance. Placed too, on the right hand of lord Cornwallis, the youngeſt was ſaid to be the favourite ſon, and the ſultan's intended heir. His mother (a ſiſter of Burham-ud-Deen's, who was killed at Sattimungulum), a beautiful delicate woman, had died of fright and apprehenſion, a few days after the attack of the lines. This melancholy event made the ſituation of the youngeſt boy doubly intereſting, and, with the other circumſtances, occaſioned his attracting by much the moſt notice. After ſome converſation, his lordſhip preſented a handſome gold watch to each of the princes, with which they ſeemed much pleaſed.

Next day, the 27th, lord Cornwallis, attended as the day before, went to pay the princes a viſit at their tents, pitched near the moſque redoubt, within the green canaut or wall. After embracing them, he led them, one in each hand, into the tent, where chairs were placed for his lordſhip, themſelves, and his ſuite. The eldeſt boy, now ſeated on his lordſhip's right hand, appeared leſs ſerious than the former day, and when he ſpoke was not only graceful in his manner, but had a moſt affable, animated appearance. Each of the princes preſented his lordſhip with a fine Perſian ſword; and in return he gave the oldeſt a fuzee, and the youngeſt a pair of piſtols, of very fine and curious workmanſhip.

* *Rocket* is a miſſile weapon, conſiſting of an iron tube of about a foot long, and an inch in diameter, fixed to a bamboo of ten or twelve feet long.

Thus ended the Indian war; the juſtice and policy of which has been very much doubted by thoſe who muſt be allowed to be competent judges of Indian politics: Others however are of a different opinion and defend this war, which, ſays Major Dirom, "has vindicated the honour of the nation, has given the additional poſſeſſions and ſecurity to the ſettlements in India, which they required; has effected the wiſhed-for balance amongſt the native powers on the peninſula; has, beyond all former example, raiſed the character of the Britiſh arms in India; and has afforded an inſtance of good faith in alliance and moderation in conqueſt, ſo eminent, as ought to conſtitute the Engliſh arbiters of power; worthy of holding the ſword and ſcales of juſtice in the eaſt."

However different our opinions may be with regard to the juſtice of the war, none can withold their approbation from lord Cornwallis in every thing that reſpects the conduct of the military operations; and his moderation and ſound policy in the concluding ſcenes cannot be too highly extolled, and we ſincerely hope that by his wiſdom, firmneſs and humanity he may be enabled by the bleſſing of providence to eſtabliſh tranquillity in a neighbouring kingdom, lately entruſted to his government, of infinitely more importance to Britain than India.

It is utterly impoſſible ſays Major Rennel, in the preſent imperfect ſtate of our knowledge of the geography of the northern part of the peninſula (notwithſtanding the preſent improvements), to deſcribe, with any degree of accuracy, the boundaries of the new ceſſions to the Mahrattas and Nizam; or even the poſitions of all the principal places ſituated within them.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Grand diviſions:	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
The ſouth-eaſt coaſt of India, ſituate on the bay of Bengal, uſually called the coaſt of Coromandel.	Madura	Madura —	16,400
	Tanjour	Tanjour	83,550
		Tranquebar, Danes	
	Eaſt ſide of Biſnagar, or Carnatic	Negapatam, Engliſh	
		Biſnagar	
		Porta-nova Dutch	
		Fort St. David, Pondicherry, Conymere, Engliſh	
		Coblon	
		Sadraſpatan, Dutch	
		St. Thomas, Portugueſe	
		Fort St. George or Madras, E. lon. 80-25. N. lat. 13-5. Engliſh.	
		Pellicate, Dutch. —	
	Golconda	Golconda - -	62,100
		Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines	
		Maſulipatan, Engliſh and Dutch	
		Vizigapatan, Engliſh	
		Bimlipatan, Dutch	
	Oriſſa	Cattack	
		Ballaſore, Engliſh	

Grand

Grand diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar.	Weſt ſide of Biſnagar, or Carnatic.	Tegapatan, Dutch	83,040
		Anjengo, Engliſh	
		Cochin, Dutch	
		Calicut, Tillichery } Engliſh	
		Carannore, Dutch	
		Monguelore, Baſſilore, } Dutch and Portugueſe	
		Raolconda, diamond mines	
		Cawar, Engliſh	
	Deccan or Viſiapour	Goa, Portugueſe	
		Rajapore, Dabal, } Engliſh	
		Dundee, Shoule, } Portugueſe	
		Bombay, iſle and town, Engliſh, 18-58. N. lat. 72. 49. E. lon.	
		Baſſaim, Portugueſe	
		Salſette, Engliſh	
		Damon, Portugueſe	
		Surat, E. lon. 72. 50. N. lat. 21-10	
	Cambaya, or Guzarat.	Swalley	
		Barak, Engliſh	
		Amedabad	
		Cambaya	
		Dieu, Portugueſe.	

RIVERS.] The Cattack or Mahanada, the Soane and Nerbudda, the Pudder, and the famous Kiſtna.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to ſouth, renders it winter on one ſide of this peninſula, while it is ſummer on the other. About the end of June, a ſouth-weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea, on the coaſt of Malabar, which, with continual rains, laſts four months, during which time all is ſerene upon the coaſt of Coromandel (the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts being ſo denominated). Towards the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon and the change of the monſoons begins on the Coromandel coaſt, which being deſtitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ſhips to remain there, during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of the Engliſh ſhipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coaſt. The air is naturally hot in this peninſula, but it is refreſhed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is tolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the ſea, which laſt proves a great refreſhment to the inhabitants of the coaſt. The produce of the ſoil is the ſame with that of the other part of the Eaſt Indies. The like may be ſaid of their quadrupeds, fiſh, fowl, and noxious creatures and inſects.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion, than thoſe of the other peninſula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes ſome ſuſpect them to be the deſcendants of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greateſt part of them have but a faint notion

tion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indoſtan, whoſe tribute from hence has been, ever ſince the invaſion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their ſoubahs and nabobs, who now exerciſe an independent power in the government; but beſides thoſe ſoubahs, and other imperial viceroys, many eſtates in this peninſula belong to rajahs, or lords, who are deſcendants of their old princes, and look upon themſelves as being independent on the Mogul, and his authority. On the ſubject of eaſtern manners, we cannot paſs over the dreadful auſterities practiſed by the Hindoo-devotees that they may obtain a certain and ſpeedy admiſſion into the delights of paradiſe. Animated by the deſire of obtaining that glorious reward, the patient Hindoo ſmiles amidſt unutterable miſery, and exults in every variety of voluntary torture; he equally braves the raging flood and the devouring fire, his courage is not to be ſhaken by the ſharpeſt pangs of torture or by the approach of death in its moſt ghaſtly and appalling form. In the hope of expiating former crimes by adequate penance, and of regaining ſpeedily that fancied elyſium, he binds himſelf to the performance of vows which make human nature ſhudder and human reaſon ſtagger. He paſſes whole weeks without the ſmalleſt nouriſhment, and whole years in painful vigils. He wanders about naked as he came from the womb of his parent, and ſuffers, without repining, every viciſſitude of heat and cold, of driving ſtorm and beating rain. He ſtands with his arms croſſed above his head, till the ſinews ſhrink and the fleſh whithers away. He fixes his eye upon the burning orb of the ſun, till its light be extinguiſhed and its moiſture entirely dried up *.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE. From what has been ſaid above, this peninſula is rather to be divided into great governments, or ſoubahſhips, than into provinces. One ſoubah often engroſſes ſeveral provinces, and fixes the ſeat of his government, according to his own conveniency. I ſhall ſpeak of thoſe provinces, as belonging to the Malabar, or Coromandel coaſt, the two great objects of Engliſh commerce in that country; and firſt, of the eaſtern, or Coromandel coaſt.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the ſouthernmoſt point of the peninſula. It is about the bigneſs of the kingdom of Portugal, and is ſaid to have been governed by a ſovereign king, who had under him ſeventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax; now the caſe is much altered, the prince being ſcarcely able to protect himſelf and his people from the depredations of his neighbours, but by a tribute to buy them off; the capital is Tritchinopoli. The chief value of this kingdom ſeems to conſiſt of a pearl fiſhery upon its coaſt. Tanjour is a little kingdom, lying to the eaſt of Madura. The ſoil is fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and ſome Britiſh ſubjects connected with him. Within it lies the Daniſh Eaſt India ſettlement of Tranquebar, and the fortreſs of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch the laſt war, and confirmed to the Engliſh by the late treaty of peace; the capital city is Tanjour.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the Engliſh. It is bounded on the eaſt by the bay of Bengal; on the north by the river Kiſtna, which divides it from Golconda, on the weſt by Viſiapour; and on the ſouth by the kingdoms of Meſſaur and Tanjour; being in length, from ſouth to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The capital of the Carnatic is Biſnagar, and of our ally the nabob, Arcot. The country in general is eſteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon

* Maurice, Indian Antiquities.

upon the Coromandel coaſt, lies fort St. David's, or Cuddalore, belonging to the Engliſh, with a diſtrict round it. The fort is ſtrong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the Eaſt Indies, but which hath been repeatedly taken by the Engliſh, and as often reſtored by the treaties of peace. Since the beginning of the preſent war it was again taken by the Engliſh, and has ſince remained in their poſſeſſion.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company's dominions in that part of the Eaſt Indies, and and is diſtant eaſtward from London, about 4,800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the ſituation of this fort; but no pains have been ſpared by the company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought againſt it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexions of their ſeveral inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an Engliſh corporation of a mayor and alderman. Nothing has been omitted to mend the natural badneſs of its ſituation, which ſeems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey diſtant. Theſe mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeaſurement, encloſing the contents by palliſadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The diſtrict belonging to Madras, extending about 40 miles round, is of little value for its product; 80,000 inhabitants of various nations are ſaid to be dependent upon Madras; but its ſafety conſiſts in the ſuperiority of the Engliſh by ſea. It carries on a conſiderable trade with China, Perſia, and Mocha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immenſe fortunes acquired by the Engliſh, upon this coaſt, within theſe thirty years; but ſome of theſe fortunes appear to have been obtained by the moſt iniquitous practices. There ſeems to have been ſome fundamental errors in the conſtitution of the Eaſt India Company. The directors conſidered the riches acquired by their governors and other ſervants as being plundered from the company, and accordingly ſent out ſuperintendants to controul their governors and overgrown ſervants; and have from time to time changed their governors, and members of the council there. As this is a ſubject of the greateſt importance that ever perhaps occurred in the hiſtory of a commercial country, the reader will indulge us in one or two reflections.

The Engliſh Eaſt India Company, through the diſtractions of the Mogul empire, the ſupport of our government, and the undaunted, but fortunate ſucceſſes of their military officers, have acquired ſo amazing a property in this peninſula, and in Indoſtan, that it is ſuperior to the revenues of many crowned heads; and ſome of their own ſervants pretend, that when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions ſterling; out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while ſuffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it ariſes, is beſt known to the company; part of it, however, has been granted in property, and part of it is ſecured on mortgages, for diſcharging their expences in ſupporting the intereſts of their friends, the emperor, and the reſpective ſoubahs and nabobs they have aſſiſted.

Be this as it may, this company has exerciſed many rights appropriated to ſovereignty; ſuch as thoſe of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Thoſe powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and therefore the Engliſh miniſtry and parliament, have repeatedly interfered, in order to regulate the affairs of the company, and a board

board of a controul at home is at length eſtabliſhed. By the ſucceſs which attended the Britiſh arms in the late war, and by the extent of territory which was ceded to the Company, their poſſeſſions being more ſafe from the inroads of Tippoo Sultan, are now rendered permanent and ſecure. It is much to be dreaded, however, that the natives are not ſufficiently protected from the oppreſſion, injuſtice, and cruelty of which the ſervants of the Eaſt India Company have been too often guilty.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the ſervants of the company often embroiled them, ſhared the Carnatic with the nabob of Arcot. In the laſt war he took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the concluſion of the war. He is ſaid to be a native of the province of Meſſar, or Myſore, which lies to the ſouth weſt of the Carnatic; and the Chriſtians of the apoſtle St. Thomas live at the foot of the mountains Getti, that ſeparate Meſſar from Malabar. Pellicate, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. I have already mentioned the kingdom of Golconda, which, beſides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapneſs of its proviſions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golconda is ſubject to a prince, called the Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raiſe 100,000 men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagur, or Hyderabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda. Eaſt-ſouth-eaſt of Golconda lies Maſulipatan, where the Engliſh and Dutch have factories. The Engliſh have alſo factories at Ganjam and Vizigapatan, on this coaſt; and the Dutch at Narſipore. The province of Orixa, from whence the Engliſh company draw ſome part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from eaſt to weſt about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Booſlah, and his brother, allies to the Mahrattas. In this province ſtands the temple of Jagaryunt, which they ſay is attended by 500 prieſts. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black ſtone, of about 4 or 500lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to repreſent the eyes, and the noſe and mouth painted with vermillion.

The country of Deccan * comprehends ſeveral large provinces, and ſome kingdoms; particularly thoſe of Baglana, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Viſiapour. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and government of thoſe provinces are extremely unſettled; they having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, and ſubject to almoſt annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their ſituation and extent, but we are told, that the principal towns are Aurengabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlet-abad; and the latter is the ſtrongeſt place in all Indoſtan. Near it lies the famous pagod of Elora, in a plain about two leagues ſquare. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thouſand figures that ſurround it, are ſaid to be cut out of the natural rock, and to ſurpaſs all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the eaſt of Golconda; and its capital, Beder, contains a garriſon of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province ſpeak a language peculiar to themſelves.

Baglani lies to the weſt of Telenga, and forms the ſmalleſt province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portugueſe territory begins here at the port

* This name DECCAN ſignifies the SOUTH, and in its moſt extenſive ſignification, includes the whole peninſula ſouth of Indoſtan Proper. However, in its ordinary ſignification, it means only the countries ſituated between Indoſtan Proper, the Carnatic, and Oriſſa; that is, the provinces of Candeiſh Amednagur, Viſiapour, and Oriſſa.

Rennel's Introduction to the Memoir of his Map of Indoſtan, p. cxii.

port of Daman, twenty-one leagues ſouth of Surat, and extends almoſt twenty leagues to the north of Goa. Viſiapour is a large province, the weſtern part is called Concan, which is intermingled with the Portugueſe poſſeſſions. The rajah of Viſiapour is ſaid to have had a yearly revenue of ſix millions ſterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 ſoldiers. The capital is of the ſame name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coaſt are, Daman, Baſſaim, Trapar, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi, Rajahhour, Dabul Rajupur, Ghiria, and Vingurla. The Portugueſe have loſt ſeveral valuable poſſeſſions on this coaſt, and thoſe which remain are on the decline.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the gulf of Cambaya, and one of the fineſt in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is ſaid to contain 35 cities. Amed-Abad is the capital of the province, where there is an Engliſh factory, and is ſaid, in wealth, to vie with the richeſt towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues diſtant lies Surat, where the Engliſh have a flouriſhing factory.

Among the iſlands lying upon the ſame coaſt is that of Bombay, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ſhips at anchor. The iſland itſelf is about ſeven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its ſituation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being deſtitute of almoſt all the conveniencies of life. The town is about a mile long, and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to the Engliſh conſtitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preſervatives againſt its unwholeſomeneſs. The beſt water there is preſerved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy ſeaſons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of ſtone. Many black merchants reſide here. This iſland was part of the portion paid with the infanta of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the Eaſt India company; and the iſland is ſtill divided into three Roman catholic pariſhes, inhabited by Portugueſe, and what are called popiſh Meſtizes and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueſe, and the other the Aborigines of the country. The Engliſh have fallen upon methods to render this iſland and town, under all their diſadvantages, a ſafe, if not an agreeable reſidence. The reader ſcarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative poſts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the iſland are commanded by Engliſh officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and diſciplined, are here, and all over the Eaſt Indies, called Sepoys. The inhabitants of the iſland amount to near 60,000, of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmoleſted.

Near Bombay are ſeveral other iſlands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the moſt inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural ſize, cut coarſely in ſtone, preſents itſelf on the landing place, near the bottom of a mountain. An eaſy ſlope then leads to a ſtupendous temple, hewn out of the ſolid rock, eighty or ninety feet long, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is ſupported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitols, reſembling round cuſhions, as if preſſed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portugueſe. Beſides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the ſtone; one of the latter bearing a rude reſemblance of the judgement of Solomon; beſides a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of reſemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The iſland and city of Goa, the capital of the Portugueſe ſettlements, in the Eaſt Indies, lies about thirty miles ſouth of Vingurla. The iſland is about twenty-ſeven miles in compaſs. It has one of the fineſt and beſt fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a moſt ſuperb ſettlement, and was ſurpaſſed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is ſaid that the revenues of the Jeſuits upon this iſland, equalled thoſe of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the reſt of the Portugueſe poſſeſſions of this coaſt, is under a viceroy, who ſtill keeps up the remains of the ancient ſplendour of the government. The rich peninſula of Salſett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies ſouth of the Portugueſe territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul. The Engliſh factory of Corwar is one of the moſt pleaſant and healthy of any upon the Malabar coaſt. Kanora lies about forty miles to the ſouth of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its ſoil is famous for producing rice, that ſupplies many parts of Europe, and ſome of the Indies. The Kanorines are ſaid generally to be governed by a lady, whoſe ſon has the title of Rajah; and her ſubjects are accounted the braveſt and moſt civiliſed of any in that peninſula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole ſouth-weſt coaſt of the peninſula, yet it is confined at preſent to the country ſo called, lying on the weſt of Cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic; and the country itſelf is rich and fertile but peſtered with green adders, whoſe poiſon is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itſelf. The moſt remarkable places in Malabar are Kannamore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tellicherry, where the Engliſh have a ſmall ſettlement, keeping a conſtant garriſon of thirty or forty ſoldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portugueſe have ſmall factories, beſides various other diſtinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the ſouthernmoſt part of this peninſula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the ſame garden the two ſeaſons of the year; the trees being loaded with bloſſoms and fruit on the one ſide, while on the other ſide they are ſtripped of all their leaves. This ſurpriſing phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains ſo often mentioned, which traverſe the whole peninſula from ſouth to north. On the oppoſite ſides of the Cape, the winds are conſtantly at variance; blowing from the weſt on the weſt ſide, and from the eaſt on the eaſtern ſide.

It may be proper to obſerve, that in the diſtrict of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found ſome thouſands of Jews, who pretended to be of the tribe of Manaſſeh, and to have records engraven on copper-plates in Hebrew characters. They are ſaid to be ſo poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like diſcoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Aſia, which have occaſioned various ſpeculations among the learned.

Before we cloſe our account of Indoſtan, it may be proper to deſcribe its preſent diviſion according to the different powers among whom it is ſhared, and this is the more neceſſary as it may ſerve to give the reader a clearer idea of theſe extenſive regions, and at the ſame time ſhew him how very conſiderable a portion belongs to the Britiſh and their allies.

The celebrated Perſian uſurper Thamas Kouli Khan, having in the year 1738 defeated the emperor Mahomed Shaw, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treaſure to the amount of more than 70 millions ſterling, reſtored

ed the unhappy prince his dominions, but annexed to Perſia all the countries weſtward of the Indus.

This dreadful incurſion ſo weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the Eaſt India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted as traders, to form eſtabliſhments on the coaſts: theſe, from the great ſuperiority of European diſcipline, from allies became in a ſhort time principals in an obſtinate conteſt, that at length terminated in the expulſion of the French from Indoſtan; and thus a company of Britiſh merchants have acquired, partly by ceſſions from the country powers, and partly by injuſtice and uſurpation, territories equal in extent, and ſuperior in wealth and population to moſt of the kingdoms in Europe.

The Mahrattas originally poſſeſſed ſeveral provinces of Indoſtan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly ſubjected, but retiring to the northern part of the Gauts, made frequent incurſions from theſe inacceſſible mountains: taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at preſent poſſeſſed of a tract of country 1000 Britiſh miles long, by 700 wide.

Hyder Ally *, a ſoldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having poſſeſſed himſelf of that part of the ancient Carnatic, called the kingdom of Myſore, has within a few years acquired, by continual conqueſts, a conſiderable portion of the ſouthern part of the Peninſula. This able and active prince, the moſt formidable enemy that the Engliſh ever experienced in Indoſtan, dying in 1781, left to his ſon Tippoo Saib the peaceful poſſeſſion of his dominions, ſuperior in extent to the kingdom of England.

Theſe extraordinary revolutions, with others of leſs importance, render the following account of the preſent diviſion of property, in this unhappy empire, abſolutely neceſſary, in order to underſtand its modern hiſtory.

PRESENT DIVISION OF INDOSTAN.

Such is the inſtability of human greatneſs, that the preſent Mogul, Shah Allum, the deſcendant of the Great Tamerlane, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Indoſtan; he is permitted to reſide at Delhi, which with a ſmall adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of that vaſt empire, which his anceſtors governed for more than 350 years.

The principal diviſions of this country, as they ſtood at the peace with Tippoo in 1792, are as follow, viz. The Britiſh poſſeſſions; States in alliance with Britain; Tippoo Saib's territories; Mahratta ſtates and their tributaries; and the territories of the Subah of the Deccan.

* The character of the late Hyder Ally appearing to me (ſays Major Rennell) to be but little underſtood in this part of the world, I have ventured to attempt an outline of it. His military ſucceſs, founded on the improvement of diſcipline, attention to merit of every kind; conciliation of the different tribes that ſerved under his banners; contempt of ſtate and ceremony, except what naturally aroſe from the dignity of his character; and his conſequent œconomy in perſonal expences (the different habits of which form the chief diſtinction of what is called character among ordinary princes), together with his minute attention to matters of finance, and the regular payment of his army; all theſe together raiſed Hyder as far above the princes of Indoſtan as the great qualities of the late Pruſſian monarch raiſed him above the generality of European princes; and hence I have ever conſidered Hyder as the FREDERIC of the Eaſt. Cruelty was the vice of Hyder; but we are to conſider that Hyder's ideas of mercy were regulated by an Aſiatic ſtandard; and it is not improbable that he might rate his own character for moderation and clemency, as far above thoſe of Tamerlane, Nadir Shah, and Abdallach, as he rated his diſcipline above theirs.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The Britiſh poſſeſſions contain about 177,374 ſquare Britiſh miles *. They conſiſt of three diſtinct governments, viz.

Government of Calcutta or Bengal,	Bengal Bahar and part of Oriſſa Benares	on the Ganges.
	Northern Circars	on the coaſt of Oriſſa
Government of Madras.	The Jaghire Territory of Cuddalore ————of Devicotta ————of Negipatam	on the coaſt of Coromandel.
Government of Bombay,		on the Gulf of Cambay.

To theſe we have now to add the diſtricts ceded by Tippoo Sultan in his late treaty, ſigned at Seringapatam on the 18th of March, 1792, viz.

	Koontcary pagodas.
Calicut and Palgaut-cherry, yielding a revenue of - -	9,36,765
Dindigul, Pyalny, and Verapachry - - -	90,000
Salim, Kooh, Namcool, and Sunkagherry	88,000
Ahtoor, Permuttee, Shadmungul, and Vamloor - -	68,000
Barra Mohul, Raycottah, Darampoury, &c. - -	1,34,000
	13,16,765

At the rate of 3 rupees to each pagoda, and the rupees reckoned at 2s. 1d. each, the annual value of the late Britiſh acquiſitions will de £. 411,45• according to Major Rennell in his Memoir of a map of the Peninſula of India, p. 33. For the revenue of the other Britiſh poſſeſſions, ſee this Grammar, p. 677.

GOVERNMENT of BENGAL.] This government was rich, flouriſhing, and populous, before the late uſurpations in Indoſtan. It is finely watered by the Ganges and Burrampooter with their numerous navigable channels, and the ſeveral navigable rivers they receive: it is fertilized by their periodical inundations; and by its natural ſituation is well ſecured againſt foreign enemies. But for a more particular deſcription of this province, we refer our readers to the account we have already given of it.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS.] The great defects of this government, are not only the want of connection between its parts, which are ſcattered along an extenſive coaſt, and ſeparated from each other by ſtates frequently hoſtile, but being totally devoid of good harbours. Hopes, however, have been entertained of removing this laſt defect, by removing the bar at the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the ſea at Devicotta. The capital and ſeat of government is MADRAS in the Jaghire, called alſo Fort St George. It is ill ſituated, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants—Fort St. DAVID, in the territory of Cuddalore, is rich, flouriſhing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants.—MASULIPATAM, in the northern Circars, at one of the

* See page 761.

mouths

mouths of the Kiſtna, was formerly the moſt flouriſhing and commercial city on this coaſt, and though much declined, is ſtill conſiderable.

The northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore, and Condapily, are defended inland by a ſtrong barrier of mountains and extenſive foreſts, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a conſiderable ſpace.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.] This government is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and ſeat of government is BOMBAY, in a ſmall iſland, and an unhealthy ſituation, but it is well fortified and has a fine harbour. SURAT on the Tapee, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the moſt rich and commercial cities in Indoſtan.—TELLICHERRY, on the Malabar coaſt, is dependant on Bombay.

ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the nabob of Oude.	Fyzabad. Lucknow the preſent capital of Oude.
Dominions of the nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eaſtern part only of the ancient Carnatic,	Arcot on the Paliar is the capital, though the nabob uſually reſides at Madras. Gingee, the ſtrongeſt Indian fortreſs in the Carnatic. Tritchinapoly near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almoſt ruined by the numerous ſieges, it has ſuſtained. Seringham Pagoda, in an iſland of the Caveri, is famous throughout Indoſtan for its ſanctity, and has no leſs than 40,000 prieſts, who conſtantly reſide here in voluptuous indolence. Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzzingua, formerly rich, powerful, and populous; near it is the famous pagoda of Tripetti, the Loretto of Indoſtan. The offerings of the numerous pilgrims who reſort hither, bring in an immenſe revenue. Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly, are the capitals of ſmall ſtates of the ſame name, which, with Marawar, are dependent on the nabob of Arcot.
Territory of Futty Sing Guicker in the ſoubah of Guzerat,	Amedabad. Cambay.
Territory of the rajah of Ghod,	Gwalior, a celebrated fortreſs.

MAHRATTA STATES, in alliance with the BRITISH, and their TRIBUTARIES.

This extenſive country is divided among a number of chiefs whoſe obedience to their paiſwah or head is merely nominal; as they often go to war againſt each other, and are ſeldom confederated, but on occaſions that would unite the moſt diſcordant ſtates, that is, for their mutual defence.

Southern

Southern Poonah Mahrattas, or the territories of Paiſwah, are naturally ſtrong, being interſected by the various branches of the Gauts.

Satara the nominal capital of the Mahratta ſtates: the Paiſwah, at preſent reſides at Poonah.

Aurungabad, Amednagur, and Viſiapour, are in his territories.

The Concan or tract between the Gauts and the ſea, is ſometimes called the Pirate coaſt, as it was ſubject to the celebrated pirate Angria, and his ſucceſſors, whoſe capital was the ſtrong fortreſs of Gheria, taken by the Engliſh and Mahrattas in 1755: by the acquiſition of this coaſt the Mahrattas have become a maritime power.

By the treaty of peace, Tippoo Sultan ceded to the Mahrattas:

	Kooneary Pagodas.
In the Dooab, being the circar of Bancapour, with part of Moodgul, &c. affording a revenue of -	13,06,666
In Gooty, the diſtrict of Sundoor - - - -	10,000
	13,16,666

TERRITORIES of the NIZAM, an ally to the BRITISH.

The poſſeſſions of the Nizam or Soubah of the Deccan, (a younger ſon of the famous Nizam-al-Muluck), compriſe the province of Golconda, that is, the ancient province of Tellingana, or Tilling, ſituated between the lower parts of the Kiſtna and Godavery rivers, and the principal part of Dowlatabad; together with the weſtern part of Berar, ſubject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its net revenue, to the Berar Mahratta. The Nizam has the Paiſwah, or Poonah Mahratta on the weſt and north-weſt; the Berar Mahratta on the north; the northern circars on the eaſt; and the Carnatic, and Tippoo Sultan, on the ſouth. I am not perfectly clear, ſays Major Rennell, in my idea of his weſtern boundary, which, during his wars with the Mahrattas, was ſubject to continual fluctuation; but I underſtand generally, that it extends more than 40 miles beyond the city Aurungabad, weſtwards; and comes within 80 miles of the city of Poonah, and that on the S. W. it goes conſiderably beyond the river Beemah, and to the borders of Sanore Bancapour. His capital is Hydrabad, or Bagnagur, ſituated on the Mouſſi river near the famous fortreſs of Golconda.

The diſtricts of Adoni and Rachore, which were in the hands of Bazalet Jung, (brother to the Nizam) during his lifetime, are now in the hands of the Nizam. The Sourapour, or Sollapoor rajah, on the weſt of the Beemah river, together with ſome other rajahs, are his tributaries. The Nizam's dominions are ſuppoſed to be no leſs than 430 miles in length, from N. W. to S. E. by 300 wide. Till he took poſſeſſion of the Guntoor Circar, his dominions no where touched the ſea.

To the above, we have now to add thoſe which Tippoo Sultan ceded to him in the treaty of peace, ſigned, March, 18, 1792. viz.

	Kooneary pagodas.
Kerpah (or Cuddapah) Cummum, Ganjecotta, and Canoul, affording a revenue of - -	971,390
In Gooty - - -	51,782
In Adoni (Mooka) - -	12,162
In the Doöab, being parts of Rachore, and Mogul - - - -	2,81,332
	13,16,666

Berar Mahrattas.

This country is very little known to Europeans.

Nagpour is the capital.
Balafore has conſiderable trade.
Cuttack, on the Mahanada, an important poſt, which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the Britiſh, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

Northern Poonah Mahrattas.

They are governed at preſent by Sindia, Holkar, and ſome other leſs conſiderable princes.

Ougein, Sindia's capital
Indoor, Holkar's capital
Calpy, Gungdar Punt's capital
Sagur, Ballagee's capital.

Tippoo Sultan's Territories.

Have been diminiſhed one half in conſequence of the late treaty of peace. His remaining dominions are,

Provinces.	Chief towns.
Kingdom of Myſore - -	Seringapatam on the Caveri.
Bednore - -	Bednore, or Hyder Nugger.
Canara - -	Mangalore.

Chitteldroog, Harponelly, Roydroog, &c. are the capitals of territories of the ſame name.

Country of the Abdalli: This government, which includes the ſoubah of Cabul, and the neighbouring parts of Perſia, was formed by Abdalla, one of the generals of Thamas Kouli Khan, when on the death of that uſurper, his empire was diſmembered: its capital is Candahar in Perſia.

Country of the Seiks: They are ſaid to conſiſt of a number of ſmall ſtates independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jats or Gets, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zabeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Ferrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, ſurrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund.

Travancore, near Cape Comorin.

PERSIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 1300 Breadth 1100	between	44 and 70 eaſt longitude. 25 and 44 north latitude.		800,000

Boundaries.] MODERN Perſia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghiſtan, which divide it from Circaſſian

caſſian Tartary, on the North-Weſt; by the Caſpian ſea, which divides it from Ruſſia on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Uſbec Tartary, on the north-Eaſt; by India, on the Eaſt; and by the Indian ocean, and the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus, on the South; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the Weſt.

This kingdom is divided into the following provinces: on the frontiers of India are Chorafan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Eſterabad; Sableuſtan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigiſtan the ancient Drangiana. The ſouthern diviſion contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedroſſia, and Farſiſtan, the ancient Perſia. The ſouth-weſt diviſion, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chuſiſtan, the ancient Suſiana, and Irac-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The north-weſt diviſion, lying between the Caſpian ſea and the frontiers of Turkey in Aſia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media: Gangea, and Dagiſtan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan, and Mazanderan.

NAME. Perſia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perſeus, the ſon of Jupiter and Danaæ. Leſs fabulous authors ſuppoſe it derived from Paras, which ſignifies a horſeman; the Perſians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their ſkill in horſemanſhip.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In ſo extenſive a country as this the air and climate is very different. All along the coaſt of the Perſian gulf, from Weſt to Eaſt, to the very mouth of the river Indus, the heat for four months is ſo exceſſive, that even thoſe who are born in the country, unable to bear it, are forced to quit their houſes and retire to the mountains. The eaſtern provinces of Perſia from the river Indus to the border of Tartary are ſubject to great heats though not quite ſo unwholeſome as on the coaſts of the Indian ocean and the Perſian gulf. But in the northern provinces, on the coaſt of the Caſpian ſea, the heat is full as great, and though attended with moiſture, is as unwholeſome as on the coaſt before-mentioned. From October to May there is no country in the world more pleaſant than this, but the yellow complexions of the inhabitants are melancholy proofs of the malign influence of ſummer. The reſt of Perſia enjoys a dry air, the ſky being perfectly ſerene, and hardly ſo much as a cloud ſeen to fly in it. In the night, a briſk wind ſprings up, which gives ſuch a coolneſs to the air, that a man can bear a tolerable warm garment. The ſeaſons in general, and particularly in the middle of this kingdom, happen thus, the winter beginning in November and laſting until March, is very ſharp and rude, attended with froſt and ſnow, which laſt deſcends in great flakes in the mountains but never on the plains.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe vary like the air. The ſoil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caſpian ſea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life, is equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, ſenna, rhubarb, and the fineſt of drugs. The fruits are delicious, eſpecially their dates, oranges, piſtachia-nuts: melons, cucumbers, and garden ſtuffs, not to mention vaſt quantities of excellent ſilk; and the gulf of Baſſora formerly furniſhed great part of Europe and Aſia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Iſpahan eſpecially, produce almoſt all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from ſome of them, the roſes eſpecially, they extract waters of a ſalubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In ſhort, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Perſia, are of a moſt exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as ſome nations in

Europe, by tranſplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Perſian aſſa-fœtida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and ſome black; but the former is ſo much valued, that the natives make very rich ſauces of it, and ſometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the neceſſaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful ſpot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it is ſituated, either for the ſalubrity of the air, or for the profuſion of every thing neceſſary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harveſt is completed. Moſt of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are ſuperior in ſize and flavour to what can be raiſed in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are ſeveral ſorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly ſo than the reſt; one is the large white grape, which is extremely luſcious and agreeable to the taſte; the ſmall white grape, as ſweet as ſugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made, which is really delicious, and well deſerving of praiſe; ſo much ſo, that people who have drank it for a ſpace of time, ſeldom care for any other, though at the firſt taſte it is rather unpleaſant to an European. It is preſſed by the Armenians and Jews, in the months of October and November, and a vaſt deal is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Perſian Gulph, for ſupply of the Indian market. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Perſians call it the fruit of Paradiſe.

The breed of horſes in the province of Fars is at preſent very indifferent, owing to the ruinous ſtate of the country; but in the province of Duſhtiſtaan, lying to the ſouth-weſt, it is remarkably good. The ſheep are of a ſuperior flavour, owing to the excellence of the paſturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are alſo celebrated for the fineneſs of their fleece; they have tails of an extraordinary ſize, ſome of which I have ſeen weigh (ſays Mr. Francklin) upwards of thirty pounds; but thoſe which are ſold in the markets do not weigh above ſix or ſeven. Their oxen are large and ſtrong, but their fleſh is ſeldom eaten by the natives, who confine themſelves chiefly to that of ſheep and fowls.

Proviſions of all kinds are very cheap; and the neighbouring mountains affording an ample ſupply of ſnow throughout the year, the meaneſt artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled without any expence worthy conſideration. This ſnow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is ſold in the markets. The price of proviſions is regulated in Shirauz with the greateſt exactneſs by the Daroga or judge of the police, who ſets a fixed price upon every article, and no ſhop-keeper dares to demand more, under the ſevere penalty of loſing his noſe and ears; ſuch being the puniſhment attached to a crime of this nature; by which means the pooreſt inhabitants are effectually ſecured from impoſition, in ſo capital a point as the neceſſaries of life.

Mountains.] Theſe are Caucaſus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghiſtan; and the vaſt collection of mountains called Taurus, and their diviſions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

Rivers.] It has been obſerved, that no country, of ſo great an extent, has ſo few navigable rivers as Perſia. The moſt conſiderable are thoſe of Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which riſe in or near the

mountains of Ararat, and, joining their ſtreams, fall into the Caſpian ſea. Some ſmall rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their ſtreams are ſo inconſiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can ſcarcely be called a Perſian river, though it divides Perſia from Uſbec Tartary. Perſia has the river Indus on the eaſt, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the weſt.

WATER.] The ſcarcity of rivers, in Perſia, is joined to a ſcarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well ſupplied by means of reſervoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Perſia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoiſe ſtones, which are found in Choraſan. Sulphur, ſalt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have alſo been diſcovered near Tauris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It is impoſſible to ſpeak with any certainty concerning the population of a country ſo little known as that of Perſia. If we are to judge by the vaſt armies in modern as well as in ancient times, raiſed there, the numbers it contains muſt be very great. The Perſians of both ſexes are generally handſome; the men being fond of Georgian and Circaſſian women. Their complexions towards the ſouth are ſomewhat ſwarthy. The men ſhave their heads, but the young men ſuffer a lock of hair to grow on each ſide, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans, many of them coſt twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, ſo that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of reſpect even to the king. Their dreſs is very ſimple. Next to their ſkin they wear callico ſhirts, over them a veſt, which reaches below the knee, girt with a faſh, and over that a looſe garment ſomewhat ſhorter. The materials of their cloaths, however, are commonly very expenſive; conſiſting of the richeſt furs, ſilks, muſlin, cottons, and the like valuable ſtuffs, richly embroidered with gold and ſilver. They wear a kind of looſe boots on their legs, and ſlippers on their feet. They are fond of riding, and very expenſive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their faſh, and linen trowſers. The collars of their ſhirts and clothes are open; ſo that their dreſs upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpoſe both of health and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dreſs of the women is not much different; their wear, as well as that of the men, is very coſtly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and waſhes.

The Perſians accuſtom themſelves to frequent ablutions, which are the more neceſſary, as they ſeldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, ſweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repaſts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flour; and as they eſteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat, after it is dreſſed, theſe cakes are made thin, that they may be eaſily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton, or fowls, is ſo prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is ſet in order before them, they eat faſt, and without any ceremony. But it is obſerved by a late traveller, that when the oldeſt man in the company ſpeaks, though he be poor, and ſet at the lower end of the room, they all give a ſtrict attention to his words. They are temperate, but uſe opium, though not in ſuch abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great maſ-

maſters of ceremony towards their ſuperiors, and ſo polite, that they accommodate Europeans who viſit them with ſtools, that they may not be forced to ſit croſs-legged. They are ſo immoderately fond of tobacco, which they ſmoke through a tube fixed in water, ſo as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Perſians are naturally fond of poetry, moral ſentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and their national revolutions, have mingled the native Perſians with barbarous nations, and are ſaid to have taught them diſſimulation; but they are ſtill pleaſing and plauſible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hoſpitality.

The Perſians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their ſeals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuſcripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible ſeems to be oſtentation in their equipages and dreſſes; nor are they leſs jealous of their women than the Turks, and other eaſtern nations. They are fond of muſic, and take a pleaſure in converſing in large companies; but their chief diverſions are thoſe of the field, hunting, hawking, horſemanſhip, and the exerciſe of arms, in all which they are very dextrous. They excel, as their anceſtors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beaſts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shirauz (Mr. Francklin obſerves) diſtinguiſhed by the name of Zoor Khana, the houſe of ſtrength or exerciſe, to which the Perſians reſort for the ſake of exerciſing themſelves. Theſe houſes conſiſt of one room, with the floor ſunk about two feet below the ſurface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of ſeveral ſmall perforated apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large ſquare terrace of earth, well beaten down, ſmooth and even; and on each ſide are ſmall alcoves raiſed about two feet above the terrace, where the muſicians and ſpectators are ſeated. When all the competitors are aſſembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately ſtrip themſelves to the waiſt; on which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the ſhape of a pear; theſe they reſt upon each ſhoulder, and the muſic ſtriking up, they move them backwards and forwards with great agility, ſtamping with their feet at the ſame time, and ſtraining every nerve, till they produce a very profuſe perſpiration. After continuing this exerciſe about half an hour, upon a ſignal given they all leave off, quit their clubs, and joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briſkly in union with the muſic, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this for ſome time, they commence wreſtling, in which the maſter of the houſe is always the challenger; and being accuſtomed to the exerciſe, generally proves conqueror. The ſpectators pay each a ſhahee in money, equal to three pence Engliſh, for which they are refreſhed with a calean to ſmoke, and coffee. This mode of exerciſe muſt contribute to health, as well as add ſtrength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. It ſeems to bear ſome reſemblance to the gymnaſtic exerciſes of the ancients.

In attempting to ſay any thing of the character of the modern Perſians (ſays Mr. Francklin) I am ſenſible of the difficulty of the undertaking; yet as during my ſtay in Perſia, from the ſituation I was placed in, by living in a native family, I had an opportunity of ſeeing more of the nature and diſpoſi-

tion of the middling ſort of people, and their manners and cuſtoms, than has fallen to the lot of moſt travellers, I am induced to give the few obſervations I made during that period. The Perſians, with reſpect to outward behaviour, are certainly the Pariſians of the Eaſt. Whilſt a rude and inſolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkiſh nation towards foreigners and Chriſtians, the behaviour of the Perſians would, on the contrary, do honour to the moſt civilized nations: they are kind, courteous, civil and obliging to all ſtrangers, without being guided by thoſe religious prejudices ſo very prevalent in every other Mahometan nation; they are fond of enquiring after the manners and cuſtoms of Europe; and in return very readily afford any information in reſpect to their own country. The practice of hoſpitality is with them ſo grand a point, that a man thinks himſelf highly honoured if you will enter his houſe and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a houſe, without ſmoking a calean, or taking any other refreſhment, is deemed, in Perſia, a high affront; they ſay that every meal a ſtranger partakes with them brings a bleſſing upon the houſe.

The Perſians, in their converſation, uſe ſuch extravagant and hyperbolical compliments on the moſt trifling occaſions, that it would at firſt inſpire a ſtranger with an idea, that every inhabitant of the place was willing to lay down his life, ſhed his blood, or ſpend his money in your ſervice; and this mode of addreſs (which in fact means nothing) is obſerved not only by thoſe of a higher rank, but even amongſt the meaneſt artificers, the loweſt of which will make no ſcruple, on your arrival, of offering you the city of Shirauz and all its appurtenances, as a peiſhkuſh or preſent. This behaviour appears at firſt very remarkable to Europeans, but after a ſhort time becomes equally familiar. Freedom of converſation is a thing totally unknown in Perſia, as that *walls have ears* is proverbially in the mouth of every one.—The fear of chains which bind their bodies has alſo enſlaved their minds; and their converſation to men of ſuperior rank to themſelves is marked with ſigns of the moſt abject and ſlaviſh ſubmiſſion; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

In their converſation, the Perſians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verſes and paſſages from the works of their moſt favourite poets, Hafez, Sadi, and Jami; a practice univerſally prevalent from the higheſt to the loweſt; becauſe thoſe who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits ariſing from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive, and what they learn by heart, are always ready to bear their part in converſation. They alſo delight much in jokes and quaint expreſſions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they ſometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their converſation, which is the ſtrict attention they always pay to the perſon ſpeaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a perſonable, and in many reſpects a handſome people: their complexions, ſaving thoſe who are expoſed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The bright and ſparkling eyes of the women, which is a very ſtriking beauty, is in a great meaſure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called ſurma) which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural luſtre.

MARRIAGES.] When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out amongſt their kindred and acquaintance for a ſuitable match; they then go to the houſe where the female, they intend to demand,

demand, lives. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders ſweetmeats to be brought in, which is taken as a direct ſign of compliance. After this, the uſual preſents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which if the perſon be in middling circumſtances, generally conſiſt of two complete ſuits of apparel of the beſt ſort, a ring, a looking glaſs, and a ſmall ſum in ready money, of about ten or twelve tomans, which is to provide for the wife in caſe of divorce. There is alſo provided a quantity of houſehold ſtuff of all-ſorts, ſuch as carpets, mats, bedding, utenſils for dreſſing victuals, &c. The contract is witneſsed by the cadi, or magiſtrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth covered from head to foot in a veil of red ſilk, or painted muſlin; a horſe is then preſented for her to mount, which is ſent thither expreſsly by the bridegroom; and when ſhe is mounted, a large looking glaſs is held before her by one of the bridemaids, all the way to the houſe of her huſband, as an admonition to her, that it is the laſt time ſhe will look into the glaſs as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married ſtate. The proceſſion then ſets forward in the following order:—firſt, the muſic and dancing girls, after which the preſents in trays borne upon men's ſhoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all ſhouting, and making a great noiſe; who are followed by the bride herſelf, ſurrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horſe by the bridle, and ſeveral others on horſeback cloſe the proceſſion. Rejoicings upon this occaſion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Perſia, as well as through all Tartary; and travellers, or merchants, who intend to ſtay ſome time in any city, commonly apply to the cadee, or judge, for a wife during the time he propoſes to ſtay. The cadee, for a ſtated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honeſt, and free from diſeaſes; and he becomes ſurety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Ruſſian embaſſy to Perſia declares, that, amongſt thouſands, there has not been one inſtance of their diſhoneſty during the time agreed upon.

Funerals.] The funerals of the Perſians are conducted in a manner ſimilar to thoſe in other Mahomedan countries. On the death of a Muſſulman, the relations and friends of the deceaſed being aſſembled, make loud lamentations over the corpſe; after which it is waſhed and laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city walls, attended by a Mullah, or prieſt, who chaunts paſſages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Muſſulman ſhould chance to meet the corpſe during the proceſſion, he is obliged by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his aſſiſtance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the ſame time, *Lah Illah, Ill Lillah!* There is no God, but God. After interment, the relations of the deceaſed return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey and ſpices, which they eat in memory of the deceaſed, ſending a part of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they alſo may pay him a like honour. This cuſtom ſeems to be derived from very great antiquity, as we read in Homer of ſacrifices and libations being frequently made to the memory of departed ſouls.

Religion.] The Perſians are Mahometans of the ſect of Ali; for which reaſon the Turks, who follow the ſucceſſion of Omar and Abu Bekr, call them heretics. Their religion is, if poſſible, in ſome things more fantaſtical and ſenſual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with ſome Bramin ſuperſtitions. When they are taxed by the Chriſtians with drinking ſtrong liquours, as many of them do, they anſwer very ſenſibly,

"You

"You Chriſtians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing ſins, which is the very eaſe with us." Having mentioned the Bramins the compariſon between them and the Perſian *guebres* or *gaurs*, who pretend to be the diſciples and ſucceſſors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaſter, may be highly worth a learned diſquiſition; that both of them held originally pure and ſimple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be eaſily proved; but the Indian Bramins and Parſes accuſe the Gaurs, who ſtill worſhip the fire, of having ſenſualized thoſe ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combuſtible ground, about ten miles diſtant from Baku, a city in the north of Perſia, is the ſcene of the Guebres devotions. It muſt be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very ſurpriſing inflammatory qualities, and contains ſeveral old little temples; in one of which the Guebres pretend to preſerve the ſacred flame of the univerſal fire, which riſes from the end of a large hollow cane ſtuck into the ground, reſembling a lamp burning with very pure ſpirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the Gaurs, who were baniſhed out of Perſia by Shah Abbas. Their ſect, however, is ſaid to be numerous, though tolerated in very few places.

The long wars between the Perſians and the Romans ſeem early to have driven the ancient Chriſtians into Perſia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many ſects are found that evidently have Chriſtianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Souffees, who are a kind of quietiſts, ſacrifice their paſſions to God, and profeſs the moral duties. The Sabean Chriſtians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaiſm and Mahometaniſm; and are numerous towards the Perſian gulf. I have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Chriſtians, who are very numerous in Perſia. The preſent race of Perſians are ſaid to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing partly to their late wars with the Turks.

The Perſians obſerve the faſt during the month of Ramazan (the 9th month of the Mahomedan year) with great ſtrictneſs and ſeverity. About an hour before daylight, they eat a meal which is called ſehre, and from that time until the next evening at ſun-ſet, they neither eat nor drink of any thing whatever. It is even ſo rigid, that if in the courſe of the day, the ſmoke of a calean, or the ſmalleſt drop of water, reaches their lips, the faſt is in conſequence deemed broken, and of no avail. From ſun ſet until the next morning, they are allowed to refreſh themſelves. This faſt, when the month Ramazan falls in the middle of ſummer, as it ſometimes muſt do, (the Mahomedan year being lunar) is extremely ſevere, eſpecially to thoſe who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the day-time, and is rendered ſtill more ſo, as there are alſo ſeveral nights during its exiſtence, which they are enjoined to ſpend in prayer. The Perſians particularly obſerve two; the one being, that in which their prophet Ali died, from a wound which he received from the hands of an aſſaſſin three days before; which night is the 21ſt of Ramazan, the day of which is called by the natives, the day of murder.—The other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahomed: wherefore it is denominated the night of power.

LANGUAGE.] It has been diſputed among the learned whether the Arabs had not their language from the Perſians; but this chiefly reſts on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Perſian language, and the deciſion ſeems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, eſpecially

ly towards the ſouthern coaſts of the Caſpian Sea, ſpeak Turkiſh; and the Arabic probably was introduced into Perſia, under the caliphate, when learning flouriſhed in thoſe countries. Many of the learned Perſians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as the modiſh language, as we do the French. The pure Perſic is ſaid to be ſpoken in the ſouthern parts, on the coaſt of the Perſian Gulf, and in Iſpahan; but many of the provinces ſpeak a barbarous mixture of the Turkiſh, Ruſſian, and other languages. Their Paternoſter is of the following tenour:

Ei Padere ma kih der oſmoni; pak baſehed mâm tu; bayayed padſchahi tu; ſehwad chwáaſte tu henzjunáaukih der oſmon niz derzemin; béh mára jmrouz nân keſâf rouz mara; wadargudſar mara konâhan ma zjunankihma niz mig ſarim ormán mara; wador ozmajiſch minedâzzmara; lâkin chalas kun mara ez eſeherir. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Perſians, in ancient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the Eaſt. There is a manuſcript at Oxford, containing the lives of an hundred and thirty-five of the fineſt Perſian poets. Ferduſi and Sadi were among the moſt celebrated of the Perſian poets. The former compriſed the hiſtory of Perſia in a ſeries of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are ſaid by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of eaſtern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shirauz, and flouriſhed in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces both in proſe and verſe. Schemſeddin was one of the moſt eminent lyric poets that Aſia has produced; and Nakhſheb wrote in Perſian a book, called the Tales of a Parrot, not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a moſt animated and elegant poet, who flouriſhed in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whoſe beautiful compoſition, on a great variety of ſubjects, are preſerved at Oxford in twenty two volumes. Hairi, compoſed in a rich, elegant, and flowery ſtyle, a moral work, in fifty diſſertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interſperſed with a number of agreeable adventures and ſeveral fine pieces of poetry.

Of the ſprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are ſufficiently known to orientaliſts. It may, however, excite the curioſity of the Engliſh reader, that the poet Hafez, here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and the elegance of his verſes: that the moſt powerful monarchs of the Eaſt ſought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchaſe the praiſes of his Muſe by all the honours and ſplendour of a court: and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of myſtic piety to the ſuperſtitious Mahometan; the oracle, which, like the *Sortes Virgilianæ*, determined the councils of the wiſe, and prognoſticated the fate of armies and of ſtates. Seventeen odes have already been tranſlated into Engliſh by Mr. Nott, with which he has publiſhed the originals, for the purpoſe of promoting the ſtudy of the Perſian language. The 12th ode has alſo appeared in an Engliſh dreſs, by the elegant hand of Sir William Jones.

The tomb of this celebrated and deſervedly admired poet, ſtands about two miles diſtant from the walls of the city of Shirauz, on the north eaſt ſide. It is placed in a large garden, and under the ſhade of ſome cyprus trees of extraordinary ſize and beauty; it is compoſed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breadth; this was built by

by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one: on the top and ſides of the tomb, are ſelect pieces from the poet's own works, moſt beautifully cut in the Perſian Nuſtaleek character. During the ſpring and ſummer ſeaſons, the inhabitants viſit here, and amuſe themſelves with ſmoking, playing at cheſs and other games, reading alſo the works of Hafez, who is in greater eſteem with them than any other of their poets, and they venerate him almoſt to adoration, never ſpeaking of him but in the higheſt terms of rapture and enthuſiaſm; a moſt elegant copy of his works is kept upon the tomb, for the purpoſe and the inſpection of all who go there. The principal youth of the city aſſemble here, and ſhew every poſſible mark of reſpect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shirauz to his memory. Cloſe by the garden runs the ſtream of Roknabad, ſo celebrated in the works of Hafez, and, within a ſmall diſtance, the ſweet bower of Moſellay.

At preſent learning is at a very low ebb among the Perſians. Their boaſted ſkill in aſtronomy is now reduced to a mere ſmattering in that ſcience, and terminates in judicial aſtrology; ſo that no people in the world are more ſuperſtitious than the Perſians. The learned profeſſion in greateſt eſteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with aſtrology, becauſe every doſe muſt be in the lucky hour fixed by the aſtrologer, which often defeats the ends of the preſcription. It is ſaid, however, that the Perſian phyſicians are acute and ſagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no ſtrangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; as equally rare are many other diſeaſes that are fatal in other places; ſuch as the gout, the ſtone, the ſmall-pox, conſumptions, and apoplexies. The Perſian practice of phyſic is therefore pretty much circumſcribed, and they are very ignorant in ſurgery, which is exerciſed by barbers, whoſe chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they truſt the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. The monuments of antiquity in Perſia, are more celebrated for their magnificence and expence, than their beauty or taſte. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of * Perſepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and compoſed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Perſia, but void of that elegance and beauty which are diſplayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Perſia are ſtupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with ſculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be ſeen at Iſpahan, ſixty feet high, conſiſting of the ſkulls of beaſts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the ſuppreſſion of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect ſuch a column of human ſkulls; but upon the ſubmiſſion of the rebels, he performed his vow by ſubſtituting thoſe of brutes, each of the rebels furniſhing one.

The baths near Gombroon work ſuch cures, that they are eſteemed among the natural curioſities of Perſia. The ſprings of the famous Naphtha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural hiſtory for their ſur-

* Mr. Francklin has lately favoured the world with a very full account of the ruins of this celebrated palace. We have availed ourſelves of many of his obſervations upon this empire; but his deſcription of theſe ruins is too long to be inſerted in this work.

priſing

priſing qualities; but the chief of the natural curioſities in this country, is the burning phænomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houſes of men of quality in Perſia, are in the ſame taſte with thoſe of the Aſiatic Turks already deſcribed. They are ſeldom above one ſtory high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumſy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houſes being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly conſiſts of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which ſerve them likewiſe as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Iſpahan or Spahawn, the capital of Perſia, is ſeated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which ſupplies it with water. It is ſaid to be twelve miles in circumference. The ſtreets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amuſement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houſes, where they ſpend their ſummer evenings; and different families aſſociate together. The royal ſquare is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth; and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Iſpahan 160 moſques, 1800 caravanſerais, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine ſquares, ſtreets, and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to ſhade and better accommodate the people. This capital is ſaid formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, ſo that we may eaſily ſuppoſe, that it has loſt great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1744, when Mr. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houſes were inhabited.

Shirauz lies about 225 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Iſpahan. It is ſeated at the north weſt end of a ſpacious plain ſurrounded with very high mountains, under one of which the town ſtands. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpreſſibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and wines of which are incomparable. The wines of Shirauz are reckoned the beſt of any in Perſia. This town is the capital of Farſiſtan, or Perſia Proper, and had a college for the ſtudy of eaſtern learning. It contains an uncommon number of moſques, tiled with ſtones of a bluiſh green colour, and lined within with black poliſhed marble, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its ſtreets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houſes are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravenſerais: that diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of the Vakeel's bazar (ſo called from its being built by Kherim Khan) is, upon the authority of Mr. Francklin, who lately viſited it, by far the handſomeſt. It is a long ſtreet, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed ſomething in the ſtyle of the piazzas in Covent Garden; it is lofty and well made; on each ſide are the ſhops of the tradeſmen, merchants, and others, in which are expoſed for ſale, a variety of goods of all kinds: theſe ſhops are the property of the khan, and are rented to the merchants at a very eaſy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar is a ſpacious caravanſerai, of an octagon form, built of brick; the entrance through a handſome arched gate-way; in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandize, and on the ſides above and below, commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; theſe are alſo rented at a moderate monthly ſum. About the centre of the above-mentioned bazar, is another ſpacious cara-

vanſerai of a ſquare form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to repreſent China ware, and has a pleaſing effect to the eye.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Perſian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The Engliſh and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Perſians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which ſet out from various inland cities of Aſia, under the convoy of guards.

MOSQUES AND BAGNIOS.] I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the ſame all over the Mahometan countries.

Moſques are religious buildings, ſquare, and generally of ſtone: before the chief gate there is a ſquare court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whoſe roof is ſupported by marble pillars. Thoſe galleries ſerve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the moſque. About every moſque there are ſix high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. Theſe towers, as well as the moſques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, inſtead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpoſe. No woman is allowed to enter the moſque; nor can a man with his ſhoes or ſtockings on. Near moſt moſques is a place of entertainment for ſtrangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the Koran, and praying.

The city of Shirauz is adorned (according to Mr. Francklin) with many fine moſques, particularly that built by the late Kerim Khan, which is a noble one: being very well diſguiſed, ſays our traveller, in my Perſian dreſs, I had an opportunity of entering the building unobſerved; it is of a ſquare form; in the centre is a ſtone reſervoir of water, made for performing the neceſſary ablutions, previous to prayer; on the four ſides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotion, ſome of the fronts of which are covered with China tiles; but Kerim Khan dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls, on each ſide, are engraved various ſentences from the Koran, in the Nuſhki character; and at the upper end of the ſquare, is a large dome with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the vakeel or ſovereign: this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three large ſilver lamps ſuſpended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another moſque, which the Perſians call the Musjídi Noó, or the New Moſque, but its date is nearly coeval with the city itſelf, at leaſt ſince it has been inhabited by Mahometans: it is a ſquare building of a noble ſize, and has apartments for prayer on each ſide; in them are many inſcriptions in the old Cufick character, which of themſelves denote the antiquity of the place.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well conſtructed for the purpoſe of bathing. Sometimes they are ſquare, but oftener circular, built of white well poliſhed ſtone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the firſt for dreſſing and undreſſing; the ſecond contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholeſome; though to thoſe not accuſtomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with

with great vigour, then handles and ſtretches his limbs as if he was diſlocating every bone in the body; all which exerciſes are, in thoſe inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies ſucceed, and when coming out of the bath diſplay their fineſt clothes.

I might here attempt to deſcribe the eaſtern ſeraglios or harams, the women's apartments; but from the moſt credible accounts, they are contrived according to the taſte and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments, which are ſeldom or never entered by ſtrangers; and there is no country where women are ſo ſtrictly guarded and confined, as among the great men in Perſia.

POLICE.] The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Perſia, is very good. At ſun-ſet, the gates of the city are ſhut; no perſon whatever is permitted either to come in or go out, during the night; the keys of the different gates being always ſent to the hakim or governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three tiblas, or drums, are beaten at three different times; the firſt at eight o'clock, the ſecond at nine, and the third at half paſt ten. After the third tibla has ſounded all perſons whatſoever found in the ſtreets by the daroga, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are inſtantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the hakim; and if they cannot give a very good account of themſelves, are puniſhed, either by the baſtinado, or a fine.

Civil matters are all determined by the cazi, and eccleſiaſtical ones, (particularly divorces) by the ſheick al Sellaum, or head of the faith, an office anſwering to that of Mufti in Turkey. Juſtice is carried on in Perſia in a very ſummary manner; the ſentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the ſpot. Theft is generally puniſhed with the loſs of noſe and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which ſituation he is expoſed upon a gibbet in one of the moſt public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment. The penal laws in this country are ſo varied, ſanguinary, and cruel, that the bare recital of them muſt excite horror in the minds of thoſe who are born in a land of freedom, where the high are protected from the ſpoliations of rapacity, and the low from the iron hand of oppreſſion, and where the awful brow of juſtice is crowned with the milder attributes of lenity and compaſſion.

MANUFACTURE AND COMMERCE.] The Perſians equal, if not exceed, all the manufactures in the world in ſilk, woollen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in theſe join fancy, taſte, and elegance to richneſs, neatneſs, and ſhew; and yet they are ignorant of painting and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their ſilver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preſerving their luſtre. Their embroideries and horſe furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glaſs manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artiſts, which is ſaid to be owing to the ſcarcity of timber all over Perſia. Their jewellers and goldſmiths are clumſy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glaſſes. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpreſſible diſadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them ſlaves to their kings, who often engroſs either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Perſians, who have little or no ſhipping of their own, is

carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the Engliſh and other nations, by the gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the moſt gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. A trade was alſo not many years ſince opened by the Engliſh with Perſia through Ruſſia and the Caſpian ſea; but that is now diſcontinued, having been prohibited by the court of Ruſſia, who were apprehenſive that the Engliſh would teach the Perſians to build ſhips and diſpute the navigation of the Caſpian ſea with them; this Sea is about 680 miles long and 260 broad in the wideſt part. It has no tide, but is navigable by veſſels drawing from 9 to 10 feet water, with ſeveral good ports. The Ruſſian ports are Kiſlar and Gurief. Derbent and Niezabad belong to Perſia, as alſo Einzellee and Aſtrabad, with Baku, the moſt commodious haven in this ſea, and which hath a fortreſs ſurrounded with high walls. As the manufactures and ſilk of Ghilan are eſteemed the beſt in Perſia, Reſchd on the Caſpian is one of the firſt commercial towns in this part of Aſia, and ſupplies the bordering provinces with European merchandize.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Both theſe are extremely precarious, as reſting in the breaſt of a deſpotic, and often capricious monarch. The Perſians, however, had ſome fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but their male progeny. Blindneſs likewiſe was a diſqualification for the royal ſucceſſion. In other reſpects the king's will was a law for the people. The inſtances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practiſed by the Mahometan kings of Perſia, are almoſt incredible, eſpecially during the laſt two centuries. The reaſon given to the Chriſtian ambaſſadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their moſt celebrated princes, was, that the Perſians were ſuch brutes, and ſo inſenſible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exerciſe of exemplary cruelties. The prime miniſter ſuſtains the whole weight of the adminiſtration. His chief ſtudy is to pleaſe his maſter, to ſecure to himſelf an aſcendant over his mind, and to avoid whatever may give him uneaſineſs or umbrage. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counſellors, and the ſmalleſt diſobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. There is no nobility in Perſia, or any reſpect ſhewn to any man on account of his family, except to thoſe who are of the blood of their great prophet or patriarchs, but every man is eſteemed according to the poſt he poſſeſſes; and when he is diſmiſſed, he loſes his honour, and he is no longer diſtinguiſhed from the vulgar.

REVENUES.] The king claims one third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his ſubjects, and likewiſe a third of ſilk and cotton. No rank or condition of Perſians is exempted from ſevere taxations and ſervices. The governors of provinces have particular lands aſſigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's houſhould, and great officers of ſtate. After ſaying thus much, the reader cannot doubt that the revenues of the Perſian kings were prodigious; but nothing can be ſaid with any certainty in the preſent diſtracted ſtate of that country. Even the water that is let into the fields and gardens is ſubject to a tax, and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This conſiſted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raiſed bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but, according to the modern hiſtories of Perſia, they are eaſily recruited in caſe of a defeat. The Perſians have few fortified towns; nor

nor had they any ſhips of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy; but ſince his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Perſian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the riſing ſun. His title is Shah, or the "*Diſpoſer of kingdoms.*" Shah or Khan, and Sultan, which he aſſumes likewiſe, are Tartar titles. To acts of ſtate the Perſian monarch does not ſubſcribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner: "This act is given by him whom the univerſe obeys."

HISTORY.] All ancient hiſtorians mention the Perſian monarchs and their grandeur; and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here ſufficient to ſay, that the Perſian empire ſucceeded the Aſſyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Chriſt, and reſtored the Iſraelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the perſon of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Chriſt. When Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, their poſterity were conquered by the Romans. Theſe laſt, however, never fully ſubdued Perſia, and the natives had princes of their own, by the name of Arſacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The ſucceſſors of thoſe princes ſurvived the Roman empire itſelf, but were ſubdued by the famous Tamerlane, whoſe poſterity were ſupplanted by a doctor of law, the anceſtor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be deſcended from Mahomet himſelf. His ſucceſſors, from him ſometimes called Sophis, though ſome of them were valiant and politic, proved in general to be a diſgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into ſuch a diſrepute with their ſubjects, barbarous as they were, that Haſſein, a prince of the Sefi race, who ſucceeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, ſon and ſucceſſor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himſelf was by Eſref, one of his general officers, who uſurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the repreſentative of the Sefi family, had eſcaped from the rebels, and aſſembling an army, took into his ſervice Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Eſref, and reannexed to the Perſian monarchy all the places diſmembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At laſt the ſecret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after aſſuming the name of Tahmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his ſervices were not ſufficiently rewarded, he rebelled againſt his ſovereign, made him a priſoner, and, it is ſuppoſed, put him to death.

This uſurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. His expedition into Indoſtan, and the amazing booty he made there, has been mentioned in the deſcription of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconſiderable part of his booty from India, loſing great part of it upon his return by the Mahrattas and accidents. He next conquered Uſbec Tartary; but was not ſo ſucceſsful againſt the Daghiſtan Tartars, whoſe country he found to be inacceſſible. He beat the Turks in ſeveral engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to ſtrike terror into all his ſubjects by the moſt cruel executions. His conduct became ſo intolerable, and particularly his attempt to change the religion of Perſia to that of Omar, and hanging the chief prieſts that reſiſted, it was thought his brain was touched; and he was aſſaſſinated in his own tent, partly in ſelf-defence, by his chief officers, and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders upon his death, ſtarted up; and it may naturally be ſuppoſed, that a chronological and accurate account of theſe various and rapid revolutions is very difficult to be obtained. The confuſion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir,

until

until the ſettlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and ſciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Perſia was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties in different provinces of the kingdom ſtruggling for power, and each endeavouring to render himſelf independent of the other, torrents of blood were ſhed, and the moſt ſhocking crimes were committed with impunity. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Ruſſia, preſents to the view thouſands of inſtances of the miſery and devaſtation which has been occaſioned by theſe commotions. The picture is melancholy, but juſt.

From the death of Nadir Shaw until the final eſtabliſhment of Kerim Khan's government, there were no leſs than nine pretenders to the throne including himſelf; from this the reader may form ſome notion of the troubles which convulſed that unhappy country. Kerim Khan Zund was a moſt favourite officer of Nadir Shah, and at the time of his death was in the ſouthern provinces. Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at laſt, after various encounters, with doubtful ſucceſs, completely to ſubdue all his rivals; and finally to eſtabliſh himſelf as ruler of all Perſia. He was in power about thirty years, the latter part of which he governed Perſia under the appellation of Vakeel, or regent; for he never would receive the title of Shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his reſidence, in gratitude for the aſſiſtance he had received from its inhabitants, and thoſe of the ſouthern inhabitants. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his ſubjects, who eſteemed and honoured him as the glory of Perſia. His character is moſt deſervedly celebrated for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained, ſo that during his whole reign there was not in Shirauz a ſingle riot productive of bloodſhed; beſides theſe, his averſion to ſevere puniſhments, his liberality and kindneſs to the poor, his toleration of people of different perſuaſions, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities, and perſonal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own ſubjects, but greatly reſpected by foreign powers.

From the death of Kerim Khan to the preſent time, a variety of competitors have been deſirous of filling the throne of Perſia. Akau Mahomet Khan keeps poſſeſſion of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Iſpahan, Hamadan, and Tauris, where he is acknowledged as ſovereign. Jaafar Khan has poſſeſſion of the city of Shirauz and the provinces of Beaboon and Shuſter; he alſo receives an annual preſent from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd; Abu Shehr and Lar alſo ſend him tribute.

Jaafar Khan is a middle aged man, very corpulent, and has a caſt in his right eye; in the places where he is acknowledged he is well beloved and reſpected. He is very mild in his diſpoſition, and juſt. In Shirauz he keeps up a moſt excellentpolice, and good government. He is very kind and obliging to ſtrangers in general, and to the Engliſh in particular. Of the two competitors, Mr. Francklin from whoſe excellent obſervations theſe particulars are moſtly extracted, ſays, that Jaaffar Kawn "is the moſt likely in caſe of ſucceſs againſt his opponent, to reſtore the country to a happy and reputable ſtate; but it will require a long ſpace of time to recover it from the calamities into which the different revolutions have brought it:—a country, if an Oriental metaphor may be allowed, once blooming as the garden of Eden, fair and flouriſhing to the eye;—now, ſad reverſe; deſpoiled and leafleſs by the cruel ravages of war, and deſolating contention."

ARABIA.

ARABIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 1300 Breadth 1200	between	35 and 60 East long. 12 and 30 North lat.		700,000

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Turkey, on the North; by the gulfs of Perfia or Baſſora, and Ormus, which ſeparate it from Perſia, on the Eaſt; by the Indian ocean, ſouth; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Sub-diviſions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.	—— ——	Suez, E. lon. 33-27 N. lat. 29-50.
2. Arabia Deſerta, in the middle.	Haggiaz or Mecca –	Mecca, E. lon. 43-30 N. lat. 21-20.
		Siden
		Medina
	Tehema – –	Dhafar
3. Arabia Felix, S. E.	Mocha – –	Mocha, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45.
		Sibit
	Hadramut —	Hadramut
	Caſſeen — —	Caſſeen
	Segur — —	Segur
	Oman or Muſcat	Muſcat
	Jamama –	Jamama
	Bahara –	Elcalf

Name.] It is remarkable that this country has always preſerved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally ſaid, ſignifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is ſaid to ſignify both a thief and an inhabitant of the deſert. Theſe names juſtly belong to the Arabians, for they ſeldom let any merchandiſe paſs through the country without extorting ſomething from the owners, if they do not rob them.

Mountains.] The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, eaſt of the Red Sea, and thoſe called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the moſt noted.

Rivers, seas, gulfs, and capes.] There are few mountains, ſprings, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which waſhes the north-eaſt limits of it. It is almoſt ſurrounded with ſeas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red ſea, the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are thoſe of Roſalgate and Muſſeldon.

Climate, air, soil, and produce.] As a conſiderable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer paſſes over Arabia Felix, the air is exceſſively dry and hot, and the country is ſubject

to

to hot poiſonous winds, like thoſe on the oppoſite ſhores of Perſia, which often prove fatal, eſpecially to ſtrangers. The ſoil, in ſome parts, is nothing more than immenſe ſands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and ſometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or loſt. In theſe deſerts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at ſea, by a compaſs, or by the ſtars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, ſays Dr. Shaw, are no paſtures clothed with flocks, nor vallies ſtanding thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive yards; but the whole is a loneſome deſolate wilderneſs, no other ways diverſified than by plains covered with ſand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unleſs ſometimes at the equinoxes, refreſhed with rain; and the intenſeneſs of the cold in the night is almoſt equal to that of the heat in the day time. But the ſouthern part of Arabia, deſervedly called the Happy, is bleſſed with an excellent ſoil, and in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the ſea coaſt, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, frankincenſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey and wax in plenty, with a ſmall quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which laſt are found ſcarcely any where in ſuch perfection as here and in Perſia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The moſt uſeful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for traverſing the dry and parched deſerts of this country; for they are ſo formed, that they can throw up the liquor from their ſtomach into their throat, by which means they can travel ſix or eight days without water. The camels uſually carry 800lb. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to reſt, and in due time riſe with their load. The dromedary is a ſmall camel that will travel many miles a day. It is an obſervation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will ſmell it at a diſtance, and ſet up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horſes are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of thoſe in England. They are only fit for the ſaddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their ſwiftneſs and high mettle. The fineſt breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is ſituated.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS.] The Arabians, like moſt of the nations of Aſia, are of a middle ſtature, thin, and of a ſwarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are ſwift of foot, excellent horſemen, and are ſaid to be, in general, a martial brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, ſince they became acquainted with fire arms, good markſmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done ſince they became a nation.

The Arabians in general are ſuch thieves, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations, through motives of devotion or curioſity, are ſtruck with terror on their approaches towards the deſerts. Theſe robbers, headed by a captain, traverſe the country in conſiderable troops on horſeback, and aſſault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that ſo late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 perſons, and

and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel they can master, of whatever nation.

The habit of the common class of Arabs is a kind of blue shirt tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up, that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Nothing can be more inconvenient and expensive than the headdress worn by Arabians of fashion. They wear fifteen caps, one over another, of which some indeed are of linen, but the rest of thick cloth or cotton. That which covers all the rest is usually richly embroidered with gold, and has always some sentence of the Koran embroidered upon it. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs, and prefer that of camels, as we prefer venison, to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. As the Arabians squat themselves upon the ground when they sit, so their manner of eating at meals is conformable to their way of sitting. They spread a large cloth in the middle of the room, put upon this cloth a small table only one foot high, and upon the table a large round plate of tinned copper. Upon this are set different copper dishes neatly tinned within and without. Instead of table napkins, Arabians of rank use a long linen cloth, which those at table put under their knees. Where this linen cloth is wanting, every one uses a small handkerchief of his own. They use no knives nor forks, but use their fingers with great dexterity, and eat all dishes with the hand. Coffee and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges, water, and sugar, is their usual drink: they have no strong liquors.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are still Pagans, but the people in general profess Mahometanism.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant. The vulgar language used in the three Arabias is, the Arabesk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over great part of the East, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is said to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the East accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin is amongst Europeans, and used by Mahometans in their worship: for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other: they look upon it to have been the language of Paradise, and think no man can be a master of it without a miracle, as consisting of several millions of words. The books which treat of it, say, they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. The Paternoster in the Arabic is as follows:

Abuna elladhi fi ſſamwat: jetkaddas eſmác; tati malacutac: taouri maſchiatic, cama; fi-ſſama; kedhalec ala lardh aating chopzena kefatna iaum beiaum; wag for lena donubena wachataina, cama nog for nachna lemen aca doina; wala tadalchalna fihajarib; laken neſſina me nneſcherir. Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, AND ARTS.

What is called the Deſert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-eaſt, but to the ſouthward is cloſed by ſome of the lower eminences of mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make ſuch encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each ſo capacious as to be ſufficient to receive the whole camp of the Iſraelites.

From Mount Sinai may be ſeen Mount Horeb, where Moſes kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he ſaw the burning buſh. On thoſe mountains are many chapels and cells, poſſeſſed by the Greek and Latin monks, who like the religious at Jeruſalem pretend to ſhew the very ſpot where every miracle or tranſaction recorded in Scripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muſcat, Suez, and Juddah, where moſt of the trade of this country is carried on.

Mocha is well built, the houſes very lofty, and are with the walls and forts covered with a chinam or ſtucco, that gives a dazzling whiteneſs to them. The harbour is ſemicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are ſeveral handſome moſques in the city. Suez, the Arſinoe of the ancients is ſurrounded by the Deſert, and but a ſhabby ill-built place. The ſhips are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. Juddah is the place of the greateſt trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets, and is interchanged, the former ſending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe come cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the way of Cairo. The revenues of theſe, with the profits of the port, are ſhared by the Grand Signior, and the Xeriff of Mecca, to whom this place jointly belongs.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deſerves particular notice. Mecca is a place of no ſtrength having neither walls nor gates, and the buildings are very mean. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a moſque ſo glorious, that it is generally counted the moſt magnificent of any temple in the Turkiſh dominions: its lofty roof being raiſed in faſhion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conſpicuous at a great diſtance. The moſque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within, is decorated with the fineſt gildings and tapeſtry. The number of pilgrims who yearly viſit this place is almoſt incredible, every Muſſulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his lifetime, or ſend a deputy. This annual reſort of pilgrims is indeed the only thing which ſupports it, for the ſhops are ſcarcely open all the year beſides. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a ſtately moſque, ſupported by 400 pillars, and furniſhed with 300 ſilver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the "*Moſt Holy*," by the Turks, becauſe in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of ſilver tiſſue, which the baſhaw of Egypt, by order of the Grand Signior, renews every year. The camel which carries it derives a ſort of ſanctity from it, and is never to be uſed in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin is a rich golden creſcent, ſo curiouſly wrought, and adorned with precious ſtones, that it is eſteemed a maſterpiece of great value. Thither the pilgrims reſort, as to Mecca, but not in ſuch numbers.

GOVERN-

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are ſtyled xeriffs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and prieſt, in the ſame manner as the califs of the Saracens, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet. Theſe monarchs appear to be abſolute, both in ſpirituals and temporals; the ſucceſſion is hereditary, and they have no other laws than thoſe found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe ſubjection to the Turks, and are governed by baſhaws reſiding among them; but it is certain, that they receive large gratuities from the Grand Signior for protecting the pilgrims that paſs through their country from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no ſtanding regular militia, but the kings command both the perſons and the purſes of their ſubject, as the neceſſity of affairs require.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of this country in ſome meaſure differs from that of all others; for as the ſlavery and ſubjection of other nations make a great part of their hiſtory, that of the Arabs is entirely compoſed of their conqueſts or independence. The Arabs are deſcended from Iſhmael, of whoſe poſterity it was foretold, that they ſhould be invincible "have their hands againſt every man, and every man's hands againſt theirs." They are at preſent, and have remained from the remoteſt ages, during the various conqueſts of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Towards the north, and the ſea-coaſts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the ſouthern and inland parts acknowledge themſelves ſubject to no foreign power, and do not fail to haraſs and annoy all ſtrangers who come into their country. The conqueſts of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their hiſtory, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. Theſe, as well as their religion, began with one man, whoſe character forms a very ſingular phœnomenon in the hiſtory of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that diviſion of Arabia, which, for the luxuriancy of its ſoil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been eſteemed the loveliеſt and ſweeteſt region of the world, and is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomet was born in the ſixth century, anno 569, in the reign of Juſtinian II. emperor of Conſtantinople. Though deſcended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, Mahomet was endued with a ſubtile genius, like thoſe of the ſame country, and poſſeſſed a degree of enterprize and ambition peculiar to himſelf, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occaſion, in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Paleſtine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the ſervice of a rich merchant, upon whoſe death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be poſſeſſed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the Eaſt, he had obſerved the vaſt variety of ſects in religion, whoſe hatred againſt each other was ſtrong and inveterate, while at the ſame time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of theſe particulars, by means of which, and by addreſſing himſelf to the love of power, riches, and pleaſure, paſſions univerſal among them, he expected to raiſe a new ſyſtem of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been eſtabliſhed. In this deſign he was aſſiſted by Sergius, a monk, whoſe libertine diſpoſition had made him forſake his cloiſter, and profeſſion, and engage in the ſervice of Cadiga, with whom he remained

as a domeſtic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for ſupplying the defects which his maſter, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, muſt have obſtructed the execution of his deſign. It was neceſſary, however, that the religion they propoſed to eſtabliſh ſhould have a divine ſanction; and for this purpoſe Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often ſubject to fits of the epilepſy, a diſeaſe which thoſe whom it afflicts are deſirous to conceal; Mahomet gave out therefore that theſe fits were trances, into which he was miraculouſly thrown by God Almighty, during which he was inſtructed in his will, which he was commanded to publiſh to the world. By this ſtrange ſtory, and by leading a retired, abſtemious, and auſtere life, he eaſily acquired a character for ſuperior ſanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himſelf ſufficiently fortified by the numbers and the enthuſiaſm of his followers, he boldly declared himſelf a prophet, ſent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his ſyſtem ſo narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthuſiaſtic, was enlarged by travelling into diſtant lands, whoſe manners and religion he had made a peculiar ſtudy. He propoſed that the ſyſtem he eſtabliſhed ſhould extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whoſe doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eaſtern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jeſus Chriſt was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanaſian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into theſe corners of the world from the perſecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of theſe countries were Pagans. Theſe, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and like men whoſe religious principles is weak, had given themſelves over to pleaſure and ſenſuality, or to the acquiſition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of ſenſe, which together with the doctrine of predeſtination, compoſed the ſole principles of their religion and philoſophy. Mahomet's ſyſtem was exactly ſuited to theſe three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had ſent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moſes and Jeſus Chriſt were the moſt eminent; but the endeavours of theſe had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now ſent his laſt and greateſt prophet, with a commiſſion more ample than what Moſes or Chriſt had been entruſted with. He had commanded him not only to publiſh his laws, but to ſubdue thoſe who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end to eſtabliſh a kingdom upon earth which ſhould propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had deſigned utter ruin and deſtruction to thoſe who ſhould refuſe to ſubmit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the ſpoils and poſſeſſions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradiſe of all ſenſual enjoyments, eſpecially thoſe of love; that the pleaſures of ſuch as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intenſe, and vaſtly tranſcend thoſe of the reſt. Theſe, together with the prohibition of drinking ſtrong liquors (a reſtraint not very ſevere in warm climates) and the doctrine of predeſtination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no ſooner publiſhed than a vaſt many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the prieſt we formerly mentioned, and compoſe a

book

book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we ſay the Bible, which means the book. The perſon of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; ſo that the greater part of them were ſufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a deſign to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the City of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to cuſtom, greateſt at a diſtance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622 year of Chriſt, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his miniſtry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time, and the æra is called, in Arabic, Hegira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomet, by the aſſiſtance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his inſinuation and addreſs daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at leaſt to an acquieſcence in his doctrines. The ſpeedy propagation of his ſyſtem among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the Eaſt, who were previouſly diſpoſed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forſook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion ſpread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt and Perſia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became the moſt powerful monarch in his time. He was proclaimed king at Medina in the year 627, and after ſubduing part of Arabia and Syria, he died in 632 leaving two branches of his race, both eſteemed divine among their ſubjects. Theſe were the caliphs of Perſia and of Egypt, under the laſt of which Arabia was included. The former of theſe turned their arms to the Eaſt, and made conqueſts of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe, and under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained becauſe they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced moſt of Spain, France, Italy, and the iſlands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the ſucceſſors of that impoſtor ſpread their religion and conqueſts over the greateſt part of Aſia, Africa, and Europe; and they ſtill give law to a very conſiderable part of mankind.

The INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Niphon, Bongo, Tonſa, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN, and are governed by a moſt deſpotic prince, who is ſometimes called emperor, and ſometimes king. They are ſituated about 150 miles eaſt of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41ſt degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of eaſt longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141ſt degree of eaſt longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The ſoil and productions of the country are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacker ware, known by the name of Japan. I have already mentioned the circumſtances of the Dutch expelling the Portugueſe from this gainful trade. The iſlands themſelves are very innacceſſible, through their high rocks and tempeſtuous ſeas; they are ſubject to earthquakes, to which the inhabitants are

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ſo accuſtomed that they are ſcarcely alarmed at any, unleſs they be very terrible indeed, and lay whole towns in ruins, which very often proves the caſe. Their ſeas, lakes, and rivers abound with fiſh; and their mountains, woods, and foreſts are well ſtocked with horſes, elephants, deer, oxen, buffaloes, ſheep, hogs, and other uſeful animals. Some of their mountains are alſo enriched with mines of gold, ſilver, and copper, exquiſitely fine: of theſe mountains ſome may be juſtly ranked among the natural curioſities of this country; one, in particular in the great iſland of Niphon, is of ſuch a prodigious height as to be eaſily ſeen 40 leagues off at ſea, though its diſtance from the ſhore is 18. Some authors think it exceeds the peak of Teneriffe, but it may rather be called a cluſter or group of mountains among which are no leſs than eight dreadful volcanoes, burning with incredible fury, and often laying waſte the country round them. The many brooks and rivers that have their ſources among the mountains form a great number of delightful caſcades as well as ſome dreadful cataracts. Among the great variety of trees in the foreſts here, the cedars exceed all of that kind through India for ſtraightneſs, height, and beauty. The Japaneſe are the groſſeſt of all idolaters, and ſo irreconcileable to Chriſtianity, that it is commonly ſaid the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themſelves to be no Chriſtians, and humour the Japaneſe in the moſt abſurd ſuperſtitions. Notwithſtanding all this compliance, the natives are very ſhy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch, and Nagaſacci, in the iſland of Dezima, is the only place where they are ſuffered to trade. The complexions of the Japaneſe are in general yelloviſh, although ſome few, chiefly women, are almoſt white. Their narrow eyes, and high eyebrows, are like thoſe of the Chineſe and Tartars; and their noſes are ſhort and thick. Their hair is univerſally black; and ſuch a ſameneſs of faſhion reigns throughout this whole empire, that the head dreſs is the ſame from the emperor to the peaſant. The faſhion of their cloaths has alſo remained the ſame from very high antiquity. They conſiſt of one or more looſe gowns, tied about the middle with a ſaſh. People of rank have them made of ſilk, but the lower claſs of cotton ſtuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or ſilver flowers woven into the ſtuff. Their houſes are built with upright poſts, croſſed and wattled with bamboo, plaiſtered both without and within, and white-waſhed. They generally have two ſtories; but the uppermoſt is low, and ſeldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms; neither tables, chairs, ſtools, benches, cupboards, or even beds. Their cuſtom is to ſit down on their heels upon the mats, which are always ſoft and clean. Their victuals are ſerved up to them on a low board, raiſed but a few inches from the floor, and one diſh only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houſes as ornamental furniture: they are made of a compound metal, and uſed only at their toilets. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of their winter which obliges them to warm their houſes from November to March, they have neither fire-places nor ſtoves; inſtead of theſe they uſe large copper pots ſtanding upon legs. Theſe are lined on the inſide with loam, on which aſhes are laid to ſome depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which ſeems to be prepared in ſuch a manner that the fumes of it are not at all dangerous. The firſt compliment offered to a ſtranger, in their houſes, is a diſh of tea, and a pipe of tobacco.

Fans

Fans are uſed by both ſexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inſeparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly; every houſe, whether public or private, has a bath, of which conſtant and daily uſe is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and reſpect to ſuperiors, are the characteriſtics of this nation. Their ſalutations and converſations between equals abound alſo with civility and politeneſs; to this children are early accuſtomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very ſevere; but puniſhments are ſeldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes againſt ſociety are committed. Commerce and manufactures flouriſh here, though, as theſe people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we ſee in Europe. Agriculture is ſo well underſtood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They never uſe to trade with any foreigners except the Dutch and Chineſe; the Dutch exported thither annually, before they declared war againſt Britain, goods to a great amount, but their trade to the Eaſt Indies has been ſince ruined by the conqueſts of the Engliſh in thoſe diſtant countries. The merchandiſe they exported from theſe iſlands, both for Bengal and Europe, conſiſted in 9000 cheſts of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25 to 30,000 weight of camphor.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is ſaid to be Guam, eaſt longitude 140, north latitude 14: they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, excepting that lord Anſon landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreſhment for himſelf and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewiſe an oriental iſland. It is ſituated to the eaſt of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the ſouth coaſt, and ending at the north. This is a very fine iſland, and abounds with all the neceſſaries of life. That part of the iſland which lies to the weſt of the mountains, belongs to the Chineſe, who conſider the inhabitants of the eaſtern parts as ſavages, though they are ſaid to be a very inoffenſive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the ſame with the Chineſe, already deſcribed. The Chineſe have likewiſe made themſelves maſters of ſeveral other iſlands in theſe ſeas, of which we ſcarcely know the names; that of Ainan is between ſixty and ſeventy leagues long, and between fifty and ſixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a ſhy, cowardly people, and live in the moſt unwholeſome part of the iſland, the coaſt and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being poſſeſſed by the Chineſe.

To our deſcription of Formoſa we ſhall add an account of the dreadful diſaſter that lately befel this unhappy iſland. On the 22 May 1782, a moſt furious wind accompanied with heavy rain and a ſwell of the ſea greater than ever remembered kept the inhabitants under continual apprehenſion of being ſwallowed up by the waves, or buried in the bowels of the earth. The buildings, where the tribunals were held, the public granaries, the barracks, and other works were totally deſtroyed, and preſented nothing to the eye but one continued proſpect of ruin and deſolation. Of 27 ſhips of war, which were in the harbour, 12 diſappeared; two were daſhed to pieces, and 10 were ſhattered in ſuch a manner that they were rendered totally unfit for ſervice. As the whole iſland was covered with water the proviſions were either ſwept away or ſpoiled; the crops were totally deſtroyed.

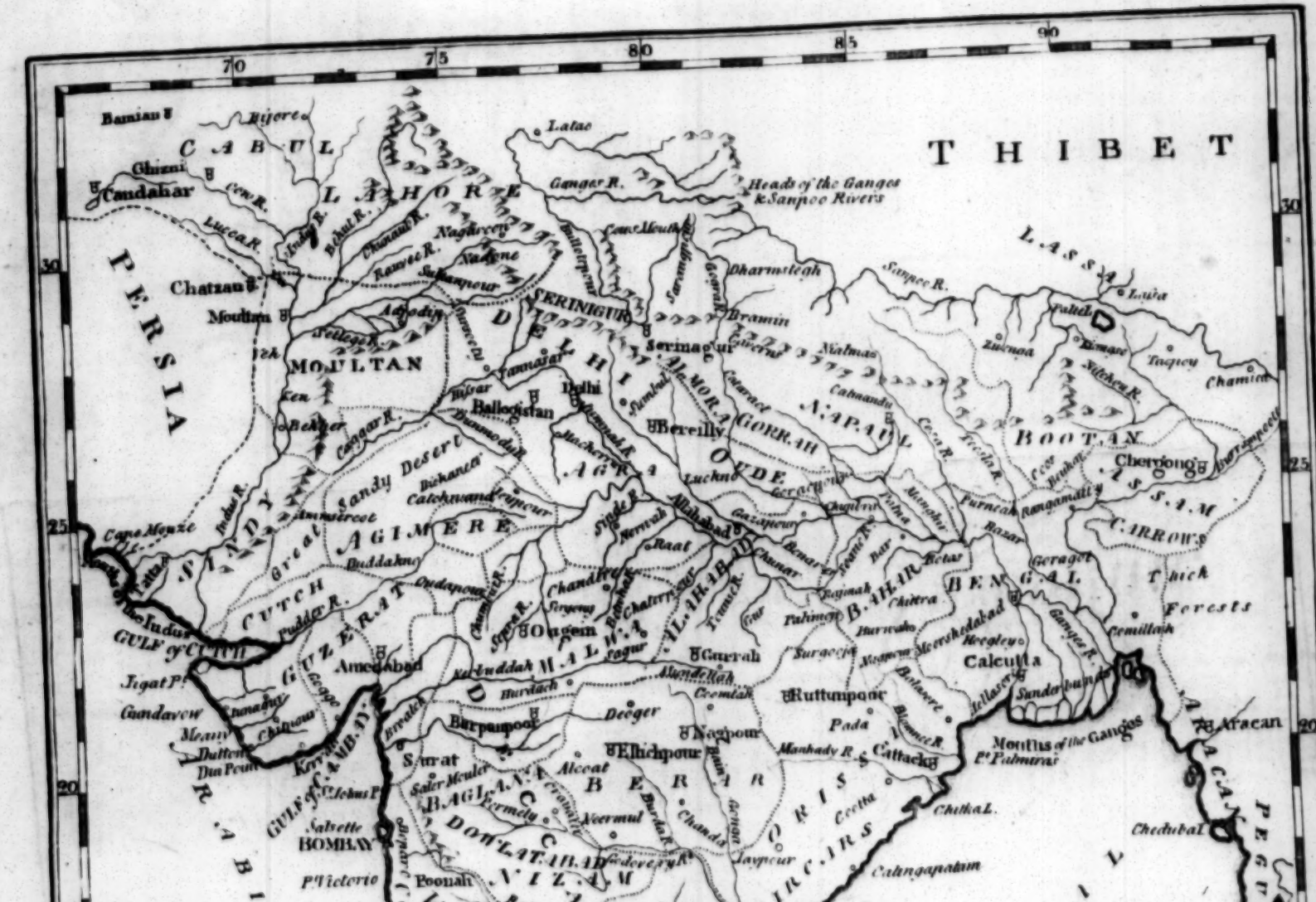
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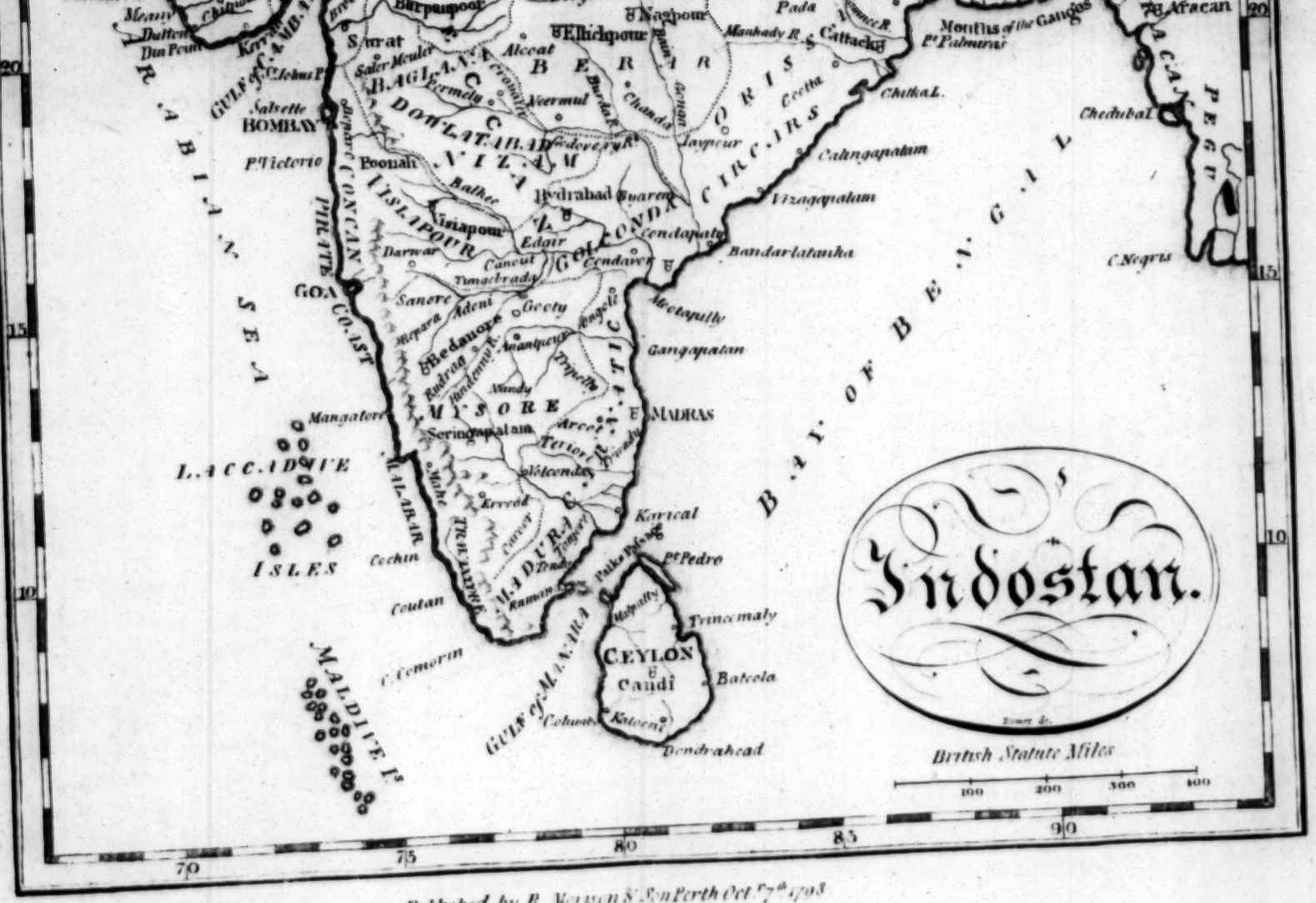
The PHILIPPINES, of which there are 1100 in number, lying in the Chineſe Sea (part of the Pacific Ocean,) 300 miles ſouth eaſt of China, of which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 400 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants conſiſt of Chineſe, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portugueſe, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Meſtes, a mixture of all theſe. The property of the iſlands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been diſcovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. from whom they take their name. Their ſituation is ſuch, between the eaſtern and weſtern continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the iſlands and places of the Eaſt Indies. Two ſhips from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the neceſſaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Veniſon of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, ſheep, goats, and a particular large ſpecies of monkeys, are found here in great plenty. The neſt of the bird ſaligan affords that diſſolving jelly, which is ſo voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive ſurpriſingly in theſe iſlands. If a ſpring of an orange or lemon tree is planted here, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; ſo that the verdure and luxuriancy of the ſoil are almoſt incredible. The tree amet ſupplies the natives with water; and there is alſo a kind of cane, which if cut, yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in the mountains, where water is moſt wanted. In thoſe iſlands are monkeys and baboons of a monſtrous bigneſs, that will defend themſelves if attacked by men. When they can find no fruit in the mountains they go down to the ſea to catch crabs and oyſters; and that the oyſters may not cloſe and catch their paws, they firſt put a ſtone betwixt their ſhell to prevent their ſhutting cloſe. They take crabs by putting their tail in the holes where they lie, and when the crab lays hold of it they draw him out.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite lying at the diſtance of three leagues, and defended by the caſtle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the Engliſh under general Draper and admiral Corniſh, who took it by ſtorm, and humanely ſuffered the archbiſhop, who was the Spaniſh viceroy, at the ſame time, to ranſom the place for about a million ſterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerouſly diſowned by him and the court of Spain, ſo that great part of the ranſom is ſtill unpaid. The Spaniſh government is ſettled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other iſlands, particularly Mindanao, the largeſt next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call ſultans. The ſultan of Mindanao is a Mahomtean.

Upon the whole, though theſe iſlands are enriched with all the profuſion of nature, yet they are ſubject to moſt dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the ſoil is peſtered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whoſe poiſons kill almoſt inſtantaneouſly. Some of their mountains are volcanoes.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS. Theſe are not out of ſight of each other, and lie all within the compaſs of twenty-five leagues to the ſouth of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between one degree ſouth, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. Theſe iſlands produce neither corn nor rice, ſo that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of ſagoe. Their chief produce conſiſts of cloves,


70
75
80
85
90
30
25
20
Bamian R.
Bijore
CABUL
Ghizni
Candahar
Cow R.
Lucca R.
Indus R.
Behut R.
Chenaut R.
Ravee R.
Nagkeroo
Nadone
Sukanpour
LAHORE
Chatzan R.
Moultan
PERSIA
Addoda
Sutlege R.
Sutlege
MOULTAN
Tannasar
Delhi
Jumbal
Jumna R.
Bullochistan
Bikaneer
Sandy Desert
Great Sandy Desert
Cape Monze
Indus R.
Indus
GULF of CUTCH
Pittee
Annumcote
Buddakra
CUTCH
Puddar R.
AGIMERE
Ondapoor
GUZERAT
Jugat Pt
Gundavee
Ameedabad
Mahy R.
Dun Peon
Kurrumsaud
GULF of CAMBAY
Tapty R.
Surat
Salsette
BOMBAY
Pt Victorie
Poonah
Bhaur R.
Beemah R.
Kistna R.
Gogra R.
Chandore
Sewgur
Ougein
Chumbul R.
Parbuttee R.
Kallysind R.
Seepra R.
Mahi R.
Nerbudda R.
Hurdach
Deeger
Burrampoor
Alcoat
Neermul
Chanda
Godevery R.
Jaypour
Ellichpour
BERAR
Nagpour
Wurdah R.
Wyne Gonga R.
DOWLATABAD
NIZAM
Kistna R.
Beemah R.
Tumbudra R.
Calingapatam
Latac
Ganges R.
Heads of the Ganges & Sanpoo Rivers
THIBET
Cane Mouth
Serinagur R.
Gogra R.
Dharmsteigh
Sanpoo R.
LASSA
Bramin
Serinagur
Tannasar
Delhi
Bareilly
ALMORA
GORRAH
Lucknow
OUDE
Cataract
Catmandu
Cosa R.
Teesta R.
NAPAUL
BOOTAN
Chergong
Cose Burra
Burrampooter R.
ASSAM
Furrah
Rangamatty
Bazar
CARROW
Thick Forests
Gorage
Patna
Hajypour
Gogra R.
Gunduck R.
Gunga R.
Chumpaun
Benares
Ramgur
Jeanpour
Allahabad
Raat
Chunar
Tonse R.
Soane R.
Sone R.
Tonse R.
Bar
Betur
BAHAR
BENGAL
Chitra
Jehinger
Burrooda
Moorshedabad
Hoogley
Calcutta
Cossimbuzar
Mongeer
Bhaugulpour
Rajemahl
Ganges R.
Cossimbuzar
Ruttumpour
Pada
Bhagrutty R.
Jellasore
Sunderbunds
Cuttack
Manhady R.
Mouths of the Ganges
Pt Palmiras
Chilka L.
ORISSA
Cooda
Jaypour
Calingapatam
Aracan R.
ARACAN
Chedubal
PEGU
Godavery R.
Kistna R.
Tumbudra R.
Wurdah R.
Wyne Gonga R.
Nerbudda R.
Tapty R.
Mahy R.
Kallysind R.
Seepra R.
Chumbul R.
Gogra R.
Sone R.
Soane R.
Tonse R.
Gunduck R.
Gunga R.
Burrampooter R.
Cose Burra
Teesta R.
Cosa R.
Cataract
Catmandu
Nitchea R.
Taqpey
Chamiti
Zuchua
Dimare
Palti
Luda
Sanpoo R.
Malwas
Gogra R.
Serinagur R.
Cane Mouth
Ganges R.
Latac
Bijore
Bamian R.
Ghizni
Candahar
Cow R.
Lucca R.
Indus R.
Behut R.
Chenaut R.
Ravee R.
Nagkeroo
Nadone
Sukanpour
Chatzan R.
Moultan
Addoda
Sutlege R.
Sutlege
Tannasar
Delhi
Jumbal
Jumna R.
Bullochistan
Bikaneer
Sandy Desert
Great Sandy Desert
Cape Monze
Indus R.
Indus
GULF of CUTCH
Pittee
Annumcote
Buddakra
CUTCH
Puddar R.
AGIMERE
Ondapoor
GUZERAT
Jugat Pt
Gundavee
Ameedabad
Mahy R.
Dun Peon
Kurrumsaud
GULF of CAMBAY
Tapty R.
Surat
Salsette
BOMBAY
Pt Victorie
Poonah
Bhaur R.
Beemah R.
Kistna R.
Gogra R.
Chandore
Sewgur
Ougein
Chumbul R.
Parbuttee R.
Kallysind R.
Seepra R.
Mahi R.
Nerbudda R.
Hurdach
Deeger
Burrampoor
Alcoat
Neermul
Chanda
Godevery R.
Jaypour
Ellichpour
BERAR
Nagpour
Wurdah R.
Wyne Gonga R.
DOWLATABAD
NIZAM
Kistna R.
Beemah R.
Tumbudra R.
Calingapatam
Bareilly
ALMORA
GORRAH
Lucknow
OUDE
Cataract
Catmandu
Cosa R.
Teesta R.
NAPAUL
BOOTAN
Chergong
Cose Burra
Burrampooter R.
ASSAM
Furrah
Rangamatty
Bazar
CARROW
Thick Forests
Gorage
Patna
Hajypour
Gogra R.
Gunduck R.
Gunga R.
Chumpaun
Benares
Ramgur
Jeanpour
Allahabad
Raat
Chunar
Tonse R.
Soane R.
Sone R.
Tonse R.
Bar
Betur
BAHAR
BENGAL
Chitra
Jehinger
Burrooda
Moorshedabad
Hoogley
Calcutta
Cossimbuzar
Mongeer
Bhaugulpour
Rajemahl
Ganges R.
Cossimbuzar
Ruttumpour
Pada
Bhagrutty R.
Jellasore
Sunderbunds
Cuttack
Manhady R.
Mouths of the Ganges
Pt Palmiras
Chilka L.
ORISSA
Cooda
Jaypour
Calingapatam
Aracan R.
ARACAN
Chedubal
PEGU
Godavery R.
Kistna R.
Tumbudra R.
Wurdah R.
Wyne Gonga R.
Nerbudda R.
Tapty R.
Mahy R.
Kallysind R.
Seepra R.
Chumbul R.
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Sone R.
Soane R.
Tonse R.
Gunduck R.
Gunga R.
Burrampooter R.
Cose Burra
Teesta R.
Cosa R.
Cataract
Catmandu
Nitchea R.
Taqpey
Chamiti
Zuchua
Dimare
Palti
Luda
Sanpoo R.
Malwas
Gogra R.
Serinagur R.
Cane Mouth
Ganges R.
Latac
Bijore
Bamian R.


Indostan.
British Statute Miles
100 200 300 400
ARABIAN SEA
BAY OF BENGAL
LACCADIVE ISLES
MALDIVE Is
CEYLON
Candi
MADRAS
MYSORE
BERAR
BAGLANA
DOWLATABAD
VIZAM
GOLCONDA
CIRCARS
CARNATIC
PEGU
MALABAR COAST
PIRATE COAST
CONCAN
GOA
Surat
BOMBAY
Poonah
Visiapour
Hyderabad
Seringapatam
Mangalore
Cochin
Coutan
C. Comorin
Karical
Pt Pedro
Trincomaly
Batcola
Dondrahead
Negapour
Chilka L.
Calingapatam
Vizagapatam
Bandarlatanka
C. Negris
Gangapatan
Pondicherry
Cuddalore
Arcot
Tanjore
Madura
Ramnad
Tuticorin
Columbo
Kotoure
Cattack
Mouths of the Ganges
Pt Palmiras
Chedubah
Burrampoor
Elichpour
Aurungabad
Goa
Darwar
Sanore
Bednore
Mundy
Carwar
Mirjee
Rajapour
Dabul
Gheriah
Tellicherry
Calicut
Cannanore
Mangalore
Manilla
Dutton
Dua Pount
Kurrachee
Gulf of Cambay
Gulf of Manaar
Pt Victoria
Salsette
Salee Moulee
Ellora
Aurungabad
Ahmednagur
Beder
Kalliana
Bijapour
Edgir
Cundapore
Tungabrada
Cancul
Ankola
Onore
Mirjee
Rajapour
Dabul
Gheriah
Vingorla
Goa
Sanore
Adeni
Geety
Angelo
Bednore
Rudrag
Hindemul R.
Avantpur
Tripetty
Mundy
Arcot
Tanjore
Madura
Ramnad
Tuticorin
Columbo
Kotoure

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cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vaſt quantities; which the Dutch formerly monopolized with ſo much jealouſy, that they deſtroyed the plants, leſt the natives ſhould ſell their ſupernumerary ſpices to other nations. Theſe iſlands, after being ſubject to various powers, fell into the hands of the Dutch who appointed three kings to govern them ſubordinate to their authority. They have ſince the revolution effected by the French in Holland, been reduced to the dominion of Great Britain with almoſt all the other poſſeſſions of the Dutch in that quarter of the world. Ternate is the largeſt of theſe iſlands, though no more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch had here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS, are ſituated between 127 and 128 degrees eaſt longitude, and between four or five ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Lantor, the chief town of which is Lantor, Polerong, Roſinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts on theſe iſlands, are thoſe of Revenge and Naſſau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on theſe iſlands only, and they were formerly entirely ſubject to the Dutch. In ſeveral iſlands that lie near Banda and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, becauſe, as naturaliſts tell us, birds, eſpecially doves and pigeons, ſwallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the ſame ſtate: which is one of the reaſons why the Dutch declare war againſt both birds in their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harveſt is in June and Auguſt.

AMBOYNA. This iſland, taken in a large ſenſe, is one, and the moſt conſiderable, of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is ſituated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degree of ſouth latitude, and 120 leagues to the eaſtward of Batavia. Amboyna is about ſeventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garriſon of 7 or 800 men, beſides ſmall forts, which protect their clove plantations. It is well known, that when the Portugueſe were driven off this iſland, the trade of it was carried on by the Engliſh and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter in firſt torturing and then murdering the Engliſh, and thereby engroſſing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten; but will be tranſmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy at that period to all poſterity. This tragical event happened in 1622.

The iſland of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is ſituated under the equator, between the iſland of Borneo and the Spice Iſlands, at the diſtance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This iſland, notwithſtanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief product is pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the ſtudy of poiſons, with a variety of which nature has furniſhed them. In this, and indeed in almoſt all the Oriental iſlands, the inhabitants live in houſes built on large poſts, which are acceſſible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their ſecurity againſt venemous animals. They are ſaid to be hoſpitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chineſe. Their port of Jampoden is the moſt capacious of any in that part of the world.

GILORO and CERAM, two other ſpice iſlands lying under the equator, were fortified by the Dutch but have been ſince reduced by the Engliſh.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. Theſe are ſituated in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between eight degrees north, and eight degrees ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three firſt, from their great extent and importance, require to be ſeparately deſcribed.

BORNEO is ſaid to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and except New Holland is the largeſt iſland in the world. The inland part of the coun-

try is marſhy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The ſoil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ourang-outang, one of which was diſſected by Dr. Tyſon at Oxford, is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to reſemble a man the moſt. The original inhabitants ſtill remain in the mountains, and are ſtyled *Beajus*, which ſignifies a wildman. The beaſts are oxen, buffaloes, deer, goats, elephants, tygers, and monkeys.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the eaſt, and Java on the ſouth-eaſt, from which it is ſeparated by the Straits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees and upwards north-weſt of it, and five on the ſouth-eaſt; and is 900 miles long, and from 100 to 150 broad. Its chief trade with the Europeans lies in pepper. The Engliſh Eaſt India company have two ſettlements here, Bencoolen and Fort-Marlborough; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who poſſeſs the ſea coaſts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of the adjacent iſlands.

This iſland is repreſented by Mr. Marſden as ſurpaſſed by few in the beautiful indulgences of nature. A chain of high mountains runs through its whole extent. Between the ridges of theſe mountains the air is cool; and from this advantage they are the moſt cleared from woods, which elſewhere cover both hills and valleys with an eternal ſhade. Here too are found many large and beautiful lakes, that facilitate much the communication betwixt different parts of the country. The inhabitants are below the middle ſize; their limbs for the moſt part ſlight; but well ſhaped, particularly at the wriſts and ancles. Their hair is ſtrong and of a ſhining black. Some of the inhabitants of the hilly parts are obſerved to have a ſwelling in the throat, about the ſize of an oſtrich's egg. The cuſtoms of the Sumatrans allow polygamy; but it is extremely rare that an inſtance occurs of their having more wives than one. The Caſſia country is inhabited by Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants in language, cuſtoms, and manners. They eat the priſoners whom they take in war. They prefer human fleſh to all others, and ſpeak with peculiar rapture of the palms of the hands and the ſoles of the feet. They fortify their villages very ſtrongly with double fences of camphor plank, pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between theſe fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewiſe pointed, which are concealed by the graſs, but which will run quite through a man's foot. The people who inhabit the coaſt are Malays, who came hither from the peninſula of Malacca. Their language and character differ much from the inhabitants of Malacca, who uſe the Arabic character. The people between the diſtricts of the Engliſh company and thoſe of the Dutch at Palimban, on the other ſide of the iſland, write on long narrow ſlips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the cuſtom of other Eaſtern nations. It is from this country that moſt of caſſia ſent to Europe is produced. The caſſia tree grows to 50 or 60 feet in diameter from a beautiful and regular trunk. The wild beaſts of Sumatra are tigers, elephants, rhinoceroſes, bears, and monkeys. The tygers prove to the inhabitants both in their journies and even in their domeſtic occupations moſt deſtructive enemies. The ſize and ſtrength of the ſpecies, which prevails on this iſland, is prodigious. They are ſaid to break with a ſtroke of

their

their fore-paw the leg of a horſe or buffaloe. Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the iſland of ENGANHO, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers which entirely ſurround it. It is inhabited by naked ſavages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and ſpeak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring iſlands.

The greateſt part of JAVA formerly belonged to the Dutch, who here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of ſix degrees ſouth, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furniſhed with one of the fineſt harbours in the world. Since the revolution in Holland it has been reduced by Great Britain together with all the other poſſeſſions of the Dutch in the Eaſt Indies. The town itſelf is built in the manner of thoſe in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and ſurrounded by regular fortifications; but its ſuburbs are ſaid to be ten times more populous than itſelf. The government here was a mixture of eaſtern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appeared abroad, he was attended by his guards and officers, and with a ſplendor ſuperior to that of any European potentate, except upon ſome ſolemn occaſions. This city is as beautiful as it is ſtrong, and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a moſt agreeable reſidence. The deſcription of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the ſuburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almoſt every nation in the world; the Chineſe reſiding in this iſland are computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarouſly maſſacred, without the ſmalleſt offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This maſſacre was too unprovoked and deteſtable to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, ſent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of ſince. A Dutch garriſon of 3000 men conſtantly reſided at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops were quartered in the iſland and the neighbourhood of the city.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR iſlands, are ſituated on the eaſtern ſide of Bengal, extending from north latitude 10°. 32′ to 13° 40′. Until of late years theſe iſlands have been very little known, probably on account of the wild appearance of the country which has deterred navigators from frequenting them. The Great Andaman is about 140 Britiſh miles in length, but no more than 20 in the broadeſt part. Its coaſts are indented by ſeveral deep bays, interſected by many vaſt inlets or creeks, one of which has been found to run quite through, and is navigable for ſmall veſſels. The ſhores of the main iſland, and indeed of all the reſt, are in ſome parts rocky, and in a few places are lined with a ſmooth and ſandy beech, where boats may eaſily land. The inland parts of theſe iſlands are covered with a variety of tall trees, darkened by the intermixture of creepers, which form altogether a vaſt and impervious foreſt, ſpreading over the whole country. The ſmaller iſlands are equally covered with wood; they moſtly contain hills of a moderate height, but the main iſland is diſtinguiſhed by a mountain of prodigious bulk, called from its ſhape the ſaddle Peak; it is viſible in clear weather at the diſtance of 25 leagues, being nearly 2400 feet in perpendicular height. There are no rivers of any ſize upon theſe iſlands, but a number of ſmall rills pour down from the mountains, affording good water, and exhibiting in their deſcent over the rocks a variety of little caſcades, which are overſhaded by the ſuperincumbent woods. Many of the trees afford

timbers and planks for the conſtruction of ſhips. A particular tree grows here to an enormous ſize, one having been found to meaſure 30 feet in circumference, producing a very rich dye. The quadrupeds are wild hogs, monkeys, and rats. Guanas and various reptiles abound; among the latter is the green ſnake, very venomous; centipedes of ten inches long and ſcorpions. The inhabitants of the Andaman iſles are perhaps the leaſt civilized in the world. Their colour is of the darkeſt hue, their ſtature in general ſmall and their aſpect uncouth. Their limbs are ill-formed and ſlender, their bellies prominent, and like the Africans they have wool heads, thick lips and flat noſes. They go quite naked, the women wearing only at times a fringe or taſſel round the middle which is merely for ornament as they do not betray any ſhame when ſeen without it. The men are cunning crafty and revengeful; and frequently expreſs their averſion to ſtrangers in a loud and threatening tone of voice. At other times they appear quiet and docile with the moſt hoſtile intent.

On the appearance of any veſſel they frequently lie in ambuſh among the trees, and ſend one of the oldeſt among them to allure the ſtrangers by friendly ſigns to the ſhore. Should the crew venture to land without arms, they inſtantly ruſh from their lurking places to attack them. About 15 miles to the eaſtward of theſe iſlands lies an iſland juſtly ſtyled, *Barren*, on which is a dreadful volcano. The following account is given of this iſland by Capt. Blair in his report of the ſurvey of the Andaman iſlands See Aſiatic Reſearch. vol. 4. p. 412.

"I left that coaſt March 21. and landed on *Barren iſland* on the 24th. The volcano was in a violent ſtate of eruption, burſting out immenſe volumes of ſmoke, and frequently ſhowers of red hot ſtones. Some were of a ſize to weigh three or four tons, and had been thrown ſome hundred yards from the foot of the cone. There were two or three eruptions, while we were cloſe to it; ſeveral of the red hot ſtones rolled down the ſides of the cone and bounded a conſiderable way beyond us. The baſe of the cone is the loweſt part of the iſland and very little higher than the level of the ſea. The mountain riſes in the form of a cone with an acclivity of 1800 feet which is alſo the elevation of the other parts of the iſland."

CEYLON. This iſland, though not the largeſt, is thought to be, by nature, the richeſt and fineſt iſland in the world. It is ſituated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin; the ſouthern extremity of the Hither Peninſula of India, being ſeparated from the coaſt of Coromandel by a narrow ſtrait, and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The natives call it, with ſome ſhew of reaſon, the terreſtrial paradiſe; and it produces, beſides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, ſilk, tobacco, ebony, muſk, cryſtal, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, lead, iron, ſteel, copper; beſides cinnamon, gold and ſilver, and all kinds of precious ſtones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fiſh abound here. Every part of the iſland is well wooded and watered; and beſides ſome curious animals peculiar to itſelf, it has plenty of cows, buffaloes, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephants are the largeſt and beſt in the world, and their woods are infeſted by tygers, the moſt terrible of all ravenous beaſts. They abound alſo with ſnakes of a monſtrous ſize, one of which has been known to devour a tyger at one meal. The chief commodity of the iſland, is its cinnamon, which is by far the beſt in all Aſia. Though its trees grow in great profuſion, yet the beſt is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo; the chief ſettlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, but the beautiful vallies were ſubdued and taken poſſeſſion of by the Dutch,

Dutch, who after a bloody war drove the Ceyloneſe monarch from his capital city, Candy, which ſtands on a mountain in the middle of the iſland, ſo that he has ſcarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The deſcendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglaſſes, who, though idolaters, value themſelves upon maintaining their ancient laws and cuſtoms. They are, in general, a ſober, inoffenſive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portugueſe, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to obſerve, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this iſland, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the beſt; and the body of the tree, which, when ſtripped, is white, ſerves for building and other uſes. This iſland was conquered by the Portugueſe, who tyrannized over the inhabitants in ſuch a manner that they aſſiſted the Dutch in expelling them from the iſland, and by their united efforts this was accompliſhed in 1658. In January 1782, Trincomale, the chief ſea-port of the iſland, was taken by the Engliſh, but ſoon afterwards retaken by the French, and reſtored to the Dutch by the laſt treaty of peace. It has ſince been taken by the Engliſh and is at preſent (1799) in their poſſeſſion.

The MALDIVES. Theſe are a vaſt cluſter of ſmall iſlands or little rocks above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly reſorted to by the Dutch, who carry on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of ſmall ſhells, which go, or rather formerly went for money upon the coaſts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity: "Of this tree (ſays a well-informed author) they build veſſels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, maſts, ſails, rigging, anchors, cables, proviſions, and firing, are all from this uſeful tree."

We have already mentioned BOMBAY, on the Malabar coaſt, in ſpeaking of India. With regard to the language of all the Oriental iſlands, nothing certain can be ſaid. Each iſland has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chineſe, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Indian words, are ſo frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in thoſe matters to know the radical language. The ſame may be almoſt ſaid of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewiſh, Chriſtian and other foreign ſuperſtitions.

The ſea which ſeparates the ſouthern point of the peninſula of Kamtſchatka from Japan, contains a number of iſlands in a poſition from north-north-eaſt to ſouth ſouth-weſt, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in ſeveral of them are volcanoes and hot ſprings. The principal of theſe iſlands is inhabited; but ſome of the little ones are entirely deſert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other, in reſpect both to their ſituation and natural conſtitution. The foreſts in the more northern ones, are compoſed of laryx and pines; thoſe to the ſouthern produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In ſome of them are bears and foxes. The ſea-otter appears on the coaſts of all theſe iſlands, as well as whales, ſea-horſes, ſeals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of theſe iſlands have a great likeneſs to the Japaneſe, in their manners, language, and perſonal appearance; others very much reſemble the Kamtſchadales. The northern iſlands acknowledge the ſovereignty of the empire of Ruſſia but thoſe to the ſouth pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians diſcover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hoſpitable; but adverſity renders them

them timid, and prompts them to ſuicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an eſpecial affection for thoſe of their reſpective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they ſpeak and pronounce it ſlowly. The men are employed in hunting, fiſhing for ſea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of the wood that their foreſts produce, or that the ſea caſts upon their ſhores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern iſles they ſew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The ſouthern iſlanders are more refined and poliſhed than the northern, and carry on a ſort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs and eagle's feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japaneſe utenſils of metal and varniſhed wood, ſkillers, ſabres, different ſtuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all ſorts of trinkets, and ſmall wares.

AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third grand diviſion of the globe, is generally repreſented as bearing ſome reſemblance to the form of a pyramid, the baſe being the northern part of it, which runs along the ſhores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninſula of a prodigious extent, joined to Aſia only by a neck of land, about ſixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, uſually called the Iſthmus of Suez, and its utmoſt length from north to ſouth, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 ſouth latitude, is 4,300 miles; and the broadeſt part from Cape Verd, in 17-20 deg. W. lon. to Cape Guardafui, near the ſtraits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 eaſt longitude, is 3,500 miles from eaſt to weſt. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, which ſeparates it from Europe; on the eaſt by the Iſthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divides it from Aſia; on the ſouth by the Southern Ocean; and on the weſt by the great Atlantic Ocean, which ſeparates it from America. As the equator divides this extenſive country almoſt in the middle, and the far greateſt part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almoſt inſupportable to an European; it being there increaſed by the rays of the ſun, from vaſt deſerts of burning ſands. The coaſts, however, and banks of rivers, ſuch as the Nile, are generally fertile; and moſt parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being ſo populous as Europe and Aſia. From what has been ſaid the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, ſnow ſeldom falls in the plains: and it is generally never found but on the tops of the higheſt mountains. The natives, in theſe ſcorching regions, would as ſoon expect that marble ſhould melt, and flow in liquid ſtreams, as that water by freezing ſhould loſe its fluidity, be arreſted by the cold, and ceaſing to flow, become like the ſolid rock.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into the

the Atlantic or weſtern ocean at Senegal, after a courſe of 2800 miles *. It increaſes and decreaſes as the Nile, fertiliſes the country, and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile, which dividing Egypt into two parts, diſcharges itſelf into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious courſe from its ſource in Abyſſinia. The moſt conſiderable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the weſtern ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt, and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of aſtronomy, who uſed to obſerve the ſtars from its ſummit; on which account, the poets repreſent him as bearing the heavens on his ſhoulders. The mountains of the Moon, extending themſelves between Abyſſinia and Monomotapa, and are ſtill higher than thoſe of Atlas. Thoſe of Sierra Leona, or the Mountain of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. Theſe were ſtyled by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of their being ſubject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their firſt meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a ſugar-loaf, and is ſituated on an iſland of the ſame name near the coaſt. The moſt noted capes, or promontories, in this country, are Cape Verd, ſo called, becauſe the land is always covered with green trees and moſſy ground. It is the moſt weſterly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, ſo denominated by the Portugueſe, when they firſt went round it in 1498, and diſcovered the paſſage to Aſia. It is the ſouth extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; at preſent in the poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, and the general rendezvous of ſhips of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one ſtrait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

The ſituation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, ſtanding as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Aſia, and America, than any of the other quarters has

* This is extremely difficult if not impoſſible, to aſcertain. For, (according to Mr. Lucas's communications to the African Aſſociation) both the riſe and termination of the Niger are unknown, but the courſe is from eaſt to weſt. So great is its rapidity, that no veſſel can aſcend its ſtream: and ſuch is the want of ſkill, or ſuch the abſence of commercial inducements among the nations who inhabit its borders, that even with the current, neither veſſels nor boats are ſeen to navigate. In one place, indeed, the traveller finds accommodations for the paſſage of himſelf and of his goods; but even there, though the ferrymen, by the indulgence of the ſultan of Caſhna, are exempted from all taxes, the boat which contains the merchandize is nothing more than an ill-conſtructed raft, for the planks are faſtened to the timbers with ropes, and the ſeams are cloſed both within and without, by a plaiſter of tough clay, of which a large proviſion is always carried on the raft, for the purpoſe of excluding the ſtream wherever its entrance is obſerved.

The depth of the river at the place of paſſage, which is more than a hundred miles to the ſouth of the city of Caſhna, the capital of the empire of that name, is eſtimated at twenty three or twenty-four feet Engliſh.

Its width is ſuch, that even at the Iſland of Gongoo, where the ferrymen reſide, the ſound of the londeſt voice from the northern ſhore is ſcarcely heard; and at Tombuctou, where the name of Gnewa, or black, is given to the ſtream, the width is deſcribed as being that of the Thames at Weſtminſter. In the rainy ſeaſon it ſwells above its banks, and not only floods the adjacent lands, but often ſweeps before it the cattle and cottages of the ſhort ſighted, or too confident, inhabitants.

That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger ſhould refuſe to profit by its navigation, may juſtly ſurpriſe the traveller; but much greater is his aſtoniſhment, when he finds that even the food which the bounty of the ſtream would give, is uſeleſsly offered to their acceptance; for ſuch is the want of ſkill, or ſuch the ſettled diſlike of the people to this ſort of proviſion, that the fiſh with which the river abounds, are left in undiſturbed poſſeſſion of its waters.

Proceedings of the African Aſſociation, p. 183—186.

has with the reſt. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the teſtimony of the Portugueſe, the Dutch, the Engliſh, and the French, who have ſettlements on the coaſt of Africa, but that of the moſt authentic hiſtorians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of ſea-coaſt, with noble, large, deep rivers, it ſhould have no navigation, nor receive any benefit from them; and that it ſhould be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of theſe rivers are the moſt excellent harbours, deep, ſafe, calm, and ſheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly ſecure by fortifications; but quite deſtitute of ſhipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandiſe. In ſhort, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, ſtored with an inexhauſtible treaſure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing ſo many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itſelf, ſeems to be almoſt entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unſolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but alſo by the more civiliſed Europeans who are ſettled in it, particularly the Portugueſe.

Africa once contained ſeveral kingdoms and ſtates, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the moſt extenſive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful ſtate of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itſelf, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world: even the Britiſh ſhores were viſited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the aſſiſtance of the Mauritanians, ſubdued Carthage, and by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and ſtates. After this the natives, conſtantly plundered, and conſequently impoveriſhed, by the governors ſent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might ſerve for their ſubſiſtence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed ſtill more to the deſtruction of arts and ſciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a ſudden conqueſt of all the coaſts of Egypt and Barbary, in the ſeventh century. Theſe were ſucceeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whoſe profeſſors carried deſolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flouriſhing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with reſpect to religion, may be divided into three ſorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Chriſtians. The firſt are the more numerous, poſſeſſing the greateſt part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and theſe are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, poſſeſs Egypt, and almoſt all the northern ſhores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coaſt. The people of Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Chriſtians, but retain many Pagan and Jewiſh rites. There are alſo ſome Jews on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is poſſeſſed of.

There are ſcarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern diviſions of Africa; and for this very reaſon, that ſcarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and conſequently we muſt acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of ſeveral of the inland nations, which may be ſtill reckoned among the unknown and undiſcovered parts of the world; but according to the beſt accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table:

	Nations.	Length	Breadt.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bear. fr. London.	Diff. of time from London.	Religions
Barbary.	Morocco, Tafilet, &c.	500	480	219,400	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahom.
	Algiers	480	100	143,600	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahom
	Tunis	220	170	54,400	Tunis	990 S.E.	0 39 bef.	Mahom
	Tripoli	700	240	71,000	Tripoli	1260 S.E.	0 56 bef.	Mahom
	Barca	400	300	66,400	Tolemeta	1440 S.E.	1 26 bef.	Mahom
	Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 S.E.	2 21 bef.	Mahom
Up. Ethiopia.	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans
	Zaara	3400	660	739,200	Tegeffa	1840 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans
	Guinea.	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans
	Nubia	940	600	164,000	Nubia	2418 S.E.	2 12 bef.	Ma.&Pa.
	Abyſſinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar	2880 S.E.	2 20 bef.	Chriſtian.
	Abex	540	130	160,000	Doncala	3580 S.E.	2 36 bef.	Ch.&Pa.
	The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 ſquare miles.							
Lower Guinea.	Loango	410	300	49,400	Loango	5300 S.	0 44 bef.	Ch.& Pa
	Congo	510	420	172,800	St. Salvador	5348 S.	1 0 bef.	Ch.&Pa.
	Angola	360	250	38,400	Loando	5750 S.	0 58 bef.	Ch & Pa.
	Benguela	420	180	64 000	Benguela	5900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans
	Matamam	450	240	144 000	No Towns	* *	* *	Pagans
	Ajan	900	300	234 000	Brava	3702 S.E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans
	Zanguebar	1400	350	275,000	Melinda or Mozambiq.	4440 S.E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans
	Monomotapa	960	660	222,500	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Monemugi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagans
	Sofola	480	300	97,500	Sofola	4600 S.E.	2 18 bef.	Pagans
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	184,900	No Towns	* *	* *	Pagans
	Caffraria or Hottentot.	708	660	200 540	Cape of Good Hope.	5200 S.	1 14 bef.	Moſt ſtupid Pag

The principal iſlands of Africa lie in the Indian ſeas and Atlantic Ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with, the Europeans, and ſerve to refreſh their ſhipping to and from India:

Iſlands.	Sq. M.	Towns.	Trade with or belong to.
Babel Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea.		Babel Mandel	All Nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean	3,600	Calauſia	Ditto
The Comora Iſles, ditto	1,000	Joanna	Ditto
Madagaſcar, ditto	168,000	St. Auſtin	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto	1,840	Mauritius —	Engliſh
Bourbon, ditto	2,100	Bourbon	Ditto
St. Helena in the Atlantic Ocean		St. Helena —	Engliſh
Aſcenſion, ditto —			Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto —			Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-iſland, Fernandopo } ditto		St. Thomas, Anaboa	Portugueſe
Cape Verd Iſlands, ditto	2,000	St. Domingo	French
Goree, ditto		Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto		Palma, St. Chriſtophers	Spaniſh
Madeiras, ditto	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portugueſe
The Azores, or Weſtern Iſles, lie nearly at an equal diſtance from Europe, Africa, and America. } dit.	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

Having given the reader ſome idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their ſuppoſed dimenſions, we ſhall now conſider it under the three grand diviſions: firſt, Egypt; ſecondly the ſtates of Barbary, ſtretching along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the eaſt, to the Atlantic Ocean, weſt; and laſtly, that part of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope; the laſt of theſe diviſions, indeed, is vaſtly greater than the other two; but the nations, which it contains, are ſo little known, and ſo barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, ſo ſimilar in moſt reſpects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

EGYPT.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 Breadth 250	between	20 and 32 North lat. 28 and 36 East long.	140,700

Boundaries.] IT is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North; by the Red Sea, Eaſt; by Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the ſouth; and by the Deſert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
Northern diviſion contains	Lower Egypt	Grand Cairo, E. lon. 32. N. lat. 30. Bulac Alexandria Roſetto Damietta
Southern diviſion contains	Upper Egypt	Sayd or Thebes Coſſiar.

Air and climate.] The air and climate of Egypt are extremely hot, both from the height of the ſun, and from the vicinity of burning and ſandy deſerts. From March to November the heat is intolerable. During the whole of this ſeaſon the air ſeems to be inflamed, the ſky ſparkles, and every one ſweats profuſely when covered with the lighteſt dreſs. Egypt is likewiſe infeſted by thoſe deſtructive blaſts commonly called the *poiſonous winds*. Of theſe travellers have given various deſcriptions. Mr. Volney compares the violence of their heat to that of a large oven at the moment of drawing out the bread. When they begin to blow, the ſky loſes its uſual ſerenity, and aſſumes a dark, heavy, and alarming aſpect, the ſun himſelf laying aſide his uſual ſplendor, and becoming of a violet colour. The ſtreets are deſerted, the inhabitants retiring to their houſes for ſhelter till the deſtructive blaſt is over. Mr. Bruce deſcribes a blaſt of this kind with which he was overtaken in a ſtill more terrible manner. The ſandy pillars raiſed in the deſert were obſerved by our traveller in all their terrific appearance. Sometimes

times they appeared to move ſlowly: at other times with incredible ſwiftneſs, ſo that they could not have been avoided by the fleeteſt horſe. Sometimes they came ſo near, that they threatened deſtruction to the whole company. Frequently the tops, when arrived at an immenſe height, ſo that they were loſt in the clouds, ſuddenly ſeparated from the bodies, and diſperſed themſelves in the air; and ſometimes the whole column broke off near the middle, as if it had received a cannon ſhot; their ſize was ſuch, that, at the diſtance of about three miles, they appeared ten feet in diameter. Next day they appeared of a ſmaller ſize but more numerous, and ſometimes approached within two miles of the company. The ſun was now obſcured by them, and the tranſmiſſion of his rays gave them a dreadful appearance, reſembling pillars of fire. On the guide calling out that Simoom, or poiſonous wind was coming, Mr. Bruce turned for a moment to the quarter from whence it came. It appeared like a hazy fog, of a purple colour but leſs bright than the purple part of the rainbow. It moved with ſuch rapidity, that, before he could turn about, and fall upon his face, he felt the vehement heat of its current; Mr. Bruce had unfortunately inſpired ſome part of the pernicious blaſt by which he almoſt entirely loſt his voice and became ſubject to an aſthmatic complaint from which he did not get free for two years. The third time the Simoom appeared, it was preceded by ſandy pillars ſtill more magnificent, the ſun ſhining through them in ſuch a manner as to give thoſe which were neareſt a reſemblance of being ſpangled with ſtars of gold.

Soil and produce.] Whoever is in the leaſt acquainted with literature, knows that the vaſt fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain (little falling in that country,) but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to riſe when the ſun is vertical in Ethiopia; and the annual rains fall there, viz. from the latter end of May to September, and ſometimes October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be ſeen in the plains, but the tops of foreſts and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all ſorts of feſtivities. The banks or mounds which confine it, are cut by the Turkiſh baſha, attended by his grandees; but according to captain Norden, who was preſent on the occaſion, the ſpectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is led into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is diſtributed into cuts, for ſupplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, ſuch is the fertility of the ſoil, that the labour of the huſbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about ſix weeks, nothing can be more charming than the proſpect which the face of the country preſents, in riſing corn, vegetables, and verdure of every ſort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulſe, melons, ſugar canes, and other plants, which require moiſture, is ſupplied by ſmall but regular cuts from ciſterns and reſervoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harveſt months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants,) one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian paſturage is equally prolific, moſt of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the ſheep four lambs a year.

Animals.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is ſaid, that the in-

habitants employ every day 200,000 oxen in raiſing water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of aſſes, upon which the Chriſtians ride, thoſe people not being ſuffered by the Turks to ride on any other beaſt. The Egyptian horſes are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great ſpeed, turn ſhort, ſtop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horſe, an amphibious animal, reſembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horſe, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal ſomething reſembling a lizard, that changes colour as you ſtand to look upon him, is found here as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country; but there does not ſeem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four ſhort legs, with large feet armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable ſcales like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the ſedge, and other cover, on the ſides of rivers; and, pretty much reſembling the trunk of an old tree, ſometimes ſurpriſes the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces likewiſe great numbers of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) ſomewhat reſembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its deſtroying ſerpents and peſtiferous inſects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a ſpecies of them is ſaid to have been lately diſcovered in other parts of Africa. Oſtriches are common here, and are ſo ſtrong, that the Arabs ſometimes ride upon their backs.

The Ceraſtes or horned viper inhabits the greateſt part of the eaſtern continent, eſpecially the deſert ſandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa: this is ſuppoſed to be the aſpic which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully ſupplied by water, muſt then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baſkets of figs muſt have come from thence, and the aſpic, or Ceraſtes, that was hid in them, from the adjoining deſert, where there are plenty to this day.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. As the population of Egypt is almoſt confined to the banks of the Nile, and the reſt of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can ſay little upon this head with preciſion. It ſeems, however, to be certain, that Egypt is at preſent not near ſo populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being ſlaves to the Turks. They are, however, ſtill very numerous; but what has been ſaid of the populouſneſs of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The inhabitants of Egypt may be diſtinguiſhed into four diſtinct races of people. 1ſt, The Arabs. 2nd, The Copts. 3d, The Turks. 4th, The Mamlouks. The former of theſe claſſes partly employ themſelves in agriculture and mechanical operations; and partly paſs their lives among rocks, ruins, and ſequeſtrated places, where they can find water; ſometimes uniting in tribes and living in ſmoky tents, and ſhifting their habitation from the deſert to the banks of the river and back again as beſt ſuits their conveniency. The Copts are deſcendants of the ancient Egyptians, an ill looking-ſlovenly people, immerſed in indolence; in their complexions they are rather ſun-burnt than black. At Cairo they are called *writers*, and are the intendants, ſecretaries and collectors for government, they are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the natives to read and write.

They

They are all hated by the Turks to whom they are ſlaves, and by the peaſants whom they oppreſs. The Turks have the title of maſters of Egypt, but are chiefly to be met with at Cairo, where they poſſeſs the religious and military employments. They who reſide in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and inſolence, and the Turkiſh habit, to diſtinguiſh themſelves from the Arabs and the Coptis, who dreſs very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dreſs is blue linen with a long cloth coat either over or under it. The Mamlouks, are all horſemen, the principal body of them reſide at Cairo, but many of them are diſperſed through the country in order to keep up their authority, collect the tribute, and oppreſs the people. The Chriſtians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themſelves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather ſlippers, the other natives of their country wear red, and the foreign Chriſtians yellow. The dreſs of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are ſilk, when they can afford it; and ſuch of them as are not expoſed to the ſun, have delicate complexions and features. The women are not admitted to the ſociety of men, even at table. When the rich are deſirous of dining with one of their wives, they give her previous notice, who accordingly prepares the moſt delicate diſhes, and receives her lord with the greateſt attention and reſpect. The women of the lower claſs uſually remain ſtanding, or ſeated in a corner of the room, while their huſband is at dinner, and preſent him with water to waſh, and help him at the table.

RELIGION.] To what I have already ſaid concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthuſiaſts, and have among them their *ſantos*, or fellows who pretend to a ſuperior degree of holineſs, and without any ceremony intrude into the beſt houſes, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little, and it would be hard to ſay what ſpecies of Chriſtianity is profeſſed by the Chriſtian Coptis, who are here numerous, but they profeſs themſelves to be of the Greek church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed in many civil matters, they are under the juriſdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who by the dint of money generally purchaſes a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the moſt ancient language of Egypt. This was ſucceeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the caliſate, when the Arabs diſpoſſeſſed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic, or Arabeſque, as it is called, is ſtill the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be ſpoken.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is paſt diſpute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet ſcarcely a veſtige of it remains among their deſcendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan maſters; but here it is proper to make one obſervation, which is of general uſe. The caliſs or Saracens who ſubdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The firſt, who were the immediate ſucceſſors of Mahomet, made war from conſcience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran; and hence it was, that when they took poſſeſſion of Alexandria, which contained the moſt magnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuſcripts were applied for ſome months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The ſame fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The caliſs of the ſecond race were

men

men of taſte and learning, but of a peculiar ſtrain. They bought up all the manuſcripts that ſurvived the general conflagration, relating to aſtronomy, medicine, and ſome uſeleſs parts of philoſophy; but they had no taſte for the Greek arts of architecture, ſculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of califs, eſpecially thoſe who called themſelves califs of Egypt, diſgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they impoſed; enemies to human knowledge they have ſtifled wiſdom and learning throughout their whole empire. Their only ſtudies at preſent are theology, while their innumerable commentators have made a chaos of the Koran; grammar, which is neceſſary to read this book correctly; and aſtrology to which ignorant nations are always addicted.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with theſe than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often deſcribed. Their antiquity is beyond the reſearches of hiſtory itſelf, and their original uſes are ſtill unknown. The baſis of the largeſt covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is upwards of 500 feet, but if meaſured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and ſeventeen broad, in which is a marble cheſt, but without either cover or contents, ſuppoſed to have been deſigned for the tomb of the founder. In ſhort, the pyramids of Egypt are the moſt ſtupendous, and, to appearance, the moſt uſeleſs ſtructures that ever were raiſed by the hands of men. Mr. Savary thus deſcribes his viſit to the pyramids, "We left Giza about an hour after midnight, and ſcarcely had proceeded a quarter of a league, before we perceived the tops of the Pyramids. We were about three leagues from them and the moon ſhone on them with full ſplendour. They appeared like two pointed rocks with their ſummits in the clouds, and the aſpect of theſe antique monuments which have ſurvived nations, empires, and the ravages of time inſpired veneration. The calm of nature and the ſilence of night added to their majeſty; and the mind caſting a retroſpective glance over the ages that have paſſed by theſe mountains, which time himſelf cannot ſhake, ſhudders with involuntary awe. Peace be to the laſt ſeven wonders of the world! Honoured be the people by whom they were raiſed.—At half paſt three in the morning we found ourſelves at the foot of the greateſt; we left our clothes at the door where it is entered and deſcended each with a torch. We proceeded till we were obliged to crawl like ſnakes, to paſs into the ſecond entry, which correſponded to the firſt. We fired a piſtol about the middle, the fearful noiſe of which was long reverberated among the cavities of this immenſe edifice, and which awakened thouſands of bats, much larger than thoſe of Europe, that darting up and down, beat againſt our hands and face, and extinguiſhed ſeveral of our lights.—After examining theſe caverns where the light of day never enters, and the ſhades of eternal night grow more thick and dark, we deſcended by the way we came. When we came out, we were bathed in ſweat, as pale as death, and might have been taken for ſpectres riſing from the abyſs of darkneſs." See Savary's Letters, p. 192.

The mummy pits, ſo called for their containing the mummies or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are ſubterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; but the art of preparing the mummies is now loſt. It is ſaid that ſome of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and diſtinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt, is a curioſity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themſelves. It is partly under-ground, and cut of a marble rock, conſiſting of twelve

palaces

palaces, and 1000 houſes, the intricacies of which occaſion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches which ſtill ſubſiſt, and are evidences of the utility, as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, moſtly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo is a continued ſcene of antiquities, of which the oldeſt are the moſt ſtupendous, but the more modern the moſt beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its ſculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the ſhaft of which is one ſtone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedeſtal; it ſtill preſerves a perfect poliſh. Nothing can equal its majeſty. At a diſtance it is ſeen predominant over the city, and at ſea ſerves as a ſignal for mariners: near, it creates aſtoniſhment mingled with awe; the ſpectator is never weary of admiring the beauty of the capital, the length of the ſhaft, or the grand ſimplicity of the pedeſtal. The Sphynx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the ſhoulders of a woman hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curioſities of Egypt, and ſerved the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nouriſhing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practiſed in ſome parts of Europe. The conſtruction of the oven is very curious.

CITIES, TOWNS, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES. Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coaſt, was once the emporium of all the world, and by means of the Red ſea furniſhed Europe and great part of Aſia with the riches of India. It was a league and a half in length, and one third as wide; ſo that its walls were about four leagues in circumference, and were waſhed by the lake Mærotis on the ſouth, and the Mediterranean on the north. The ſtreets lengthwiſe, ran ſtraight, and parallel to each other; thus giving a free paſſage to the north wind, which, alone, is healthy and temperate in Egypt. A ſtreet 2000 feet wide began at the marine gate, and ended at the gate of Canopus, adorned by magnificent houſes, temples, and public edifices. Through this extent of proſpect the eye was never ſatiated with admiring the marble, the porphyry, and the obeliſks. This ſtreet, the fineſt the world ever ſaw, was croſſed by another of equal width, thus forming a ſquare, at the point of interſection, half a league in circumference from the centre of which the two gates were ſeen, and veſſels under ſail, both to the north and ſouth. A mole was thrown up from the continent to the iſland of Pharos, which divided the harbour. On this iſland was built the light-houſe called Pharos. This miraculous tower was near 400 feet high; on its ſummit was a mirror of vaſt poliſhed ſteel, ſo diſpoſed as to preſent the image of diſtant veſſels before they were viſible to the eye. Modern Alexandria is a place of ſmall extent ſcarcely containing 6000 inhabitants. Yet are not all the tokens of its ancient magnificence effaced; its ciſterns vaulted with great art, which were built under all parts of the city, and its numerous aqueducts are almoſt entire; though they have remained 2000 years. In many places not only temples but the walls of cities built before the time of Alexander the Great, are ſtill entire and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of the paintings are as freſh and vivid as when firſt laid on. The inhabitants are quite ſunk in ignorance, poverty,

poverty, and indolence. Alexandria ſtands 40 miles weſt of the Nile and 140 north-weſt of Cairo.

Roſetta or Raſchid ſtands 25 miles north of Alexandria. It was founded in the eighth century, and became ſoon after the ſtore-houſe of the merchandize of Alexandria and Cairo. Trade ſoon made it flouriſh; and it is now one of the pleaſanteſt towns in Egypt. It ſpreads along the weſtern bank of the Nile, and is nearly a league in length, and one fourth as wide. No remarkable ſquare is ſeen here, no ſtreet perfectly ſtraight, but the houſes, built with terraces, ſtanding aſunder, and kept in good repair, have a pleaſing air of neatneſs and elegance. The only remarkable public edifices are the moſques, the lofty minarets of which are built in a light bold ſtile, and produce a pictureſque effect, in a town where the roofs are all flat, by throwing a variety into the picture; moſt of the houſes have a proſpect of the Nile and the Delta, a truly magnificent one; veſſels and boats, ſome rowing ſome under ſail, continually cover the river; while the tumult of the port, the mirth of the mariners, and their noiſy muſic preſent a ſcene, ever moving, ever alive.

Cairo the capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a diſagreeable reſidence, on account of its peſtilential air and narrow ſtreets. In the intereſting letters of Buonaparte lately publiſhed, it is deſcribed by him as "an execrable dog-hole of a city, inhabited by a lazy ſet of wretches, who "ſquat all day before their filthy huts, ſmoking and taking coffee, or eating "pumpions, or drinking water. It is easy enough to loſe one's ſelf in the "ſtinking narrow ſtreets of this *illuſtrious* capital." It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New; the ſtreets are ſo narrow and winding, that it is impoſſible to follow their direction, amidſt the multitude of houſes, which ſtand crowding on each other. The caſtle of Cairo ſtands on a ſteep rock and is ſurrounded by thick walls, on which are ſtrong towers. This caſtle includes the palaces of the ſultans of Egypt, now almoſt buried under their own ruins; domes overthrown, heaps of rubbiſh, gilding, and pictures, the colours of which have defied corroding time, ſtately marble columns ſtill ſtanding, but in general without capitals; ſuch are the tokens of its former magnificence. Joſeph's well is among the things the moſt curious the caſtle contains. It is ſunk in the rock 280 feet deep, and forty-two in circumference. It includes two excavations not perpendicular to each other. A ſtair caſe, the deſcent of which is exceedingly gentle, is carried round; the partition which ſeparates this ſtair-caſe from the well is part of the rock, left only ſix inches thick, with windows, cut at intervals, to give light; but as they are ſmall, and ſome of them low, it is neceſſary to deſcend by the light of candles. There is a reſervoir, and a level ſpace at that part of the well where it takes a new direction; and oxen which turn a machine which draws from the well. Other oxen, above, raiſe, it from this reſervoir by a ſimilar machine. The memory of the patriarch Joſeph is ſtill revered in Egypt, where they ſhew granaries and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vaſt antiquity; but it is very queſtionable whether they were erected by him. On the bank of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gizie, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles weſt, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Chriſtians of Cairo practiſe a holy cheat, during the Eaſter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead ariſe from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The ſtreets of Cairo are peſtered with jugglers and fortune-tellers. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young, they place upon a large heated floor: the intenſe heat makes the

the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the ſound of drums, the noiſe of that inſtrument ſets them a dancing all their lives after. The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, ſuppoſed to be the ancient Peluſium; Seyd, on the weſt banks of the Nile, 200 miles ſouth of Cairo and Caſſian on the weſt coaſt of the red Sea. Damietta is larger and not leſs agreeable than Roſetta; it forms a ſemicircle, on the eaſtern ſhore of the Nile, two leagues and a half from its mouth. This city carries on a great trade to Syria and Cyprus. Multitudes of boats and ſmall veſſels inceſſantly fill its port, and beſpeak it a commercial place. The ſlip of land on which Damietta is built, is painted with all the luxuries of nature. Imagine all the delights that running brooks and freſh verdure, all the odour that orange-flowers, all that a mild ſuavity, a balſamic air, and a moſt enchanting horizon can impart, and you will then have but a feeble idea of the ſmall ſlip of earth, included between this expanſive lake and the ever-flowing Nile.

Seyd, by the few who have viſited it, is reported to be the moſt capital antique curioſity that is now extant. The general practice of ſtrangers, who viſit thoſe places, is to hire a janizary, whoſe authority commonly protects them from the inſults of the other natives. Suez formerly a place of great trade, is now a ſmall city, and gives name to the Iſthmus that joins Africa with Aſia. The children of Iſrael are ſuppoſed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt, in their way towards the Red Sea. In our deſcription of Alexandria and the other towns, we have made conſiderable additions, on account of the celebrity which the French invaſion of Egypt has given them; but we have no doubt that the additions in this and in other articles will to the curious reader prove agreeable and intereſting.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The Egyptians export great quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all ſorts, callicoes, yellow wax, ſal ammoniac, ſaffron, ſugar, ſena, and caſſia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, ſpices, callicoes, and other merchandizes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they ſend them to Europe. Several European ſtates have conſuls reſident in Egypt, but the cuſtoms of the Turkiſh government are managed by Jews. A number of Engliſh veſſels arrive yearly at Alexandria; ſome of which are laden on account of the owners, but moſt of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the paſha, and the republican by the mamalukes or ſangiacks. The paſha is appointed by the grand ſignior as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the ariſtocratical part of the government of Egypt, conſiſts of a divan, compoſed of twenty-four ſangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the ſheik biellet, who is choſen by the divan, and confirmed by the paſha. Every one of theſe ſangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts ſovereign power: the major part of them reſide at Cairo. If the grand ſignior's paſha acts in oppoſition to the ſenſe of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not ſuffer him to continue in his poſt; and they have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year ſultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

REVENUES.] Theſe are very inconſiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the deſpotiſm of its government. Some ſay that they amount to a million ſterling, but that two thirds of the whole is ſpent in the country.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The military ſtrength of Egypt conſiſted formerly in two corps of Janizaries and Aſſafs, who were once very formidable,

They were however degraded by the Mamlouks, who are at preſent the real maſters of Egypt. Their number amounts to 8000 men "all cavalry, under the command of 24 Beys; every Mamlouk is purchaſed; they are all "from Georgia and mount Caucaſus; there are a great number of Ruſſians "among them and even ſome French. Their religion is Mahometaniſm. "Exerciſed from their infancy in the military art, they acquire an extraordi- "nary degree of dexterity in the management of their horſes, in ſhooting "with the carabine and piſtol, in throwing the lance and in wielding the "ſabre. There have been inſtances of their ſevering at one blow a head of "wet cotton. Every Mamlouk has two or three and ſometimes four ſer- "vants, who follow him on foot wherever he goes, nay even to the field. "The arms of the Mamlouk on horſeback are two carabines, carried by "his ſervants; theſe are never fired but once; two pair of piſtols ſtuck in "his girdle; eight lances in a kind of quiver, which he flings with admi- "rable dexterity; and an iron headed mace. When all theſe are diſcharged, "he comes to his laſt reſource, his two ſabres; putting then the bridle of "his horſe between his teeth he takes one of them in each hand and runs "full ſpeed upon the foe, cutting and ſlaſhing from right to left; woe be "to thoſe who cannot parry his blows, for ſome of them have been known "to cleave a man down the middle." See Buonaparte's Correſpondence.

History.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs ſat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted ſucceſſion, till Cambyſes II. king of Perſia, conquered the Egyptians, 520 years before the birth of Chriſt; and that in the reign of theſe princes, thoſe wonderful ſtructures, the pyramids, were raiſed, which cannot be viewed without aſtoniſhment. Egypt continued a part of the Perſian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquiſhed Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who ſoon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conqueſts of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being ſeized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the ſhare of Ptolemy, by ſome ſuppoſed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Chriſt. His ſucceſſors, who ſometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt continued between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and ſiſter of Ptolemy Dionyſius the laſt king, aſcended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been miſtreſs ſucceſſively to Julius Cæſar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the ſecond calif of the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans, after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, ſaid to conſiſt of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, ſon of the firſt Ptolemy; and the ſame prince cauſed the Old Teſtament to be tranſlated into Greek: this tranſlation is known by the name of the Septuagint. About the time of the cruſades, between the years 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noreddin, whoſe ſon, the famous Saladine, was ſo dreadful to the Chriſtian adventurers, and retook from them Jeruſalem. He inſtituted the military corps of Mamlouks, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after choſe their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for ſome time, made a figure under thoſe illuſtrious uſurpers, and made a noble ſtand againſt the prevailing power of the Turks, till under Selim, who, after giving the Mamlouks ſeveral bloody defeats, reduced Egypt to its preſent ſtate of ſubjection.

While Selim was ſettling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deſerts and plains, under one Zinga-

neus-

neus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim and his officers perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate thoſe marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their poſterity is known all over Europe and Aſia, by the name of Gipſies.

An attempt was made a few years ſince, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whoſe father was a prieſt of the Greek church. Ali having turned Mahometan, and being a man of abilities and addreſs, rendered himſelf extremely popular in Egypt. A falſe accuſation having been made againſt him to the Grand Signior, his head was ordered to be ſent to Conſtantinople; but being appriſed of the deſign, he ſeized and put to death the meſſengers who brought this order, and ſoon found means to put himſelf at the head of an army. Being alſo aſſiſted by the dangerous ſituation to which the Turkiſh empire was reduced, in conſequence of the war with Ruſſia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancient ſultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he alſo laid claim to Syria, Paleſtine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient ſultans. He marched at the head of his troops to ſupport theſe pretenſions, and actually ſubdued ſome of the neighbouring provinces, both of Arabia and Syria. At the ſame time that he was engaged in theſe great enterpriſes, he was not leſs attentive to the eſtabliſhing of a regular form of government, and of introducing order into a country that had been long the ſeat of anarchy and confuſion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpoſe he gave great encouragement to the Chriſtian traders, and took off ſome ſhameful reſtraints and indignities, to which they were ſubjected in that barbarous country. He alſo wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greateſt aſſurances of his friendſhip, and that their merchants ſhould meet with every degree of protection and ſafety. His great deſign was ſaid to be, to make himſelf maſter of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey ſhewed an extent of thought and ability, that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and beſpoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire; but he was not finally ſucceſsful. He was, however, for ſome time extremely fortunate; he aſſumed the titles and ſtate of the ancient ſultans of Egypt, and was ably ſupported by Sheik Daher, and ſome other Arabian princes, who warmly eſpouſed his intereſts. He alſo ſucceeded in almoſt all his enterpriſes againſt the neighbouring Aſiatic governors and baſhas, whom he repeatedly defeated; but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt, by the baſe and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahomed Bey Abudahap, his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He was alſo himſelf wounded and taken priſoner; and dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand Cairo; Abudahap afterwards governed Egypt asSheik Bellet, and marched into Paleſtine to Subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, ſuppoſed to be ſtrangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amneſty, and truſting to their aſſurances, embraced the captain paſha's invitation to dine on board his ſhip, when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 15th year of his age.

From that time Egypt has been torn by a civil war, between the adherents of Ali, and other beys or princes, who roſe on his ruins. Of theſe

the principal are Morad and Ybrahim, who having driven their enemies into baniſhment, began to quarrel among themſelves. Alternately expelled from Cairo, they finally agreed to a compromiſe, March, 1769. From this time nothing of importance occurs till the late invaſion of Egypt by the French; an enterprize equally unprecedented and unjuſt; equally chimerical and perfidious. The potentates of Europe in their mutual wars made uſually ſome pretence to juſtice; they never ſo far inſulted the common feelings of mankind, as to attack without the ſmalleſt provocation, without the ſmalleſt colour or pretence, a neutral power who had never done them the ſmalleſt injury; this public contempt of all moral obligation, this open violation of all principles human and divine was reſerved for that bloody, atheiſtical, and impious faction who have ſo long oppreſſed France, and who wiſh to introduce their baſe and degrading doctrines into every quarter of the world.

The views of the French in this expedition have been variouſly repreſented; in one of the letters from Buonaparte's army lately publiſhed, a very plauſible and apparently true object is ſtated as the motive of this expedition. "To indemnify herſelf for the loſs of her colonies, (ſays the writer) France turned her attention towards Egypt and Syria; countries which by their climate and fertility are capable of being made the ſtore-houſe of France; and in proceſs of time the mart of her commerce with India. It is certain, that by ſeizing and *organizing* theſe countries, we ſhall be enabled to extend our views ſtill farther; to annihilate, by degrees, the Engliſh Eaſt India trade, enter into it with advantage ourſelves, and finally get into our hands, the whole commerce of Africa and Aſia."

For this purpoſe a fleet of 13 ſhips of the line and 4 frigates, together with a great number of tranſports were fitted out. The command of the fleet was given to admiral Brueys, that of the land forces to Buonaparte. After making themſelves maſters of Malta, and leaving a garriſon to defend it, they ſet ſail for Egypt and arrived on the firſt of July before Alexandria, and in the night landed 2000 men to the weſtward of the town. Some diviſions of Arabs and Mamlouks attacked the rear-guard of the French and made about 100 men priſoners. At 9 in the morning Buonaparte was under the walls of Alexandria, which he took after a fire of ſmall arms for about an hour; the inhabitants made but a feeble reſiſtance, and by eleven the French were maſters of the town with the loſs of 300 men killed and wounded. On the 7th all the troops arrived at Roſetta; and on the 9th they halted within ten leagues of Cairo, which ſoon after ſurrendered to them. The French army is eſtimated at 22,000 men, beſides marines. They are conſtantly haraſſed by the Mamlouks who decline engaging in any general action. Buonaparte's letters which have been lately publiſhed, give a dreadful account of their miſerable ſituation. Rear admiral Perée ſays, "we were ſix days without any thing but water-melons to eat—water-melons for our dinner, and water-melons for our deſert! The peaſantry of the country kept up a firing all day about our ears. I can aſſure thee that if theſe people knew how to level a muſket, not a man of us would return alive." The other letters give the ſame account of their diſtreſs. Buonaparte, in a letter to Kleber, thus deſcribes their journey to Cairo; "Thou haſt not an idea of the fatiguing marches we made to get to Cairo; never halting till 3 or 4 o'clock in the afternoon, after broiling in the ſun all day; the greateſt part of the time without food; obliged to glean what the diviſions which preceded us had left in thoſe deteſtable villages, which they had frequently pillaged; and haraſſed during the whole march by thoſe *hordes of robbers* called Bedouins, who killed not only our men, but

our

our officers, at 25 paces from the main body.—It is a more deſtructive war, on my ſoul, than that of La Vendée. There is a general relaxation in the ſervice; I do all I can to preſerve unity among the parties; but all goes very ill; the troops are neither paid nor fed; and thou mayſt eaſily gueſs what murmurs this occaſions: they are loudeſt perhaps among the officers."

From theſe letters it evidently appears, that Egypt has not proved that *land of promiſe* which the French were taught to expect. The ſcheme indeed always appeared perfectly chimerical, and as they are precluded from the poſſibility of returning to France, by the ever memorable victory of admiral Nelſon, it is probable that they will be obliged to ſurrender themſelves priſoners of war, or be gradually exterminated by famine and diſeaſe.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head I ſhall rank the countries of, 1. Morrocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea; on the ſouth by Tafilet; and on the eaſt, by Sagelmeſſa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the ſame in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers, to the eaſt, and Morocco on the ſouth, and is ſurrounded in other parts by the ſea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the eaſt by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the ſouth by Mount Atlas, and on the weſt by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and eaſt; by the kingdom of Algiers on the weſt; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the ſouth; being 220 miles in length from north to ſouth, and 170 in breadth from eaſt to weſt.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean ſea; on the ſouth, by the country of the Beriberies; on the weſt by the kingdom of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the eaſt by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the ſea-coaſt; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the ſtate or kingdom to which it belongs.

This being premiſed, I ſhall conſider the Barbary ſtates as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exerciſe of its internal policy; nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the ſame kingdom, in the cuſtoms and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other ſtates, except in the months of July and Auguſt, yet

yet it is in general friendly to the conſtitution of its inhabitants as well as to thoſe of Europeans.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. } Theſe ſtates under the Roman empire, were juſtly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a reſidence there, was conſidered as the higheſt ſtate of luxury. The produce of their ſoil formed thoſe magazines, which furniſhed all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppreſſion and barbarity of their government, yet they are ſtill fertile; not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raiſins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for ſome time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleaſures of life; for their great people find means to evade the ſobriety preſcribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines, and ſpirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces ſalt-petre, and great quantities of excellent ſalt; and lead and iron have been found in ſeveral places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the ſtates of Barbary; but their deſerts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, wolves, wild boars, and monſtrous ſerpents. The Barbary horſes were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now ſaid to be decayed, yet ſome very fine ones are occaſionally imported into England. Dromedaries, aſſes, mules, and kumrahs, a moſt ſerviceable creature, begot by an aſs upon a cow, are their beaſts of burden.

But from the ſervices of the camel they derive the greateſt advantages, both on account of the great fatigue he is capable of undergoing, and the ſubſiſtence he requires. This uſeful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilſome journies acroſs that continent. The camel is, therefore, (ſays Mr. Bruce) emphatically called the *ſhip of the deſert*. He ſeems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to diſcharge. The drieſt thiſtle, and the bareſt thorn, is all the food this uſeful animal requires, and even theſe, to ſave time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without ſtopping, or occaſioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to croſs immenſe deſerts, where no water is found, and countries not even moiſtened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power at one watering-place to lay in a ſtore with which he ſupplies himſelf for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large ciſterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleaſure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his ſtomach with the ſame effect as if he then drew it from a ſpring, and with this he travels, patiently and vigorouſly, all the day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infeſted with poiſonous winds, and glowing with parching and never cooling ſands.

Fowls and pigeons are remarkably plenty and good in the empire of Morocco; but ducks are ſcarce, and geeſe and turkies (ſays Mr. Lempriere) I never ſaw there. The country abounds with the red-legged partridge, likewiſe with quails, eagles, and hawks. In the proper ſeaſon the frankolin, a bird of the partridge ſpecies is found here; alſo a few wood cocks, ſnipes in great numbers, all kinds of water-fowl, and a variety of ſmall ſinging birds; of theſe the capſa-ſparrow is remarkable for the ſweetneſs of its note, which is thought to ex-

exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The oxen and ſheep of this country are ſmall; but their fleſh is well favoured. Hares, rabbits, antelopes, porcupines, bears, ferrets, weaſels, moles, foxes, wild cats, and cameleons are all natives of this empire; likewiſe all kinds of reptiles. Beſides vermin, ſays Dr. Shaw (ſpeaking of his travels through Barbary), the apprehenſions we are under, in ſome parts at leaſt of this country, of being bitten or ſtung by the ſcorpion, the viper, or the venomous ſpider, rarely failed to interrupt our repoſe; a refreſhment ſo very grateful, and ſo highly neceſſary to a weary traveller. The ſeas and bays of Barbary abound with the fineſt and moſt delicious fiſh of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to thoſe of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers ſay, its capital contained 100,000 houſes, whereas at preſent, it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horſe and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is ſaid to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Chriſtian ſlaves; but no eſtimate can be formed as to the populouſneſs of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly hoſpitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from thoſe of the metropolis.

Tunis is the moſt poliſhed republic of all the Barbary ſtates. The capital contains 10,000 families, and above 3000 tradeſmens' ſhops; and its ſuburbs conſiſt of 1000 houſes. The Tuniſines are indeed exceptions to the other ſtates of Barbary; for even the moſt civiliſed of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their diſtinctions are well kept up, and proper reſpect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned profeſſions. They cultivate friendſhip with the European ſtates; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are ſaid at preſent to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The women are handſome in their perſons; and though the men are ſun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate, nor are they leſs neat and elegant in their dreſs; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the ſame pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made uſe of when ſhe is ſaid (2 Kings, chap. ix. verſe 30.) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are ſober, orderly, and clean in their perſons, their behaviour complaiſant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the city.

Tripoli was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and opulent of all the ſtates on the coaſt; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to between 4 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much of a piece with thoſe of the Egyptians already deſcribed. The ſubjects of the Barbary ſtates, in general ſubſiſting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight deſperately when they meet with a prize at ſea; they are, notwithſtanding, far inferior to the Engliſh, and other European ſtates, both in the conſtruction and management of their veſſels. They are, if we except the Tuniſines, void of all arts and literature. The miſery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's ſervice, are beyond all deſcription; but thoſe who

who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hoſpitable inoffenſive people; and indeed it is a general obſervation, that the more diſtant the inhabitants of thoſe ſtates are from the ſeats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithſtanding their poverty, they have a livelineſs about them, eſpecially thoſe who are of Arabic deſcent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to loſe, they are peaceable among themſelves. They are naturally of a grave diſpoſition, fervid in profeſſions of friendſhip but very inſincere in their attachments. They have no curioſity, no ambition of knowledge. When in adverſity they manifeſt the moſt abject ſubmiſſion to their ſuperiors, and in proſperity their tyranny and pride is inſupportable. The Moors are ſuppoſed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppreſſed by a handful of inſolent domineering Turks, the refuſe of the ſtreets of Conſtantinople.

DRESS.] The dreſs of theſe people is a linen ſhirt, over which they tie a ſilk or cloth veſtment with a faſh, and over that a looſe coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have ſlippers on their feet; and perſons of condition ſometimes wear buſkins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their ſlippers when they attend religious duties, or the perſon of their ſovereign. They are fond of ſtriped and fancied ſilks. The dreſs of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a ſort of cawl on their heads inſtead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houſes conſiſts of carpets and mattreſſes, on which they they ſit and lie. In eating, their ſlovenlineſs is diſguſting. They are prohibited gold and ſilver veſſels; and their meat, which they ſwallow by handfuls, is boiled or roaſted to rags.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of theſe ſtates are Mahometans; but many ſubjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern ſectariſt, and an enemy to the ancient doctrines of the califs. All of them are very fond of idiots; and in ſome caſes their protection ſcreens offenders from puniſhment for the moſt notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of theſe ſtates are now promiſcuouſly called, (becauſe the Saracens firſt entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors) have adopted the very worſt parts of the Mahometan religion, and ſeem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is puniſhed with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the moſt unnatural crimes with impunity. All foreigners are allowed the open profeſſion of their religion.

LANGUAGE.] As the ſtates of Barbary poſſeſs thoſe countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is ſtill ſpoken in ſome of the inland countries, and even by ſome inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the ſea-port towns, and maritime countries, a baſtard kind of Arabic is ſpoken; and ſeafaring people are no ſtrangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spaniſh, &c. that is ſo well known in all ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] This article is well worth the ſtudy of an antiquary, but the ſubjects of it are difficult of acceſs. The reader can ſcarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the moſt curious remains of antiquity, but they lie ſcattered amidſt ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatneſs are ſtill to be met with,

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and many ruins which bear evidence of their ancient grandeur and populouſneſs. Theſe point out the old Julia Cæſarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itſelf. A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are ſtill remaining, particularly at Manuba, a country houſe of the Bey's, four miles from Tunis; but no veſtige of its walls. The ſame is the fate of Utica, famous for the retreat and death of Cato; and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and ſo over-run is the country with barbariſm, that their very ſcites are not known, even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings which remain ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Beſides thoſe of claſſical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the moſt ſtupendous magnificence, are likewiſe found in this vaſt tract: theſe were erected under the califs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was ſubdued by the Turks, or reduced to its preſent form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curioſities belonging to this country, excepting its ſalt-pits, which in ſome places take up an area of ſix miles. Dr. Shaw mentions ſprings found here, that are ſo hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almoſt in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities: but by the beſt accounts the common people live in a very ſlovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houſes, and 107 moſques. Their public baths are large, and handſomely paved with marble. The proſpect of the country and ſea from Algiers is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but the city, though for ſeveral ages it has braved ſome of the greateſt powers in Chriſtendom, could make but a faint defence againſt a regular ſiege; and it is ſaid that three Engliſh fifty-gun ſhips might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. If ſo, the Spaniards muſt have been very deficient either in courage or conduct. They attacked it in 1775 by land and by ſea, but were repulſed with great loſs, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horſe, and 47 king's ſhips of different rates, and 346 tranſports. In the years 1783 and 1784, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea to deſtroy the city and gallies, but after ſpending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or extinction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a ſmall iſland where there is a caſtle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the fineſt of all theſe ſtates, contains the remains of many noble cities, ſome of them ſtill in good condition. Tunis, built near the original ſite of Carthage, hath a wall and fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houſes are not magnificent, but neat and commodious: as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods; but, like Algiers, it is diſtreſſed for want of freſh water, but that of rain, preſerved in ciſterns, is chiefly uſed by the inhabitants.

The city of Tripoli conſiſts of an old and new town, the latter being the moſt flouriſhing; but great inconveniences attend its ſituation, particularly the want of ſweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coaſt, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of conſiderable trade, and the object of many bloody diſputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Conſtantina was the ancient Cirta,

and one of the ſtrongeſt cities of Numidia, being inacceſſible on all ſides, excepting the ſouth-weſt.

Beſides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie ſcattered up and down this immenſe tract of country. The city of Fez, at preſent the capital of the kingdom ſo called, is ſaid to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, beſides merchants and foreigners. Its moſques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond deſcription, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is eſteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, ſituated about two miles within the ſtraits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catherine, conſort to Charles II. of England. It was intended to be to the Engliſh what Gibraltar is now; and it muſt have been a moſt noble acquiſition, had not the miſunderſtandings between the king and his parliament occaſioned him to blow up its fortifications and demoliſh its harbour; ſo that from being one of the fineſt cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fiſhing town. Ceuta, upon the ſame ſtrait, almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, beſieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houſes; but the inhabitants are ſaid to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Geſula, form no part of the ſtates of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their ſovereign; nor do they contain any thing, that is particularly curious. Zaara, is a deſert country, thinly peopled, and almoſt deſtitute both of water and proviſions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower ſubjects of theſe ſtates know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be ſupplied with neceſſary utenſils and manufactures; ſo that their exports conſiſt chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, ſword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and ſofter than thoſe of Turkey, though not ſo good in other reſpects. As they leave almoſt all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Chriſtians ſettled among them, the latter have eſtabliſhed ſilk and linen works, which ſupply the higher ranks of their own ſubjects. They have no ſhips, that, properly ſpeaking, are employed in commerce; ſo that the French and Engliſh carry on the greateſt part of their trade. Their exports, beſides thoſe already mentioned, conſiſt in elephants' teeth, oſtrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raiſins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and ſandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewiſe ſaid to carry on a conſiderable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and ſome inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vaſt numbers of Negroes, who ſerve in their armies, and are ſlaves in their houſes and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furniſh them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the Engliſh in the ports of Morocco, are but half of thoſe paid by other Europeans. It is a general obſervation, that no nation is fond of trading with theſe ſtates, not only on account of their capricious deſpotiſm, but the villainy of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and when detected are ſeldom puniſhed.

It has often been thought ſurpriſing, that the Chriſtian powers ſhould ſuffer their marine to be inſulted by theſe barbarians, who take the ſhips of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a ſubſidy either

either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwiſe than by ſuppoſing, firſt, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be the lord paramount; ſecondly, that no Chriſtian power would be fond of ſeeing Algiers, and the reſt of that coaſt, in poſſeſſion of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would inſtantly carry their effects into the deſerts and mountains, ſo that the benefit reſulting from the conqueſt, muſt be tedious and precarious.—Indeed, expeditions againſt Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unſucceſsful, as before noticed.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be ſaid to exiſt. The emperors have for ſome ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the ſubmiſſion with which their ſubjects bear it. In the abſence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is ſeldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some veſtiges, however, of the caliſate government ſtill continue; for in places where no military officer reſides, the mufti or high-prieſt is the fountain of all juſtice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our juſtices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately ſubject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand ſignior to be his ſuperior, and he pays him a diſtant allegiance as the chief repreſentative of Mahomet. What I have ſaid of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, have each of them a Turkiſh paſha or dey who governs in the name of the grand ſignior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious ſubjects to his authority. He cannot even be ſaid to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every ſoldier in the army has a vote in chooſing the ſucceeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodſhed, yet it is no ſooner fixed than he is cheerfully recogniſed and obeyed. It is true, he muſt be confirmed by the Porte; but this is ſeldom refuſed, as the divan is no ſtranger to the diſpoſitions of the people. The power of the dey is deſpotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000l. a year, without greatly oppreſſing his ſubjects, who are very tenacious of their property. Theſe deys pay ſlight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand ſignior is at war with a Chriſtian power, he requires their aſſiſtance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council, which conſiſts of thirty paſhas. Theſe paſhas ſeldom fail of forming parties amongſt the ſoldiers, againſt the reigning dey, whom they make no ſcruple of aſſaſſinating, even in council; and the ſtrongeſt candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is depoſed; ſometimes, though but very ſeldom, he reſigns his authority to ſave his life, and it is ſeldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unſucceſsful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, ſeldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] I have already mentioned thoſe of Algiers, but they are now ſaid to be exceeded by Tunis. They conſiſt of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Chriſtians, a ſmall capitation tax, and the cuſtoms paid by the Engliſh, French, and other nations, who are ſuffered to trade with thoſe ſtates. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no

idea of his revenues, becauſe none of his ſubjects can be ſaid to poſſeſs any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ranſoms of Chriſtian ſlaves are his perquiſites. He ſometimes ſhares in the veſſels of the other ſtates, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan ſubjects, and ſix crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewiſe conſiderable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, eſpecially the ſlave trade towards the ſouth. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000l. a year. A detachment of the army of theſe ſtates is annually ſent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at ſea, ſometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

MILITARY STRENGTH AT SEA AND LAND. } By the beſt accounts we have received, the king of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the ſtrength of his army conſiſts of cavalry mounted by his negro ſlaves. Thoſe wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other ſtate but ſervitude, and no other maſter but that king, and prove the firmeſt ſupport of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco conſiſted only of three ſmall ſhips, which lay at Sallee, and being full of men, ſometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, conſiſting of Turks, and cologlies, or the ſons of ſoldiers. Part of them ſerve as marines on board their veſſels. About 1000 of them do garriſon duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Beſides theſe, the dey can bring 2000 Mooriſh horſe to the field; but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little truſted. Thoſe troops are under excellent diſcipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary ſtates keep up a force in proportion to their abilities; ſo that a few years ago they refuſed to ſend any tribute to the Turkiſh emperor, who ſeems to be ſatisfied with the ſhadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and a more extenſive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that ſtate flouriſhed, the preſent inhabitants have ſcarcely any merchant ſhips belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which though increaſed ſince the laſt attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and ſmall, and ſome years ago did not exceed ſix ſhips, from thirty-ſix to fifty guns. The admiral's ſhip belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but ſubject to military law. With ſuch a contemptible fleet, theſe infidels not only harraſs the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of preſents.

HISTORY.] There perhaps is no problem in hiſtory ſo unaccountable as the decadence of the ſplendor, power, and glory of the ſtates of Barbary; which, when Rome was miſtreſs of the world, formed the faireſt jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the ſeventh century that, after theſe ſtates had been by turns in poſſeſſion of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the califs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became maſters of almoſt all Spain, from whence their poſterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles ſettled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coaſt. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who preſſed them ſo hard, that they called to their aſſiſtance the two famous brothers Barbaroſſa, who were admirals of the Turkiſh fleet, and who,

who, after breaking the Spaniſh yoke, impoſed upon the inhabitants of all thoſe ſtates (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V. to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unſucceſsful; and, as obſerved, the inhabitants have in fact ſhaken off the Turkiſh yoke likewiſe.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the ſucceſſors of thoſe ſovereigns of that country who are called xeriffs, and whoſe powers reſembled that of the califate of the Saracens. They have been in general a ſet of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them ſome able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebaſtian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almoſt a continued ſtate of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Chriſtian princes ever ſince; nor does the crown of Great Britain ſometimes diſdain, as in the year 1769, to purchaſe their friendſhip with preſents.

The empire of Morocco has been greatly diſturbed by inteſtine commotions; a battle was fought between the emperor and his brother Ben Aſſer, in which the latter was defeated and ſlain. Late accounts ſay that the Spaniards had aſſiſted another brother againſt the emperor, and that the conflict proved fatal to the latter. The preſent emperor is Muley Yazid, who falling under the diſpleaſure of his father was obliged to take refuge in a religious ſanctuary. His father was preparing to drive him by force from this ſanctuary, when he was overtaken by death. Immediately upon this event Muley Yazid came from his ſanctuary and quietly aſcended the throne.

ABYSSINIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 900 Breadth 800	between	6 and 20 north latitude. 26 44 eaſt longitude.	378,000

Boundaries.] IT is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the eaſt, partly by the Red Sea, and partly by Dancala; on the weſt, by Gorham; and on the ſouth, by the kingdom of Gingiro, and Alaba.

It contains, the following provinces, viz.

1. Maſuah; 2. Tigre; 3. Samen; 4. Begemder; 5. Amhara; 6. Walaka; 7. Gojam; 8. Damot; 9. Maitſha; 10. Dembea; 11. Kuara; 12. Nara. In this diviſion, according to Mr. Bruce, from whom this account is taken, there is neither geographical nor hiſtorical preciſion.

Air and seasons.] The rainy ſeaſon continues for ſix months of the year, from April to September, which is ſucceeded, without interval, by a cloudleſs ſky, and vertical ſun; and cold nights, which as immediately follow theſe ſcorching days. The earth, notwithſtanding the heat of theſe days, is yet perpetually cold ſo as to feel diſagreeably to the ſoles of the feet; partly owing

owing to the ſix months rains, when no ſun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

Quadrupeds.] There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyſſinia. Of the tame or cow-kind, great abundance preſent themſelves every where, differing in ſize, ſome having horns of various dimenſions, ſome without horns at all; differing alſo in the colour and length of their hair.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel, or antelope kind; the bohur, ſaſſa, feeho, and madequa, and many others. The hyæna is ſtill more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of theſe the moſt numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jackal; this is preciſely the ſame in all reſpects as the deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great numbers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, ſmaller and ſmoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing elſe, is met frequently in ſwamps or banks of rivers covered with wood.

The elephant, rhinorceros, giraffa, and camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or faadh, which is the panther, ſeen in the high and cultivated country. The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in all the rivers, not only of Abyſſinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the aſs kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Athara, but no zebras; theſe are the inhabitants of Fazuclo and Narea.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyæna for its mercileſs ferocity. They were a plague, ſays our author, ſpeaking of theſe animals, in Abyſſinia in every ſituation, both in the city and in the field, and I think ſurpaſſed the ſheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark till the dawn of day, ſeeking the different pieces of ſlaughtered carcaſes which this cruel and unclean people expoſe in the ſtreets without burial.

It is a conſtant obſervation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies from the face of a man, till by ſome accident they have been brought to engage, and the beaſt has prevailed againſt him; then that feeling of ſuperiority imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for man's preſervation, ſeems to forſake him. The lion, having once taſted human blood, relinquiſhes the purſuit after the flock. He repairs to ſome high-way or frequented path, and has been known in the kingdom of Tunis, to interrupt the road to a market for ſeveral weeks; and in this he perſiſts till hunters or ſoldiers are ſent out to deſtroy him.

Birds.] The number of birds in Abyſſinia exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally ſtored with them: the firſt kind are the carnivorous birds. Many ſpecies of the eagle and hawk, many more ſtill of the vulture kind, as it were, over-ſtock all parts of the country. That ſpecies of glebe, called Haddaya, ſo frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the ſun, after the tropical rains. The Niſſaa, or Golden Eagle is not only the largeſt of the eagle kind, but ſurely one of the largeſt birds that flies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle, Rachamah, Erkoom, Moroc, Sheregrig, and Waalia, are particularly deſcribed by the hiſtorian of Abyſſinia, to whoſe celebrated work we refer the reader who is deſirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyſſinia, eſpecially of the web-footed kind. Vaſt variety of ſtorks cover the plains in May, when the rains

rains become conſtant. All the deep and graſſy bogs have ſnipes in them; and ſwallows there are of many kinds unknown in Europe; thoſe that are common in Europe appear in paſſage at the very ſeaſon when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyſſinia; but thoſe are of an immenſe ſize and beauty. There are no geeſe, wild or tame, excepting what is called the Golden Gooſe, Gooſe of the Nile, or Gooſe of the Cape, common in all the ſouth of Africa; theſe build their neſts upon trees, and when not in water, generally ſit upon them.

INSECTS.] From the claſs of inſects, we ſhall ſelect the moſt remarkable, viz. the Tſaltſalya or fly, which is an inſect that furniſhes a ſtriking proof how fallacious it is to judge by appearances. If we conſider its ſmall ſize, its weakneſs, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or inſignificant. Yet paſſing from theſe to his hiſtory, and to the account of his powers, we muſt confeſs the very great injuſtice we do him from want of conſideration. We are obliged with the greateſt ſurprize to acknowledge, that thoſe huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and the tyger, inhabiting the ſame woods, are ſtill vaſtly his inferiors, and that the appearance of this ſmall inſect, nay, his very ſound, though he is not ſeen, occaſions more trepidation, movement, and diſorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of theſe monſtrous animals collected together, though their number was in a ten-fold proportion greater than it really is.

This inſect has not been deſcribed by any naturaliſt. It is in ſize very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion. As ſoon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forſake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and haſten down to the ſands of Atbara, and there they remain while the rains laſt, this cruel enemy never daring to purſue them farther. Though the ſize of the camel is immenſe, his ſtrength vaſt, and his body covered with a thick ſkin, defended with ſtrong hair, yet ſtill he is not capable to ſuſtain the violent punctures the fly makes with his pointed proboſcis. He muſt loſe no time in removing to the ſands of Atbara; for, when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large boſſes, which ſwell, break, and putrify, to the certain deſtruction of the creature.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is alſo found in Abyſſinia. *Baleſſar*, *Balm*, or *Balſam*, is alſo a native of Abyſſinia. The great value ſet upon this drug in the eaſt, remounts to very early ages. We know from ſcripture, the oldeſt hiſtory extant, as well as moſt infallible, that the Iſhmaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants, trafficking with the India commodities into Egypt, brought with them balm as part of the cargo.—The *Enſete* is an herbaceous plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar, but it moſt abounds in that part of Maitſha and Goutto weſt of the Nile, where there are large plantations of it, and is there, almoſt excluſive of every thing elſe, the food of the Galla inhabiting that province. When ſoft, like a turnip well boiled, if eat with milk or butter, it is the beſt of all food; wholeſome, nouriſhing, and eaſily digeſted. The *Teff* is a grain commonly ſown all over Abyſſinia, where it ſeems to thrive equally on all ſorts of ground; from it is made the bread which is commonly uſed throughout this country. The Abyſſinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and ſome of it of an excellent quality. They likewiſe make as fine wheat-bread as any in the world, both

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for colour and taſte; but the uſe of wheat-bread is chiefly confined to people of the firſt rank. The acacia tree is very common in Abyſſinia, as are ſeveral other curious productions of the vegetable world, many of which are deſcribed in the Appendix of our author, and illuſtrated by many elegant engravings, which will afford a very great entertainment to the curious botaniſt.

Lakes.] The lake of Tzana (not to mention thoſe of Gooderoo, and Court Ohha) is by much the largeſt expanſe of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greateſt breadth is 35 miles, and its extent in length is 49. The Nile, by a current always viſible, croſſes the end of it. In the dry months, from October to March, the lake ſhrinks greatly in ſize; but after that all thoſe rivers are full which are on every ſide of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a center; then it ſwells, and extends itſelf into the plain country, and has of courſe a much larger ſurface.

There are about eleven inhabited iſlands in the lake. All theſe iſlands were formerly uſed as priſons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat, on account of ſome diſguſt or great misfortune, or as places of ſecurity to depoſit their valuable effects during troubleſome times.

Cataracts of the Nile.] Omitting thoſe of inferior note, we ſhall here give the reader ſome account of the great cataract of Alata, "which, ſays Mr. Bruce, was the moſt magnificent ſight that ever I beheld. The height has been rather exaggerated. The miſſionaries ſay the fall is about ſixteen ells, or fifty feet. The meaſuring is, indeed, very difficult; but, by the poſition of long ſticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock, from the water's edge, I may venture to ſay that it is nearer forty feet than any other meaſure. The river had been conſiderably increaſed by rains, and fell in one ſheet of water, without any interval, above half an Engliſh mile in breadth with a force and noiſe that was truly terrible, and which ſtunned, and made made me, for a time, perfectly dizzy. A thick fume, or haze, covered the fall all round, and hung over the courſe of the ſtream both above and below, marking its tract, though the water is not ſeen. The river, though ſwelled with rain, preſerved its natural clearneſs, and fell, as far as I could diſcern, into a deep pool, or baſon, in the ſolid rock, which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice; the ſtream, when it fell, ſeeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its courſe, raiſing a wave, or violent ebullition, by chaffing againſt each other.

"Jerome Lobo pretends, that he has ſat under the curve, or arch, made by the projectile force of the water ruſhing over the precipice. He ſays he ſat calmly at the foot of it, and looking through the curve of the ſtream, as it was falling, ſaw a number of rainbows of inconceivable beauty in this extraordinary priſm. This however," continues Mr. Bruce, "without heſitation, I aver to be a downright falſehood. A deep pool of water reaches to the very foot of the rock, and is in perpetual agitation. Now allowing that there was a ſeat or bench, which there is not, in the middle of the pool, it is abſolutely impoſſible, by any exertion of human ſtrength, to have arrived at it. Although a very robuſt man, in the prime and vigour of life, and a hardy practiſed, indefatigable ſwimmer, I am perfectly confident he could not have got to that ſeat from the ſhore through the quieteſt part of that baſon. And, ſuppoſing the friar placed in his imaginary ſeat under the curve of that immenſe arch of water, he muſt have had a portion of firmneſs more than falls to the ſhare of ordinary men, and which

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is not likely to be acquired in a monaſtic life, to philoſophize upon optics in ſuch a ſituation, where every thing would ſeem to his dazzled eyes to be in motion, and the ſtream, in a noiſe like the loudeſt thunder, to make the ſolid rock (at leaſt as to ſenſe) ſhake to its very foundation, and threaten to tear every nerve to pieces, and to deprive one of other ſenſes beſides that of hearing. It was a moſt magnificent ſight, that ages, added to the greateſt length of human life, would not efface or eradicate from my memory; it ſtruck me with a kind of ſtupor, and a total oblivion of where I was, and of every other ſublunary concern. It was one of the moſt ſtupendous ſights in the creation."

Sources of the Nile.] The Agows of Damot pay divine honour to the Nile; they worſhip the river, and thouſands of cattle have been offered, and ſtill are offered, to the ſpirit ſuppoſed to reſide at its ſources. The village of Geeſh, though not farther diſtant than 600 yards, is not in ſight of the ſources of the Nile. The country upon the ſame plane with the fountains, terminates in a cliff about 300 yards deep down to the plain of Aſia, which flat country continues in the ſame ſubaltern degree of elevation, till it meets the Nile again about 70 miles ſouthward, after it has made the circuit of Gojam and Damot. In the middle of a marſh, about 80 yards in breadth, and ſomething leſs than 40 yards from the bottom of the mountain of Geeſh, ariſes a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the ſurface of the marſh itſelf, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is ſomething ſhort of twelve feet; it is ſurrounded by a ſhallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eaſtward; it is firmly built with ſod or earthern turf, brought from the ſides, and conſtantly kept in repair, and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the middle of this altar is a hole, obviouſly made, or at leaſt enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of graſs, or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly pure and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion of any kind diſcernible upon its ſurface. This mouth, or opening of the ſource, is ſome parts of an inch leſs than three feet diameter, and the water ſtood on the 5th of November, when Mr. Bruce viſited it, about two inches from the lip of the brim, nor did it increaſe or diminiſh during all the time Mr. Bruce remained at Geeſh, though he made plentiful uſe of it. This ſpring is about ſix feet ſix inches deep.

Ten feet diſtant from the firſt of theſe ſprings, a little to the weſt of ſouth, is the ſacred fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep. And about twenty feet diſtant from the firſt, to the S. S. W. is the third ſource, its mouth being ſomething more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep. Both theſe laſt fountains ſtand in the middle of ſmall altars, made like the former of firm ſod, but neither of them above three feet diameter, and having a foot of leſs elevation than the firſt. With a braſs quadrant of three feet radius, he found the latitude to be 10° 59′ north; and by 10° 59′ 25″ in round numbers, for the exact latitude of the principal fountain of the Nile, though the Jeſuits have ſuppoſed it 12° N. by a random gueſs. The longitude he aſcertained to be 36° 55′ 30″ eaſt of the meridian of Greenwich.

Causes of the inundations of the Nile.] The ſun being nearly ſtationary for ſome days in the tropic of Capricorn, the air there becomes ſo much rarefied, that the heavier winds, charged with watery particles, ruſh in upon it from the Atlantic on the weſt, and from the Indian Ocean, on the eaſt. The ſouth wind, moreover, loaded with heavy vapours, condenſed in that high ridge of mountains, not far ſouth of the Line, which

forms a ſpine to the peninſula of Africa, and running northward with the other two, furniſh wherewithal to reſtore the equilibrium. Having thus gathered ſuch a quantity of vapours as it were to a focus, the ſun now puts them in motion, and drawing them after it in its rapid progreſs northwards, on the 7th of January, for two years together, ſeemed to have extended its power to the atmoſphere of Gondar, when for the firſt time, there appeared in the ſky, white, dappled, thin clouds, the ſun being then diſtant 34° from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark ſpeck having been ſeen for ſeveral months before. Advancing to the line with increaſed velocity, and deſcribing larger ſpirals, the ſun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar the 1ſt of March, being then diſtant 5° from the zenith; theſe are greedily abſorbed by the thirſty ſoil, and this ſeems to be the fartheſt extent of the ſun's influence, capable of cauſing rain, which then only falls in large drops, and laſts but a few minutes; the rainy ſeaſon, however, begins moſt ſeriouſly upon its arrival at the zenith of every place, and theſe rains continue conſtant and increaſing after he has paſſed it, in his progreſs northward. Before this, green boughs and leaves appear floating in the Bahar el Abiad, and ſhew that about 5° from the line, the latitude where it riſes, the rains are already abundant.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Laſta, firſt diſcoloured, and then beginning to ſwell, join the Nile in the ſeveral parts of its courſe neareſt them; the river then, from the height of its angle of inclination forces itſelf through the ſtagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of ſtreams pour themſelves from Gojam, Damot, Maitſha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by intenſe evaporation, but now begins to fill inſenſibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the ſun having now paſſed all Abyſſinia, the rivers there are all full, and then is the time of the greateſt rains in Abyſſinia, while it is for ſome days as it were, ſtationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the ſun has paſſed the line, he begins the rainy ſeaſon to the ſouthward, ſtill as he approaches the zenith of each place; but the ſituation and neceſſities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains run from about 6° ſouth all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and interſects the ſouthern part of the peninſula, nearly in the ſame manner that the river Nile does the northern. A ſtrong wind from the ſouth, ſtopping the progreſs of the condenſed vapours daſhes them againſt the cold ſummits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers which eſcape in the direction either eaſt or weſt, as the level preſents itſelf. If this is towards the weſt, they fall down the ſides of the mountains into the Atlantic, and if on the eaſt, into the Indian Ocean.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] GONDAR, the metropolis of Abyſſinia, is ſituated upon a hill of conſiderable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It conſiſts of about ten thouſand families in time of peace: the houſes are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the conſtruction within the tropical rains. On the weſt end of the town is the king's houſe, formerly a ſtructure of conſiderable conſequence. It was a ſquare building, flanked with ſquare towers. It was formerly four ſtories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country ſouthward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this houſe is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is

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ſtill ample lodging in the two loweſt floors of it, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are ſurrounded by a ſubſtantial ſtone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole and look into the ſtreet. There appears to have been never any embraſures for cannon, and the four ſides of the wall are above an Engliſh mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of obſervations of the ſun and ſtars, made by day and night, in the courſe of three years, with an aſtronomical quadrant of three feet radius, and two excellent teleſcopes, and by a mean of all their ſmall differences, is in N. lat. 12° 34′ 30″; and by many obſervations of the ſatellites of Jupiter, eſpecially the firſt, both in their immerſions and emerſions during that period, Mr. Bruce concluded its longitude to be 37° 33′ 0″ eaſt from the meridian of Greenwich.

DIXAN is the firſt town in Abyſſinia, on the ſide of Taranta. It is built on the top of a hill perfectly in form of a ſugarloaf; a deep valley ſurrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds ſpirally up the hill till it ends among the houſes. It is true of Dixan, as of moſt frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries reſort thither. The town conſiſts of Moors and Chriſtians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of theſe ſects is a very extraordinary one, that of ſelling children. The Chriſtians bring ſuch as they have ſtolen in Abyſſinia to Dixan as to a ſure depoſit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Maſuah, whence they are ſent over to Arabia or India. The prieſts of the province of Tigre, eſpecially thoſe near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat. 14° 57′ 55″ north, and lon. 40° 7′ 30″ eaſt of the meridian of Greenwich.

AXUM is ſuppoſed to have been once the capital of Abyſſinia, and its ruins are now very extenſive; but, like the cities of ancient times, conſiſt altogether of public buildings. In one ſquare, which ſeems to have been the center of the town, there are forty obeliſks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is ſtanding, there is a *patera* exceedingly well carved in the Greek taſte. There is a great deal of carving upon the top of the obeliſk in Gothic taſte, diſpoſed rudely, and without order. Axum is watered by a ſmall ſtream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley, where ſtand the rows of obeliſks. The ſpring is received into a magnificent baſon of 150 feet ſquare, and thence it is carried at pleaſure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting pomegranates, neither are theſe very excellent. The latitude of this town is 14° 6′ 36′ north.

MASUAH, is a ſmall iſland immediately on the Abyſſinian ſhore, having an excellent harbour and water deep enough for ſhips of any ſize to the edge of the iſland. The houſes of this town, are in general built of poles and bent graſs, as in the towns of Arabia; but beſides theſe, there are about twenty of ſtone, ſix or eight of which are two ſtories each. N. lat. 15° 35′ 5″ E. lon. 39° 36′ 30″.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] Maſuah continued a place of much reſort as long as commerce flouriſhed and notwithſtanding the oppreſſion of the Turks is ſtill a place of conſiderable trade. But it is all done in a ſlovenly manner and for articles where a ſmall capital is inveſted. Property here is too pre-

carious to riſk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every tranſaction.

Gondar and all the neighbouring country depend for the neceſſaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of ſuch articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the ſources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where 60 miles in length, nor half that in breadth. Theſe Agows come conſtantly in ſucceſſion, a thouſand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with theſe commodities to the capital.

It may naturally occur, that, in a long carriage, ſuch as that of a hundred miles in ſuch a climate, butter muſt melt, and be in a ſtate of fuſion, conſequently very near putrefaction: this is prevented by the root of an herb, called Moc moco, yellow in colour, and in ſhape nearly reſembling a carrot; this they bruiſe and mix with their butter, and a very ſmall quantity preſerves it freſh for a conſiderable time.

RELIGION.] Mr. Bruce informs us, from the annals of Abyſſinia, that in the time of Solomon all this country was converted to Judaiſm, and the government of the church and ſtate modelled according to what was then in uſe at Jeruſalem.

Some eccleſiaſtical writers, rather from attachment to particular ſyſtems, than from any conviction that the opinion they eſpouſe is truth, would perſuade us that the converſion of Abyſſinia to Chriſtianity happened in the days of the apoſtles; but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apoſtle of the Abyſſinians) in the year of Chriſt 333, according to our account.

Their firſt biſhop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, preſerved Abyſſinia untainted with hereſy till the day of his death, and being inſtructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanaſius, then ſitting in the chair of St. Mark, it follows that the true religion of the Abyſſinians, which they received on their converſion to Chriſtianity, is that of the Greek church. They receive the holy ſacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruiſed with the huſk together as it grows, ſo that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat ſpoon. Large pieces of bread are given to the communicants in proportion to their quality, which they chew as indecently and with full as much noiſe as they eat at table. They obſerve alſo circumciſion.

HISTORY.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the hiſtory of ſo barbarous and uncivilized a people will, we preſume, afford but ſmall amuſement to our readers, whatever ſatisfaction they may have received from ſurveying the manners and cuſtoms of the people, and the natural hiſtory of the country; we ſhall therefore make no farther apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyſſinia, but refer thoſe, who have any deſire of information upon this ſubject, to the ſecond volume of the Travels of our adventurous author, where he will find a very ample detail through more than 700 pages of a ponderous quarto.

FEZZAN, BORNOU, AND CASHNA.

IT having been long a ſubject of lamentation that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the *interior diſtricts* of Africa, we are happy to find that

that an aſſociation has been entered into for the purpoſe of exploring theſe dreary regions. This aſſociation took place on the 9th of June, 1788, and conſiſts of 95 members; out of which number the following perſons were elected a committee, viz. *lord Rawdon, the biſhop of Landaff, Sir Joſeph Banks, Mr. Beauſoy, and Mr. Stuart.* To theſe gentlemen were conſigned the direction of its funds, the management of its correſpondence, and the choice of the perſon to whom the geographical miſſion was to be aſſigned. Perſuaded of the importance of the object which the aſſociation had in view, their committee loſt no time in executing the plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected reſearches, they were choſen. One was a *Mr. Ledyard*; the other a *Mr. Lucas.*

Such a perſon as Mr. Ledyard was formed by nature for the object in contemplation, and were we unacquainted with the ſequel, we ſhould congratulate the ſociety in being ſo fortunate as to find ſuch a man for one of their miſſionaries; but the reader will ſoon be acquainted with the melancholy circumſtance to which we allude.

'From two ſuch geographical miſſionaries (obſerves a very reſpectable literary journaliſt *) much information was no doubt expected; and, though the views of the ſociety are not yet fully anſwered, the communications which it has received, are of a nature which will excite, though not fully gratify, the curioſity of geographers.

'Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own deſire, the difficult and perilous taſk of traverſing from eaſt to weſt in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the wideſt part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure, he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of Auguſt.

'Hence, he tranſmitted ſuch accounts to his employers, as manifeſt him to have been a traveller who obſerved, reflected, and compared; and ſuch was the information which he collected here from the travelling ſlave-merchants, and from others, reſpecting the interior diſtricts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Sennaar, (600 miles to the ſouth of Cairo): but death, attributed to various cauſes, arreſted him at the commencement of his reſearches, and diſappointed the hopes, which were entertained of his projected journey.

'Endowed with a ſoul for diſcovery; and formed, by nature, for atchievements of hardihood and peril; the death of Mr. Ledyard muſt be conſidered as a public misfortune. Ladies as well as philoſophers will lament him, eſpecially when they read his character of the fair ſex, which conceiving it to be juſt we ſhall here inſert. "Not haughty, not arrogant, not ſupercilious, they are full of courteſy and fond of ſociety; if hungry, dry, cold, wet or ſick, the women have ever been friendly to me and uniformly ſo; and to add to this virtue theſe actions have been performed in ſo free and kind a manner, that if I was dry, I drank the ſweeteſt draught, and if hungry, I eat the ſweeteſt morſel."

With a mixture of regret and diſappointment, we turn from poor Ledyard, to notice Mr. Lucas's communications, which occupy the greateſt part of the volume publiſhed by the aſſociation. He embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with inſtructions to proceed over the Deſert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to tranſmit by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford reſpec-

* Monthly Review, new Series vol. ii. p. 63.

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ting the interior of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coaſt of Guinea.

'Inſtructions to undertake great enterprizes, are more eaſily given than executed. So Mr. Lucas found; and ſo the reader, to his diſappointment will find likewiſe. Only a part of the plan was this geographical miſſionary able to carry into execution. He ſets out, indeed, mounted on a handſome mule, preſented to him by the bey, the baſhaw's eldeſt ſon, in company with ſhereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan; reſolved, we will ſuppoſe, to penetrate from Tripoli even unto Gambia: but his peregrinations, which began Feb. 1. 1789, terminated at Meſurata, on Feb. 7.

'Deprived of viſiting Fezzan, and the other inland diſtricts of Africa, Mr. Lucas ſolicits the information of his fellow-travellers, and tranſmits to the ſociety the reſult of his conferences. A memoir compiled in this way, from the reports of a ſhereef Imhammed, will not be deemed very ſatisfactory; and yet it certainly merits conſideration, as it is, in part, corroborated by other teſtimonies.'

Having no other ſources of information, however, we muſt, for the preſent, content ourſelves with theſe communications. From the various conferences of Mr. Lucas with the ſheeref Imhammed, the following narrative is compoſed:

'It deſcribes the kingdom of Fezzan to be a ſmall circular domain, placed in a vaſt wilderneſs, as an iſland in the midſt of the ocean, containing near an hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzouk is the capital, diſtant, ſouth from Meſurata, about 390 miles. In this kingdom are to be ſeen ſome venerable remains of ancient magnificence, ſome diſtricts of remarkable fertility, and numerous ſmoaking lakes, producing a ſpecies of foſſil alkali called *trona*. Agriculture and paſturage are the principal occupations of the Fezanners: they do not appear to have any coin; their medium of commerce is gold-duſt: their houſes, or rather huts, are built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid. As rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is a ſufficient protection. Their dreſs reſembles that of the Moors of Barbary: but, during the heats of ſummer, which are intenſe, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the ſun. To theſe, many particulars are added of their perſons, diſeaſes, and mode of cure; of their religion, government, taxes, animal and vegetable productions. Their ſovereign, who is a tributary of the baſhaw of Tripoli, adminiſters impartial juſtice.

'The narrative proceeds to ſtate, that ſouth eaſt of Mourzouk, at the diſtance of 100 miles, is a ſandy deſert, 200 miles wide; beyond which, are the mountains of Tibeſti, inhabited by ferocious ſavages, tributary to Fezzan. The vallies between the mountains are ſaid to be fertiliſed by innumerable ſprings, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibeſtins to the king of Fezzan, is twenty camel loads of ſenna.

'This kingdom is inconſiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Caſhna, which lie ſouth of Fezzan, occupying that vaſt region which ſpreads itſelf from the river of the Antelopes for 1200 miles weſtward, and includes a great part of the Niger's courſe. Caſhna, we are informed, contains a thouſand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is ſtill more conſiderable, thirty languages are ſaid to be ſpoken. The latter is repreſented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being ſituated within a day's journey of the river *Wod-el-Gazel*, which is loſt in the ſandy waſtes of the vaſt deſert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdſmen, dwelling, like the old pat-

patriarchs, in tents, and whoſe wealth conſiſts in their cattle *. (Bornou or Bernoa, is a word ſignifying the land of Noah; for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various ſorts of grain, the uſe of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only inſtrument of huſbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two ſpecies of melons, the water and the muſk, are produced in large abundance: but one of the moſt valuable of its vegetables is a tree called kedeyna, which, in form and height, reſembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the ſhell are both in great eſtimation, the firſt as a fruit, the laſt on account of the oil which it furniſhes when bruiſed, and which ſupplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a ſubſtitute for the oil of olives, P. 139. Bees, it is added, are ſo numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we muſt refer to the work. The population is deſcribed by the expreſſion, *a countleſs multitude*. We ſhall paſs over the nature of their religion, which is Mohammedan; of their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the ſingular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceaſed ſovereign: but the account of the preſent ſultan, his wives, and his children (p. 227), is too curious not to be exhibited.

'The preſent ſultan, whoſe name is Alli, is a man of an unoſtentatious, plain appearance; for he ſeldom wears any other dreſs than the common blue ſhirt of cotton or ſilk, and the ſilk or muſlin turban, which form the uſual dreſs of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his ſeraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are ſaid to be 500 in number, and he himſelf is deſcribed as the reputed father of 350 children, of whom 300 are males; a diſproportion which naturally ſuggeſts the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection, the joy of ſeeing herſelf the ſuppoſed parent of a future candidate for the empire, ſometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a ſtranger.

'We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not poſſeſſed by them.

'South-eaſt from Bornou, lies the extenſive kingdom of Begarmee: and beyond this kingdom, are ſaid to be ſeveral tribes of negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human fleſh. Theſe, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmeeſe; and, when they have taken as many priſoners as their purpoſe may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee. It is further ſaid, that if any of them, exhauſted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horſemen ſeizes on the oldeſt, and, cutting off his arm, uſes it as a club to drive on the reſt.

'We are not much diſpoſed to give credit to this relation. That the negroes, who are ſold for ſlaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable; and that they ſhould be driven along with the mangled limbs of their aſſociates, utterly exceeds belief.

'The empire of Caſhna bears a great reſemblance to that of Bornou.

'After peruſing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures, and commerce of theſe regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but ſuſpect conſiderable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and

* Horſes and horned cattle, goats, ſheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

which

which are often abſent three years, ſufficiently evince: but that they are divided into regular and civilized ſtates, may be a queſtion. *A thouſand towns and villages* in one empire, and *thirty different languages* ſpoken in the other, manifeſt a diſpoſition in the ſhereef Imhammed to enlargement, or, at leaſt to retail looſe reports. That they ſhould be acquainted with, yet not poſſeſs fire arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fiſh that abound in its waters, but little accords with the hiſtory of their commerce, and of their progreſs in manufactures.

'Let us, however, make all poſſible deductions, and be ever ſo incredulous as to ſome particulars, the proſpect which this narrative opens to us, of the interior of Africa (the greater part of which we have been accuſtomed to conſider as conſigned, by nature, to perpetual ſterility and deſolation) muſt afford great pleaſure; and though, as we have already remarked, it is far from being ſatisfactory, or from having anſwered the object of the miſſion, it may be regarded by the ſociety as that ſort of evidence which ſhould encourage them to perſevere, and ought to induce Europeans, without delay, actually to explore the central provinces of the African continent.'

SIERRA LEONE AND BULAM.

CONSIDERING the ardour of the maritime nations of Europe for ſettling colonies in diſtant regions of the globe, it is ſomewhat ſurpriſing that a climate ſo temperate and a ſoil ſo productive as that of Sierra Leone did not long ago attract their notice. A ſettlement was formed there in 1791 for a better purpoſe than that which firſt drew the natives of Europe to the Weſt-Indies and the American continent; it was not to plunder and oppreſs the miſerable natives; but to diffuſe among them the light of knowledge, the bleſſings of religion and the comforts of civilization; and thereby to cement and perpetuate the moſt confidential union between the European colonies and the natives of that country.

It had been aſcertained beyond a doubt, that the climate and ſoil of Africa were admirably ſuited to the growth of ſugar, coffee, cotton, indigo, &c. The company propoſed to inſtruct the natives to raiſe theſe articles, and to ſet them the example, by a ſpirited cultivation, on its own account.

Every thing was ſettled with the native chiefs upon the moſt equitable principles, and the ſhips ſailed in March 1792. Before the end of two years from the inſtitution of the colony, order and induſtry had begun to ſhow their effects in increaſing proſperity. The woods had been cut down to the diſtance of about three Engliſh miles all round the town. By theſe means the climate had become healthier, and ſickneſs had diminiſhed. The fame of the colony had ſpread not only along the whole weſtern coaſt of Africa, but alſo to parts far diſtant from the coaſt; embaſſies had been received of the moſt friendly nature from kings and princes ſeveral hundred miles diſtant; and the native chiefs had begun to ſend their children to the colony, with full confidence, to be taught reading, writing, and accounts, and to be brought up in the Chriſtian religion. In a word, it was not without grounds that the directors looked forward to that joyful period when, by the influence of the company's meaſures, the continent of Africa ſhould be reſcued from her preſent ſtate of darkneſs and miſery, and exhibit a ſcene of light and knowledge, of civilization and order, of peaceful induſtry and domeſtic comfort. But this

this chearful ſcene was ſoon overcaſt, and this beautiful and proſperous colony overwhelmed with ruin. The French Convention (a name infamous and ever to be execrated) having violated every principle of truth and juſtice in Europe, determined by the ſame means to give light and liberty to the Africans. They arrived at Sierra Leone, on the 28th of September 1794, fired upon the town and did much damage. The inhabitants being in no reſpect provided for their reception were forced to ſubmit.

In the afternoon the enemy landed, finding the town almoſt deſtitute of people, but rich in proviſions, clothing, and other ſtores. They began immediately to break open the houſes and to plunder. What they did not want, they deſtroyed, burnt, or threw into the river. They killed all the cattle and animals they found in the fields or ſtreets, yards, or elſewhere, not ſparing even aſſes, dogs, and cats. Theſe proceedings they continued the whole ſucceeding week, till they had entirely ruined this beautiful and proſpering colony; and when they found nothing more worth plundering, they ſet fire to the public buildings and all the houſes belonging to the Europeans; and burnt, as they ſaid, by miſtake nine or ten houſes of the coloniſts.

It was thus that the French Convention executed their purpoſe of ſpreading light and liberty through the world. The Sierra Leone colony was eſtabliſhed for no other end than to aboliſh the ſlave trade, to enlighten the Africans, and to render them rational, virtuous, free and happy; and thoſe powerful patrons of the rights of man deſtroyed that colony with many circumſtances of the moſt wanton cruelty. It is with pleaſure, however, that we learn from the proceedings of the general court held on the 25th of February 1795, that the directors do not yet deſpair of the colony; and that they have adopted prudent meaſures to avert all ſuch calamities in future.

A ſettlement of a ſimilar nature was formed upon the iſland of Bulam, on the ſame coaſt, to the eaſtward of the iſland of Biſagos, under the direction of Mr. Dalrymple. But this is now entirely relinquiſhed. A great part of the coloniſts has been maſſacred by the natives of the ſhore at the mouth of the river Gambia, who were accuſtomed to make annual plantations of rice in Bulam; and it was certainly a groſs error that this circumſtance was not before diſcovered, and a formal bargain of the iſle made with the Africans. The ſurviving coloniſts have taken refuge among their countrymen at Sierra Leone; and Mr. Dalrymple, the governor, has returned to England.

Of AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope.

See the Table and Map.

THIS immenſe territory is, comparatively ſpeaking, very little known; there is no modern traveller that has penetrated into the interior parts; ſo that we are not only ignorant of the bounds, but even of the names of ſeveral inland countries. In many material circumſtances, the

inhabitants of this extenſive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyſſinia, who are tawny, and profeſs a mixture of Chriſtianity, Judaiſm, and Paganiſm, they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the ſea-coaſts, which have been viſited and ſettled by ſtrangers, they are pagans; and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, poſſeſs a very extenſive juriſdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are groſsly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in ſmall ſocieties, each governed by its own prince. In Abyſſinia, indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but, on examination, it is found that the authority of theſe princes ſtands on a precarious footing, each tribe or ſeparate body of their ſubjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, ſtyled *Negus*, to whoſe commands, however contrary to thoſe of the *negaſcha negaſcht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to ſubmit. This indeed muſt always be the caſe among rude nations, where the art of governing like all others, is in a very ſimple and imperfect ſtate. In the ſucceſſion to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the deſcendants whether male or female.

The fertility of a country ſo prodigiouſly extenſive, might be ſuppoſed more various than we find it is: in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantages of ſoil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile. This ariſes from the intenſe heat of the ſun, which, where it meets with ſufficient moiſture, produces the utmoſt luxuriancy; and in thoſe countries where there are few rivers, reduces the ſurface of the earth to a barren ſand. Of this ſort are the countries of Anian and Zaara, which for want of water, and conſequently of all other neceſſaries, are reduced to perfect deſerts, as the name of the latter denotes. In thoſe countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyſſinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the higheſt perfection and greateſt abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Caſati, and Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and ſilver. The baſer metals likewiſe are found in theſe and many other parts of Africa. But the perſons of the natives make the moſt conſiderable article in the produce and traffic of this miſerable quarter of the globe.

On the Guinea or weſtern coaſt, the Engliſh trade to James' Fort and other ſettlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and ſpirituous liquors, for the perſons of the natives. Among the negroes, a man's wealth conſiſts in the number of his family, whom he ſells like ſo many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the ſlave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. Theſe were carried on from the ſame coaſt, where the Dutch and French had their ſettlements for the purpoſe, moſt of which have been ſince reduced by the Engliſh. The Portugueſe are in poſſeſſion of the eaſt and weſt coaſt of Africa, from the tropic of Capricorn to the equator; which immenſe tract they became maſters of by their ſucceſſive attempts and happy diſcovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coaſt of Zanguebar, on the eaſtern ſide, they trade not only for the articles above-mentioned, but likewiſe for ſeveral

others,

others, as ſena, and aloes, civet, ambergriſe, and frankincenſe. The ſettlement of the Dutch towards the ſouthern parts of the continent, in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, particularly Cape Town, which is well ſettled and fortified are in poſſeſſion of the Engliſh; where their ſhips bound for India uſually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them ſpirituous liquors.

COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

DURING the thirty ſix hours that I paſſed (ſays Vaillant) among the Gonaquai Hottentots, I had time to make ſome uſeful obſervations on their manners and ſpeech. I remarked that they clucked with their tongues like the other Hottentots.

The affinity of cuſtoms, manners, and diſpoſitions, the neighbourhood of Caffraria, and the inſight that I afterwards received, convinced me that the Hoords of the Gonaquais, which reſemble equally the Caffrees and Hottentots, muſt have been originally the produce of thoſe two nations. The dreſs of the men, though better contrived and arranged, has the ſame form with that of the Hottentots, but as the firſt are of a more elevated ſtature, it is not with the ſkins of ſheep, but with thoſe of calves they make their cloaks, which are called, *Kroſes*. Some of them wear on their neck a bit of ivory, or very white ſheep's bone, which contraſted with the colour of their ſkins has a very good effect. When the heat is exceſſive, they take off all their covering but their *jackals*, which is a piece of ſkin of the animal ſo named, and hangs from their girdles. The women take a great deal more trouble than the men in regard to dreſs; they alſo wear the *Kros*, but their aprons are larger, and wrought with a good deal of ſkill. In very hot weather, they only wear this laſt habiliment, and a ſkin that deſcends from the loins to the calf of their legs. Young girls until nine years old go abſolutely naked, after that age they wear an apron.

The population of Africa muſt not be calculated by the innumerable quantities of blacks that ſwarm in the weſt and border the ocean from the Canaries on the kingdom of Morocco, to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope; there is certainly no proportion to enable us to form even a conjecture, ſince the barbarous navigators of Europe, by a commerce approved by a ſmall number, deteſted by the greater, have ſeduced the negroes to give up their priſoners or thoſe in their power; and taught them in proportion to their wants to become perfidious and inhuman. The chief has ſold his ſubjects, the parents their children, and nature, as if to furniſh them with the means of this unnatural traffick, has rendered them fruitful.

But this execrable trade is yet unknown in the interior of the continent, the deſert is ſtrictly the deſert, and it is only at diſtances from each other, that we find ſcattered ſettlements, the people few, living on the fruits of the earth,

and the produce of their cattle, and ever a long way from one horde to another. The heat of the climate, the ſterility of the ſoil, the ſcarcity of water, mountains almoſt impaſſable, ſavage beaſts to cope with, or what is poſſibly worſe, the phlegmatic temperament of this people may be a ſufficient reaſon, why a Hottentot is ſeldom or never the father of ſix children.

The country of the Gonaquais, which I was exploring, might reckon 3000 people, on an extent of thirty or forty leagues. They were not here degenerate and miſerable Hottentots like thoſe who languiſh in the neighbourhood of the Cape, deſpiſing, and deſpiſed, remembering of their origin but the empty name; and enjoying, at the price of their liberty, a little peace bought dearly at the expence of exceſſive labour. Here I could contemplate a people brave and free, poſſeſſing only independence yielding to the impulſe of their natures.

The form of their huts is the ſame with thoſe of the Hottentots of the colonies, and meaſure about eight or nine feet in diameter. Some of them are covered with the hides of oxen or ſheep, but more with mats. They have but one aperture, which is very low and narrow; the fire is made in the centre of the hut, ſo that the thick ſmoke which deſcends from it, mingled with the fetid ſmells from innumerable cauſes, would ſuffocate an European, who ſhould have the courage to remain in it two minutes. Yet cuſtom has rendered this bearable perhaps comfortable to ſavages. It is true they are always in the open air during the day, but when night approaches, every one gains his habitation, where ſtretched on his mat, and covered with a ſheep's ſkin, he reſts as content, and ſleeps as ſoundly as if repoſing on a bed of down. When the night happens to be more cold than ordinary, they cover themſelves with larger ſkins, ſuch as they put over their mats to ſleep on.

I have before obſerved that the female *Gonaquais* have an appearance of care and finery in their ornaments unknown to the Hottentots of the colonies. Their aprons deſcend almoſt to their knees, and it is in the ornaments, I might ſay in the prodigious effuſion of embroidery, that is laviſhed on them, that conſiſts the richneſs, the magnificence on which they pride themſelves. The flouriſhes and compartments, the art, with which the different colours are mingled and contraſted, in ſhort nothing is neglected which they think will render them pleaſing to the eye. They take the greateſt care in the decoration of their perſons; bracelets, girdles, necklaces, nothing is forgotten, when they mean to appear full dreſſed, which they think can add to their embelliſhment.

Though ſo much habituated to the ſight of thoſe Africans, I could never reconcile myſelf to the cuſtom they have of painting themſelves with a thouſand ridiculous marks and figures; to the laſt it appeared to me hideous and diſguſting. The two colours in greateſt eſtimation among them are red and black. The firſt is an ochre, which is found in a number of places in this country, and is prepared for their uſe by being ground up with a quantity of greaſe. The black colour is nothing more than ſoot or charcoal, and is prepared in the ſame manner. Some women, indeed content themſelves with painting their cheeks only, but the generality divide their faces into ſeveral diſtinct compartments, and this article of embelliſhment they are a conſiderable time of completing. Theſe favourite colours of the Hottentots are always perfumed with the powder of *Bucku*, which does not ſtrike the ſmell of an European with any agreeable ſenſation; but perhaps our eſſences, odours, and perfumes, would be equally inſupportable to a Hottentot. At leaſt, the *bucku* has one advantage over our paſtes, waſhes, and rouge; it is not

not pernicious to the ſkin, and never reduces thoſe who uſe it to conſumptions. The Hottentot who knows nothing of muſk, ambergreaſe, or benjamin, is likewiſe unacquainted with megrims, ſpaſms, and vapours. The men never paint their faces like the women, but they frequently make uſe of a mixture to daub their upper lip; by which diſpoſition of it they have the ſatisfaction of enjoying the ſmell inceſſantly. The young girls ſometimes ſuffer their lovers to apply this delicate mixture under their noſes; this is conſidered as a great favour, and gives the girl ſo decorated an air of ſmartneſs, which renders her extremely intereſting in the eyes of a young Hottentot. I would not have my readers infer from what I have ſaid, that the female Hottentots are ſo intent on decorating their perſons, as to neglect thoſe daily and neceſſary occupations which their mode of living requires; it is only on certain holidays which occur but ſeldom that they ſpend ſo much of their time in dreſs. Separated from Europe by an immenſe ocean, and from the European colonies by deſerts, mountains and dangerous rocks; they are cut off from all communication with other people, and if they have not arrived at our improvements, they have equally avoided the exceſs of our depravity. When women here have the happineſs to become mothers, they apply themſelves more intenſely than in more poliſhed countries, to the duties of their ſituation; nothing can poſſibly exceed the tenderneſs and ſolicitude with which they rear their infant offſpring.

They are fond of hunting, and have great ſkill in it; independent of the ſnares ſpread for large game, they lay wait for, and attack them with their *aſſagay*, (a kind of lances) or ſhoot them with empoiſoned arrows. The firſt time I inſpected their arrows, I did not ſuppoſe them ſuch deadly weapons; but even their ſmallneſs renders them dangerous; for, when ſhot, it is impoſſible for the eye to perceive their flight, conſequently there is no means to avoid them, and the ſmalleſt wound is always mortal, if the poiſon reaches the blood; the only remedy is a ſpeedy amputation of the wounded part, if in the limb; but if the wound is in the body, it is inevitable death. Theſe arrows are made of reeds and very curiouſly formed; they are not above 18 inches, or at moſt two feet long; at the end of the reed they fix a ſmall bit of bone, three or four inches long, which they have previouſly rounded, this is ſmaller in diameter than the reed, and ſo ſlightly fixed in it, that when the arrow has entered the fleſh the reed may be drawn away, while the bone ſtill remains in the wound. To make it more deadly it has a ſmall barb of iron on one ſide which on the leaſt motion, continues to lacerate the fleſh, and renders every attempt to extract it abortive. This bone they anoint with a poiſon, that has the conſiſtence of maſtic; and it is uſually pointed with a little angular head, which altogether renders this weapon very terrible. In each country, they have a particular manner of preparing their poiſon, according to the different noxious plants their ſoil produces, and from which they extract the juice. A particular ſpecies of ſerpent likewiſe ſupplies them with another kind, which the ſavages prefer, as being the moſt ſubtil. It is impoſſible to gain the leaſt information of their manner of preparing the venom extracted from theſe ſerpents, it being a ſecret which they inviolably preſerve. The *aſſagay*, in the hand of a Hottentot is not a very certain weapon, even the length renders it leſs dangerous, as its courſe through the air may be readily ſeen, and eaſily avoided. Such are the means uſed for attack and defence by ſome of the ſavage nations of Africa; a European will perhaps look on them with diſdain, and tax them with ferocity, forgetting that before thoſe thundering engines were employed, which in a moment

make

make ſo many ruins and fill ſo many tombs, his forefathers were obliged like him to make uſe of ſimilar, and content themſelves with leſs deſtructive weapons.

The Hottentot is unacquainted even with the firſt elements of agriculture; he neither ſows, plants nor reaps; all that has been ſaid of cultivating the earth &c. can only regard the coloniſts; if they had any taſte for agriculture, it would certainly begin with tobacco and the vine; for drinking and ſmoaking are the darling pleaſures of both young and old. They ſometimes make an intoxicating liquor compoſed of honey, and a root which they leave to ferment in water; this liquor is not their ordinary drink; they never make any reſerve of it but drink it up at once. They ſmoke a plant which is called *dagha*; this plant is not indigenous, it is the hemp of Europe. The pipes that come from Europe are held in leſs eſtimation than thoſe they fabricate themſelves; the former they reckon too ſmall; theirs is compoſed of bamboo, and the bowl of baked earth, or of a ſoft kind of ſtone, which they make very capacious.

Though they have prodigious quantities of ſheep and oxen, it is very uncommon for them to kill any of the latter, unleſs they meet with ſome accident, or old age has rendered them uſeleſs; their principal food is the milk of cows and ewes, with the produce of the chace and now and then a ſheep. When they wiſh to fatten theſe animals they have a cuſtom which is not the leſs efficacious becauſe unknown in Europe; and it has this peculiar advantage over our method, that it requires no care or ſkill in the operation. Inſtead of caſtrating theſe animals, they bruiſe the part with a couple of flat ſtones, which anſwers the ſame purpoſe; in a ſhort time after, they get extremely fat, and when killed, are very good eating. The beaſts ſet apart to carry burdens, are trained very early to this work, otherwiſe they would be perfectly unmanageable. While the animal is young, they pierce the griſtle that ſeparates the noſtrils, through which they paſs a ſtick of about eight or ten inches in length, and one in diameter; to prevent this from coming out, a leather ſtrap is faſtened to each end. The taſk of milking the cows belongs to the women, and the animals are ſupriſingly tractable.

Of their ſheep and kine each village hath one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdſman. This charge requires many precautions, very different from thoſe which are taken by our herdſmen, beaſts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the ſouthern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroſes, leopards, tygers, hyænas, and ſeveral kinds of wolves, more deſtructive than ours, together with many other furious animals that abound in the foreſts, and occaſionally make excurſions towards the Cape, and deſtroy the tame cattle. To prevent theſe misfortunes, it is the buſineſs of the herdſman to go, or ſend, every day round his diſtrict, in order to diſcover if any beaſt of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which caſe, he aſſembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the ſtouteſt among them arm themſelves with javelins and poiſoned arrows, and follow the perſon who may have diſcovered the beaſt, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themſelves in two lines; the herdſman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beaſt to follow him out, where he is inevitably deſtroyed.

The Hottentots divide the year by the wet and dry ſeaſons, which is the general cuſtom among the inhabitants of the tropics: they ſubdivide it by moons, never counting days when the number exceeds that of their fingers; a longer period of time is marked by ſome particular occurrence; ſuch as a

ſtorm;

ſtorm, the killing of an elephant, or ſome ſuch circumſtance. They count the time of the day by the ſun; for example, pointing with their finger they ſay, "It was there when I departed, yonder when I returned." Though this method is not very exact, it anſwers well enough for people, who have no amorous rendezvous which requires a ſcrupulous exactitude; no lawſuits to attend, no ſcandal to publiſh; who make no mean deſpicable court to patrons, nor have any theatrical pieces either to hiſs or commend; with calm tranquillity they behold the riſing or the ſetting of the ſun, unknowing and regardleſs of the pointed hour on the time-piece; which is ever bringing joy to ſome few, but ſorrow to the greater number.

An idea of propriety among thoſe ſavages, ever keeps thoſe who are indiſpoſed at a diſtance from the healthy; and it certainly never entered the imagination of a Hottentot to expoſe his diſtreſſes from a view of exciting commiſeration; indeed it would be uſeleſs in a country where every one is naturally compaſſionate.

As ſoon as a Hottentot dies, he is wrapped up in his worſt *kroſs*, his legs being bent in ſuch a manner as to be entirely covered with it; his relatives then carry him to a certain diſtance from the *Horde*, and lay him in a hole dug for that purpoſe, which is never deep; covering him with earth, and then with ſtones, if it happens to be a place where theſe can be procured. It is not to be imagined that ſuch a tomb can withſtand the efforts of the jackal or hyena, and the body is often rooted up and devoured. The children, or in default of thoſe, the next of kin take poſſeſſion of whatever a perſon may happen to have at the time of his death: but the quality of chief is not hereditary. He is always elected by the horde, and his power is very limited. He is not honoured with any exterior mark of diſtinction, he enjoys no privilege above the reſt, except that of being excuſed from taking his turn in watching the cattle. In their councils they take his advice if it is agreeable to the majority, if not, they pay no regard to it. When they go to battle, they have neither order nor diviſions; neither generals nor captains; all are ſoldiers, all are officers; every one attacks or defends as he ſees occaſion; the boldeſt march at the head; and when they chance to gain a victory they never give to one man the whole honour of an action, which has been atchieved by the joint efforts and courage of them all; in theſe inſtances it is the whole *Hoord* that triumphs.

The Gonaquais (continues Mons. Vaillant) is the only nation among all thoſe I have ſeen, who may be conſidered as abſolutely free; at ſome future time, perhaps, they will be obliged to remove farther up the country, or to receive laws from their neighbours. Eaſtwards the lands are generally good, and the coloniſts are ever endeavouring to enlarge their limits on that ſide, and one day, no doubt, their avarice will ſucceed. Woe to that peaceable and happy people when that period ſhall arrive! oppreſſions, maſſacres, all the horrors attending unjuſt invaſion, will obliterate every veſtige of their liberty. Theſe misfortunes have been experienced by all thoſe *Hordes*, of which the firſt authors have given an account. Weakened by frequent diſmemberments, they became at laſt abſolutely dependent on the Dutch, and the primitive manners, original cuſtoms and hiſtory of this people, would either have been forgotten or conſidered as fables, had not ſome travellers, curious to diſcover the remains of them, had courage to penetrate the deſerts of the great Namaquais, whoſe barren rocks, whoſe ſteep and ſterile mountains produce no plant, no tree that can tempt the ſpeculative avidity of the Europeans.

Some ancient authors have aſſured us that the Hottentots ſleep altogether in the ſame hut, without regard to difference of age or ſeeling that invincible

horror

horror which ſets bounds to the paſſions among near relations. It is true, that theſe ſavages confined to what is ſtrictly neceſſary have no idea of concealing a monſtrous inclination under an outward appearance of ſcrupulous decency. The whole family inhabit one ſcanty hut, the father ſleeps with his daughter, the brother with his ſiſter, the mother with her ſon; but on the return of Aurora every one riſes with a pure heart; without having cauſe to bluſh before the father of beings, or any of thoſe creatures whom he has ſealed with his divine image. The ſavage is neither a brute, nor is he unnatural. The horror of uniting with his own blood, is one of the moſt ſtriking traits of character by which the creator has been pleaſed to mark the difference between the human and the brute creation; and nothing but the moſt glaring depravity can induce them to break down this almoſt inſurmountable barrier.

It is neceſſary in this narration to take notice of that diſguſting apron of Hottentot women, which has long made a figure in hiſtory. It is ſtill faſhionable among a certain horde. I ſay, it is faſhionable (obſerves our author), for, inſtead of being the gift of nature, it ought to be conſidered as one of the moſt monſtrous refinements ever invented by I know not what coquetry, altogether peculiar to a certain ſmall corner of the world. This ſingularity is nothing elſe but a prolongation of the nymphæ, occaſioned by weights ſuſpended from them. They may hang down about nine inches more or leſs, according to the age of the perſons, or the aſſiduous care which is beſtowed on this ſingular decoration. A phyſiognomiſt, or if you will, a modern wit, might divert himſelf, and companions of a ſimilar diſpoſition, by giving the *Hottentot* a place in the ſcale of being, between a human creature, and an *Ourang-Outang*, but I cannot conſent to do him that wrong, being ſenſible that he does not deſerve to be ſo degraded. I have found his perſon agreeable, becauſe I knew his ſoul to be reſpectable. I muſt own his features are different from thoſe of other men, the prominence of his cheek bones makes his face appear very broad in that part, this contraſted with the narrowneſs of his jaw, which gradually leſſens towards the chin, gives him an appearance of meagreneſs that makes his head ſeem diſproportioned and too little for his body, which is in general fat and bulky. His noſe is broad and flat, his noſtrils very open, his mouth large, but filled with ſmall teeth of an amazing whiteneſs, his eyes large and fine, inclining a little towards his noſe, like the Chineſe. His hair both to the ſight and touch, reſembles wool, is black as ebony, and in no great quantity; yet they are continually thinning of it. His eye-brows, which are very ſcantily ſet, do not require that care. The beard only grows on the upper lip, and on the extremity of the chin; this they never fail to pull out by the roots, which gives them an air of effeminacy that, joined to the natural ſoftneſs of their character, tends very much to deprive them of that haughty aſpect which has procured men in general, the title of lords of the creation. The *Hottentot* is perfectly well made, his carriage graceful and active, very different from the ſavages of South America, who appear only the rough draughts of nature. The women, though more delicate, have the ſame features, are equally well made, their necks beautifully formed, their hands ſmall and their feet well ſhaped; though, in general, they wear no ſandals. They have a ſoft tone of voice, and their ſpeech is not unpleaſing. They make uſe of an infinity of geſture when they talk, which ſhows their arms to great advantage.

The natural timidity of the *Hottentot*, prevents his being enterpriſing, while his *ſang froid*, and deliberate method of ſpeaking, gives him an air of reſerve, even

even in his hours of joy and relaxation; when, on the contrary, all the other black or tawny nations, give way to lively pleaſure, and the moſt expanded gaiety; careleſs to inaction and lazineſs, tending his flocks and procuring himſelf food is his only ſtudy. When he hunts, he muſt not be conſidered as a ſportſman, but as one oppreſſed with hunger; in ſhort, he is forgetful of the paſt and regardleſs of the future, the preſent alone employs and intereſts his thoughts: but he is good, generous and hoſpitable; thoſe who travel among them, are ſure to find meat and lodging; they will receive you with pleaſure, but never exact a recompenſe. If the traveller has far to go, and the *Hottentot* knows he will encounter no *Hoords* by the way, he will furniſh him with as much proviſion as his means will permit, and enable him to continue his journey to the place of deſtination. Before the arrival of the Europeans at the Cape, commerce was unknown to the *Hottentots*, perhaps they had not even an idea of exchange; but the appearance of tobacco and beads, initiated them into mercantile myſteries; thoſe new luxuries in time became wants, which the Hottentots of the colonies procure for them; for I muſt obſerve, that fond as they are of theſe trifles, they will rather do without, than ſtir a ſtep to fetch them: a uſeful leſſon to thoſe who drag through life in ſearch of, and agitated by chimeras. Such were theſe people, or at leaſt ſuch they appeared to me, in all the innocence of paſtoral life; and they yet offer to my imagination the idea of human nature in its infancy.

CAFFRARIA.

THE country known by the general denomination of Caffraria, is a very extenſive region, bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyſſinia; on the weſt by part of Guinea, Congo, and the ſea; on the ſouth by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the eaſt by the ſea. It is divided into ſeveral territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long and 660 broad.

The men among the Caffrees, ſays lieutenant Paterſon, are from five feet ten inches to ſix feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beaſts of prey.

The colour of the Caffrees is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The cloathing of both ſexes is nearly the ſame, conſiſting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of braſs in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms; they are alſo adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers faſtened in their heads, with many other fantaſtical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle; and to ſuch a height do they carry this paſſion, that if one particularly pleaſe them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exerciſe through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances, and in time of war, uſe ſhields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate ſeveral vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country, ſuch as tobacco, water melons, a ſort of kidney beans, and hemp. The women alſo make baſkets, and the mats which they ſleep on.——The

men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in ſuch a way as to be able to turn them into any ſhape they pleaſe, and they teach them to anſwer a whiſtle. When they wiſh their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the houſe, and blow this ſmall inſtrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and ſo conſtructed as to be heard at a great diſtance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty. The ſoil of this country is a blackiſh loomy ground, and ſo extremely fertile, that every vegetable ſubſtance, whether ſown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance.

There are great varieties in the climates; but I had no thermometer to obſerve the degrees of heat. It ſeldom rains except in the ſummer ſeaſon, when it is accompained with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well ſupplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furniſhes abundance through the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, which are found in the woods. From what I obſerved of this country, I am induced to believe that it is greatly ſuperior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce variety of arboreous plants, and ſome of a great ſize; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were alſo varieties of beautiful birds and butterflies; but they were ſo ſhy, that I was able only to preſerve two birds of that country.

To judge of the Caffrees by thoſe I had ſeen, ſays monſieur Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquais, though they greatly reſemble the latter, but are more robuſt, and poſſeſs a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffrees are likewiſe more agreeable, none of their faces contracting towards the bottom, nor do the cheek bones of thoſe people project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours, the negroes of Moſambique, but a well formed contour, and agreeable noſe, with eyes ſparkling and expreſſive; ſo that ſetting aſide our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many women among them who might be thought handſome by the ſide of an European lady. They do not diſfigure themſelves by daubing their eye-brows like the Hottentots, but are very much tattoed, particularly about the face.

The hair of the Caffrees, which is ſtrong and curling, is never greaſed, but they anoint the reſt of their bodies, with a view of making themſelves active and ſtrong. The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and braſs rings. They are ſeldom ſeen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tuſks of an elephant, which they ſaw to a convenient thickneſs, and then poliſh and round. As theſe rings cannot be opened, it is neceſſary to make them big enough to paſs the hand through, ſo that they fall or riſe according to the motion of the arm. Sometimes they place ſmall rings on the arms of their children, whoſe growth ſoon fills up the ſpace, and fixes the ornament; a circumſtance which is particularly pleaſing to them.

They likewiſe make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they poliſh and whiten in the moſt perfect manner. Some content themſelves with the leg-bone of a ſheep hanging on the breaſt, which is thought as pleaſing a decoration, as a patch on the face of a pretty woman. Sometimes this embelliſhment is changed for the horn of a *gazell*, or any other thing for the caprice of the moment; and I think they would diſplay as much variety and whimſicality in decoration as the Europeans themſelves, was it equally in their power. In the warm ſeaſon the Caffrees only wear their ornaments; when

when the weather is cold, they make uſe of kroſes made of the ſkins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deſerves attention, and does not exiſt elſewhere, is, that the Caffree women care little for ornaments. Indeed, they are well made and pretty, when compared to other ſavages; and never uſe the uncouth profuſion of Hottentot coquetry, nor even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like thoſe of the Gonaquais, are bordered with ſmall rows of beads, which is the only vanity they exhibit.

The ſkin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffree woman wears as high as her ſhoulders, tying it over the boſom which it covers. They have, like the men, a kroſs or cloak of calf or ox ſkin, diveſted of the hair; but it is only in the cold or rainy ſeaſon that either ſex wear it. Theſe ſkins are as ſoft and pliant as the fineſt ſtuffs. Let the weather or ſeaſon prove ever ſo bad, neither men nor women cover their heads. Sometimes indeed, I have ſeen the head of a Caffree adorned with a feather ſtuck in the hair, but this ſight is by no means common.

One part of the daily occupation of the women is making earthen ware, which they faſhion as dexterouſly as their huſbands; they likewiſe make a curious kind of baſkets, of a texture ſo compact as to contain milk; and they alſo prepare the fields for ſeed, ſcratching the earth, rather than digging it, with wooden pick axes.

The huts of the Caffrees are higher and more commodious than thoſe of the Hottentots; it is abſolutely a perfect hemiſphere; they are compoſed of wooden works very ſtrong and compact, covered both within and without, with a mixture of earth, clay and cow dung. The opening or door-way is ſo low, that to enter the dwelling you muſt crawl on your hands and knees, which makes it eaſier to defend themſelves againſt animals, or the ſudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth or fire-place is in the centre ſurrounded by a circular rim which riſes two or three inches.

The lands of Caffraria, either from their ſituation, or the number of ſmall rivers that refreſh them, are more fertile than thoſe of the Hottentots. The Caffrees practiſe agriculture, which proves they are not naturally wanderers. I have made a remark (continues monſieur Vaillant) which, though it may appear ſtrange is no leſs certain, that notwithſtanding the beautiful foreſts that adorn Caffraria, and the delightful paſtures which ſpring up and almoſt cover the animals who feed on them, with the numerous rivulets and brooks that meander in a thouſand different directions, the oxen, cows, and almoſt all other animals in this country are ſmaller than thoſe of the Hottentots. This peculiarity certainly ariſes from the properties of the ſap which gives the graſs a different quality; and I remarked in my travels among the Namaquais, who inhabit the moſt rocky and ſteril ſpot of all Africa, that the oxen were the fineſt I had ſeen, and that the elephants and hippopotamuſes were larger and ſtronger than elſewhere; which proves that the ſcanty paſtures of this country muſt be ſalutary. Induſtry is a leading trait in the character of the Caffrees. Some arts, taught indeed by neceſſity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, diſtinguiſh them as a more civiliſed people than thoſe towards the ſouth. Circumciſion, which is generally practiſed among them, proves that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have ſimply imitated the inhabitants of ſome neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance, neither do they uſe it (as they ſay) in any religious or myſtical ſenſe.

They entertain a very high opinion of the Supreme Being, and of his power; believe in a future ſtate, where the good will be rewarded, and the

wicked punished; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies, and never pray. They instruct their own children having no priests; but instead of them a kind of sorcerers or conjurers, whom they greatly distinguish and revere.

The Caffrees are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people; neither attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate, and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed; these being his only resources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher, nor better decorated than the rest; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a group of a dozen or fifteen huts: the adjoining land is generally of his own cultivation. It is a custom among the Caffrees for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nourishment, and which they grind, or crush between two stones; for which reason, the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasions a small *horde* sometimes to occupy a league square of ground; a circumstance never seen among the Hottentots.

The distance of the different *hordes* makes it necessary that they should have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he sends for and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their several *hordes*.

The principal weapon of the Caffree is the lance or assaygay, which shews his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble, despising, as below his courage, the envenomed dart, so much in use among his neighbours; seeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a shield of about three feet in height, made of the thickest part of the hide of a buffalo; this defends him from the arrow or assaygay, but is not proof against a musquet ball. The Caffree also manages with great skill a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick, in the largest part, and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. When, in a close engagement, they strike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the distance of fifteen or twenty paces, in which case it seldom fails of the intended effect.

The sovereignty here is hereditary, the eldest son ever succeeding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother that succeeds, but the eldest nephew; and in case the king should have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king.

Polygamy is customary among the Caffrees; their marriages are even more simple than those of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but seldom refuse their consent; after which they rejoice, drink and dance for weeks together, according to the wealth of the families; but these feasts are never held but on the first espousals. They have no musical instruments but such as are used by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the step is not unlike the English.

At the death of the father, the sons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unless it pleases some man to take them; and if this circumstance takes place, during the life of the parents, they receive

cattle

cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are ſeldom buried, but carried away from the Kraal by their family, and depoſited in a deep trench common to the whole horde on ſuch occaſions, where the wild beaſts repair at leiſure, which preſerves the air from thoſe noxious vapours which otherwiſe the putrefaction would occaſion. The honours of burial are only due to the king or chief of a horde; they cover theſe bodies with piles of ſtones in the form of a dome.

I am unacquainted with the diſpoſition of the Caffrees, reſpecting love and jealouſy, but believe that they only feel the latter ſenſation in regard to their countrymen; voluntarily giving up their women for a ſmall conſideration to the firſt white man that expreſſes an inclination for them.

HISTORY.] The hiſtory of the continent of Africa is little known, and probably affords no materials which deſerve to render it more ſo. We know from the ancients, who ſailed a conſiderable way round the coaſts, that the inhabitants were in the ſame rude ſituation near 2000 years ago in which they are at preſent, that is, they had little of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by ſuppoſing that nature has placed ſome inſuperable barrier between the natives of this diviſion of America and the inhabitants of Europe, or that the former, being ſo long accuſtomed to a ſavage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became hardly capable of making any progreſs in civility or ſcience. It is very certain that all the attempts of Europeans, particularly of the Dutch, at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the leaſt impreſſion on theſe ſavage mortals, or giving them the leaſt inclination, or even idea, of the European manner of life.

The Portugueſe are ſovereigns of the greateſt part of the coaſt, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are ſome independent princes who have extenſive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahomy and Widah, the moſt noted of any for the infamous ſlave trade. Upwards of 200 years have the European nations traded with Africa in human fleſh, and encouraged in the Negro countries, wars, rapine, deſolation, and murder, that the Weſt India iſlands might be ſupplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa hath exceeded 100,000, many of whom are driven a thouſand miles to the ſea coaſt, their villages having been ſurrounded in the night by an armed force, and the inhabitants dragged into perpetual captivity.

A ſea officer lately viſited all the chiefs of the negroes in our ſettlements from Santa Apollonia to Athera, an extent of more than 250 miles, and found the police and puniſhment of all crimes regulated by the ſlave trade. Thoſe who commit crimes or treſpaſſes againſt their laws, are, at the deciſion of twelve elders, ſold for ſlaves for the uſe of their government, and the ſupport of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the higheſt crimes, and, whenever they are detected, ſubject the whole family to ſlavery. But any individual condemned to ſlavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own perſon, by furniſhing two ſlaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to ſlavery; if a woman, the female part is ſold. "This traffic in crimes makes the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchaſe them, uſe any pains to inſtruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppreſſion thus exerciſed on them. I am ſorry to ſay they are unnaturally averſe to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portugueſe, French, and Spaniards, in their ſettlements, ſucceeded in their attempts to inſtruct them

them, as much to the advantage of commerce, as of religion. It is for the ſake of Chriſtianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that Engliſh ſlaves embrace every occaſion of deſerting to the ſettlements of thoſe nations."

It is high time for the legiſlature to interfere and put an end to this moſt infamous of all trades, ſo diſgraceful to the Chriſtian name, and ſo repugnant to the principles of our conſtitution. Let the negroes, already in our iſlands, be properly treated, made free, and encouragement given to their population; meaſures that would be attended with no leſs profit than honour.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African iſlands, ſome lie in the Eaſtern or Indian Ocean, and ſome in the Weſtern or Atlantic. We ſhall begin with thoſe in the Indian Ocean, the chief of which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagaſcar, the Comora Iſlands, Bourbon and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

ZOCOTRA. This iſland is ſituated in eaſt long. 53. north. lat. 12. 30 leagues eaſt of Cape Guardafui, on the continent of Africa; it is 80 miles long, and 54 broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ſhips uſed formerly to put in when they loſt their paſſage to India. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding moſt of the fruits and plants that are uſually found within the tropics, together with frankincenſe, gum ragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince or ſheik who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The iſland of Babelmandel gives name to the ſtrait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is ſituated in Eaſt long. 44-30 north. lat. 12. about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyſſinian ſhores. The Abyſſinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the poſſeſſion of this iſland, as it commands the entrance into the South Sea, and preſerves a communication with the ocean. This ſtrait was formerly the only paſſage through which the commodities of India found their way to Europe; but ſince the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The iſland is of little value, being a barren ſandy ſpot of earth not five miles round.

COMORA. Theſe iſlands are five; Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla Angazeia, and Comora, ſituated between 41 and 46 eaſt long. and between 10 and 14 ſouth lat. at an equal diſtance from Madagaſcar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, and which exacts tribute from the others, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are produced between the tropics. Eaſt India ſhips, bound to Bombay, uſually touch here for refreſhments. The inhabitants are negroes of the Mahometan perſuaſion, and entertain our ſeamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largeſt of the African iſlands, and is ſituated between 43 and 51 deg. eaſt long. and between 10 and 26 ſouth lat. 300 miles ſouth eaſt of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to ſouth; and generally between 2 and 300 miles broad. The ſea rolls with great rapidity, and is extremely rough between this iſland and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or paſſage, through which all European ſhips, in their voyage to and from India, generally ſail, unleſs prevented by ſtorms.

Madaga

Madagaſcar is a pleaſant, deſirable, and fertile country, abounding in ſugar, honey, vines, fruit trees, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious ſtones, iron, ſome ſilver, copper, ſteel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign: watered with numerous rivers, and well ſtored with fiſh. The air is generally temperate, and ſaid to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; ſome white, ſome negroes, ſome Mahometans, ſome Pagans. The whites and thoſe of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coaſts, are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no moſques, temples, nor any ſtated worſhip, except that they offer ſacrifices of beaſts on particular occaſions; as when ſick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their aſſemblies, circumciſe their children, declare war, enter into new-built houſes, or bury their dead. Many of them obſerve the Jewiſh ſabbath, and give ſome account of the ſacred hiſtory, the creation and fall of man, as alſo of Noah, Abraham, Moſes, and David; from whence it is conjectured they are deſcended from Jews who formerly ſettled here, though none knows how, or when. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and the French took poſſeſſion of it in 1641; but the people diſliking their government, they were driven out in 1652; ſince which the natives have had the ſole poſſeſſion of the iſland, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for ſlaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was ſo called by the Dutch, who firſt touched here in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their ſtadtholder. It is ſituated in eaſt long. 56, ſouth lat. 20, about 400 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding 50 large ſhips, ſecure againſt any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleaſant. The mountains, of which there are many, and ſome ſo high that their tops are covered with ſnow, produce the beſt ebony in the world, beſides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly reſemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The iſland is watered with ſeveral pleaſant rivers well ſtocked with fiſh; and though the ſoil is none of the moſt fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and ſheep. It was formerly ſubject to the Dutch, but is now in the poſſeſſion of the French.

BOURBON. The iſle of Bourbon is ſituated in eaſt long. 54, ſouth lat. 21, about 300 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for ſhipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and ſouth ſides; but hardly a ſingle harbour where ſhips can ride ſecure againſt thoſe hurricanes which blow during the monſoons. Indeed, the coaſt is ſo ſurrounded with blind rocks, ſunk a few feet below the water, that coaſting along ſhore is at all times dangerous. On the ſouthern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, ſmoke and ſulphur, with a hideous roaring noiſe, terrible in the night to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreſhed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the ſea and land; ſometimes, however, terrible hurricanes ſhake the whole iſland almoſt to its foundation; but generally without any other bad conſequence than frightening the inhabitants. The iſland abounds in brooks and ſprings, and in fruits, graſs, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there), aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and reſins, particularly benzoin of an excellent

lent ſort in great plenty. The rivers are well ſtocked with fiſh, the coaſt with land and ſea tortoiſes, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergriſe, coral, and the moſt beautiful ſhells, are found upon the ſhore. The woods are full of turtle doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye and pleaſant to the palate. The French firſt ſettled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the iſland of Madagaſcar. They have now ſome conſiderable towns in the iſland, with a governor; and here their East India ſhips touch and take in refreſhments.

There are a great many more ſmall iſlands about Madagaſcar, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where deſcribed.

Leaving therefore the eaſtern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immenſe ocean, lying between the two grand diviſions of the globe, having Europe, Aſia, and Africa, or the old world, on the eaſt; and America, or the new world, on the weſt; towards which diviſions we now ſteer our courſe, touching in our way at the following iſlands upon the African coaſt, that have not yet been deſcribed, viz. St. Helena, Aſcēnſion, St. Matthew, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira iſlands. *See the Map.*

ST. HELENA. The firſt iſland on this ſide the Cape is St. Helena, ſituated in weſt long. 6-4 ſouth lat. 16, being 1200 miles weſt of the continent of Africa, and 1800 eaſt of South America. The iſland is a rock about 21 miles in circumference, very high and very ſteep, and only acceſſible at the landing place, in a ſmall valley at the eaſt ſide of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually daſhing on the ſhore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the iſland but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the ſouth-eaſt, if a ſhip overſhoots the iſland ever ſo little, ſhe cannot recover it again. The Engliſh plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the laſt, however, moſt part is devoured by rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be deſtroyed; ſo that the flower they uſe is almoſt wholly imported from England; and in times of ſcarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes inſtead of bread. Though the iſland appears on every ſide a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diverſified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden-ſtuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geeſe, and turkies, with which they ſupply the ſailors, taking in exchange ſhirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, ſilks, muſlin, arrack, ſugar, &c.

St. Helena is ſaid to have been firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe on the feſtival of the empreſs Helena, mother of the emperor Conſtantine the Great, whoſe name it ſtill bears. It does not appear that the Portugueſe ever planted a colony here: and the Engliſh East India Company took poſſeſſion of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by ſurprize. However, the Engliſh, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the ſpace of a year, and at the ſame time took three Dutch East India ſhips that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the iſland, moſt of them deſcended from Engliſh parents. The East India ſhips take in water and freſh proviſions here in their way home; but the iſland is ſo ſmall, and the wind ſo much againſt them outward bound, that they then very ſeldom ſee it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and ſtore-keeper, who have ſtanding ſalaries allowed by the company, beſides

ASCENSION. This iſland is ſituated in 7 deg. 40 min. ſouth lat. 600 miles north-weſt of St. Helena: it received its name from its being diſcovered by the Portugueſe on Aſcenſion-day; and is a mountainous barren iſland, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but it has a ſafe convenient harbour, where the Eaſt India ſhips generally touch to furniſh themſelves with turtle, or tortoiſes, which are very plentiful here, and vaſtly large, ſome of them weighing above 100 pounds each. The ſailors going aſhore in the night time, frequently turn 2 or 3 hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are ſometimes ſo cruel, as to turn many more than they uſe, leaving them to die on the ſhore.

ST. MATTHEW. This is a ſmall iſland, lying in 6-1 weſt lon. and 1-30 ſouth lat. 300 miles to the north-eaſt of Aſcenſion, and was alſo diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who planted and kept poſſeſſion of it for ſome time; but afterwards deſerted it. This iſland now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to ſettle there, except a ſmall lake of freſh water.

The four following iſlands, viz. ST. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCES ISLAND, and FERNANDO PO, are ſituated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and are ſtill in the poſſeſſion of that nation, and furniſh ſhipping with freſh water, and proviſions as they paſs by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. Theſe iſlands are ſo called from a cape of that name on the African coaſt, near the river Gambia, over againſt which they lie, at the diſtance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg. weſt lon. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were diſcovered in the year 1460, by the Portugueſe, and are about 20 in number; but ſome of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonaviſta, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the moſt conſiderable, and are ſubject to the Portugueſe. The air, generally ſpeaking, is very hot, and in ſome of them very unwholeſome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the deſcendents of Europeans and negroes.

ST. JAGO, where the Portugueſe viceroy reſides, is the moſt fruitful, beſt inhabited, and largeſt of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is ſugar, cotton, ſome wine, Indian corn, cocoa nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits, plenty of roots, and garden ſtuff; but the plant of moſt conſequence to them is the Madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs; and here is alſo plenty of hogs and poultry, and ſome of the prettieſt green monkies, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya (famous for an action between an Engliſh and French ſquadron) is ſituated on the eaſt ſide, has a good port, and is ſeldom without ſhips, thoſe outward bound to Guinea or the Eaſt Indies, from England, Holland and France, often touching here for water and refreſhments.

In the iſland of MAYO or MAY, immenſe quantities of ſalt are made by the heat of the ſun from the ſea water, which at ſpring tides is received into a ſort of pan, formed by a ſand-bank, which runs along the coaſt for two or three miles. Here the Engliſh drive a conſiderable trade for ſalt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the veſſels that come to load with it, which in ſome years amount to an hundred or more. The ſalt coſts nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on aſſes to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate. Several of our ſhips come hither for a freight of aſſes, which they carry to Barbadoes and other

Britiſh plantations. The inhabitants of this iſland, even the governor and prieſts, are all negroes, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language. The negro governor expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that loads ſalt, and is pleaſed to be invited aboard their ſhips. The ſea water is ſo clear on this coaſt, that an Engliſh ſailor who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives, who are in general expert at diving.

The iſland of FOGO is remarkable for being a volcano, continually ſending up ſulphureous exhalations; and ſometimes the flame breaks forth like Ætna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice ſtones that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is ſituated within cannon ſhot of Cape Verd, N. lat. 14-43. W. long. 17-20, and was ſo called by the Dutch from an iſland and town of the ſame name in Holland. It is a ſmall ſpot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance ariſes from its ſituation for trade ſo near Cape Verd, and has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was firſt poſſeſſed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the Engliſh, but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1667 ſubdued by the French, in whoſe poſſeſſion it remained till the year 1759, when the Britiſh arms, every where triumphant, again reduced it, but it was reſtored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the Engliſh the laſt war, but given up again by the peace of 1783.

CANARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Iſlands, are ſeven in number, and ſituated between 12 and 19 deg. weſt long. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles ſouth-weſt of Morocco. Their particular names are, Palma, Hiero, Gomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langarote. Theſe iſlands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially grapes, which produce thoſe rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greateſt part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at 10,000 hogſheads annually. The Canaries abound with thoſe little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now ſo common and ſo much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel thoſe in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and ſo extremely fertile as to produce two harveſts in a year. Teneriffe, the largeſt of theſe iſlands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round: a fertile country abounding in corn, wine, and oil; though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the peak. Captain Glaſs obſerves, that in coming in with this iſland, in clear weather, the Peak may be eaſily diſcerned at 120 miles diſtance, and in ſailing from it at 150. The Peak is an aſcent in the form of a ſugar loaf, about 15 miles in circumference, and according to the account of Sprat, biſhop of Rocheſter, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, nearly three miles perpendicular—lately aſcertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and ſometimes throws out ſuch quantities of ſulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richeſt lands into barren deſerts. Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans deſtroying that ſtate, put a ſtop to the navigation, on the weſt coaſt of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the reſt of the world, until they were again diſcovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they

ſtill

ſtill belong. It is remarkable, that though the natives reſembled the Africans in their ſtature and complexion when the Spaniards firſt came among them, their language was different from that ſpoken on the continent; they retained none of their cuſtoms, were maſters of no ſcience, and did not know there was any country in the world beſides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three iſlands called the Madeiras, are ſituated, according to the author of Anſon's Voyage, in a fine climate in 32-27, north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 weſt long. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many weſt of Sallee, in Morocco. The largeſt, from which the reſt derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almoſt covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 10 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is compoſed of one continued hill of a conſiderable height, extending from eaſt to weſt: the declivity of which, on the ſouth ſide, is cultivated and interſperſed with vineyards; and in the midſt of this ſlope the merchants have fixed their country ſeats, which form a very agreeable proſpect. There is but one conſiderable town in the whole iſland, which is named Funchal, ſeated on the ſouth part of the iſland, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the ſea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is poſſible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large ſtones, and a violent ſurf continually beats upon it.

Though this iſland ſeems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1519: but others aſſert that it was firſt diſcovered by an Engliſhman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of it, and are ſtill almoſt the only people who inhabit it. The Portugueſe, at their firſt landing, finding it little better than a thick foreſt, rendered the ground capable of cultivation by ſetting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing in great abundance the richeſt wine, ſugar, the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax; it abounds alſo with boars and other wild beaſts, and with all ſorts of fowls, beſides numerous groves of cedar trees, and thoſe that yield dragon's blood, maſtic and other gums. The inhabitants of this iſle make the beſt ſweet meats in the world, and ſucceed wonderfully in preſerving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed paſtes, which exceed thoſe of Genoa. The ſugar they make is extremely beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. This indeed is ſaid to be the firſt place in the weſt, where that manufacture was ſet on foot, and from thence was carried to the Braſils in America. The Portugueſe not finding it ſo profitable as at firſt, have pulled up the greateſt part of their ſugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their ſtead, which produce ſeveral ſorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the iſland, Malmſey, and tent; of all which the inhabitants make and ſell prodigious quantities. No leſs than 20,000 hogſheads of Madeira it is ſaid, are yearly exported, the greateſt part to the Weſt Indies, eſpecially to Barbadoes; the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when expoſed to the ſun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is ſaid no venemous animal can live here. Of the two other iſlands, one is called Porto Santo, which lies at a ſmall diſtance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compaſs, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ſhips may ride with ſafety againſt all winds, except the ſouth weſt; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other iſland is an inconſiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or as they are called the Western Islands, that are situated between 25 and 32 deg. west long. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Gracioſa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were diſcovered in the middle of the fifteenth century by Joſhua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Liſbon, was, by ſtreſs of weather driven to theſe iſlands, which he found deſtitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemiſh iſlands. On his arrival at Liſbon he boaſted of this diſcovery, on which the Portugueſe ſet ſail immediately, and took poſſeſſion of them, and to whom they ſtill belong, and were called in general the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All theſe iſlands enjoy a very clear and ſerene ſky, with a ſalubrious air; but are expoſed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently ſuffered: and alſo by the inundations of ſurrounding waves. They are however extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, alſo cattle, fowl, and fiſh. It is ſaid, that no poiſonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and that if carried thither, they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largeſt, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the Engliſh in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the moſt important of theſe iſlands, on account of its harbour, which is ſpacious, and has good anchorage, but is expoſed to the ſouth-eaſt winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the reſidence of the governor of theſe iſlands, as well as of the biſhop.

AMERICA.

ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

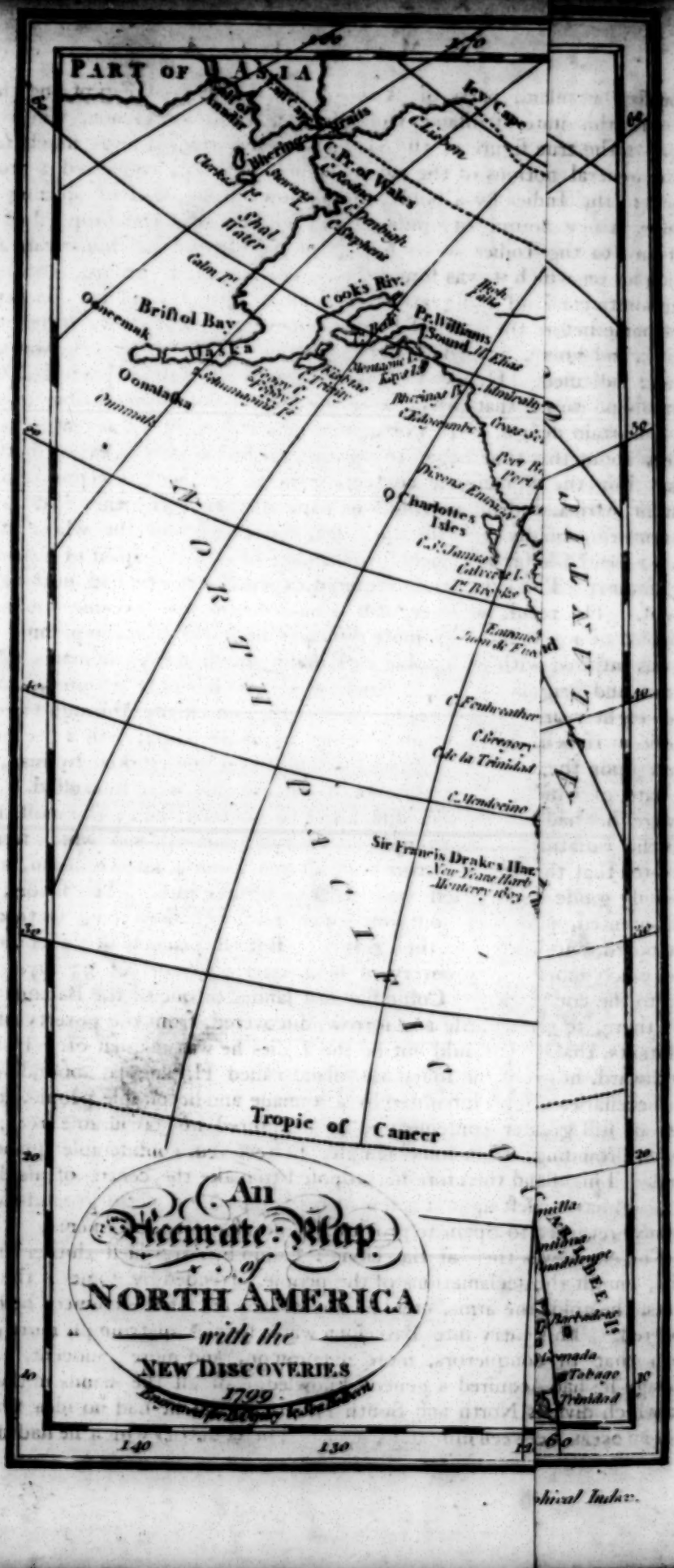
WE are now to treat of a country of vaſt extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many reſpects more to that of nature than any other diviſion of the globe. The particular circumſtances of this country require that we ſhould in ſome meaſure vary our plan, and before deſcribing its preſent ſtate, afford ſuch information with regard to its diſcovery, as is moſt neceſſary for ſatisfying our readers.

Towards the cloſe of the 15th century, Venice and Genoa were the only powers in Europe who owed their ſupport to commerce. An interference of intereſts inſpired a mutual rivalſhip; but in traffic Venice was much ſuperior. She engroſſed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed always, the moſt valuable in the world, but hitherto entirely carried on through


PART OF ASIA
Icy Cape
C. Lisburn
C. Prince of Wales
Shal Water
Arctic Circle
The Sea
Cook's Riv.
Bristol Bay
Ounemak
Oonalaska
Pr. Williams Sound
Mt. Elias
Slave Lake
Slave R.
Arathapescow R.
Admiralty B.
Cross Sound
Port Banks
Port Bukarelli
Queen Charlotte Isles
Hecate Strait
Nepheen Sound
Vepean Sound
Hudsons Bay
Nootka
King Geos. Sound
ASSINIPOUES
River of the West
Quivira
Sioux
Paduca
NEW TEGUAYO
Sir Francis Drakes Bay
ALBION
Texas
MEXICO
Tropic of Cancer
C. S. Lucas
An Accurate Map of NORTH AMERICA with the NEW DISCOVERIES 1709
140
130
Longitude West
from London



Geographical Index.


PART OF ASIA
Bering
Clerke Pt.
Shal Water
Cook's Riv.
Bristol Bay
Oonalaska
Pr. William's Sound
Mt. Elias
Charlottes Isles
Sir Francis Drakes Hav.
Tropic of Cancer
An Accurate Map of NORTH AMERICA with the NEW DISCOVERIES 1799
Barbadoes
Tobago
Trinidad
140
130

through the inland parts of Aſia; or by the way of Egypt and the Red ſea. In this ſtate of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whoſe knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much ſuperior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of ſailing to the Indies by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new ſource of opulence and power. But this propoſal of ſailing weſtward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoeſe as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded were condemned as abſurd. Stung with diſappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his ſcheme before the court of France, where his reception was ſtill more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII. of England was his next reſort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the moſt oppoſite imaginable to a great but uncertain deſign. In Portugal, where the ſpirit of adventure and diſcovery about this time began to operate, he had reaſon to expect better ſucceſs. But the Portugueſe contented themſelves with creeping along the coaſt of Africa, and diſcovering one cape after another; they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open ſea, and of riſquing the whole at once. Such repeated diſappointments would have broken the ſpirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, ſtill remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his deſign, the more difficulty he found in accompliſhing it, and he was inſpired with that noble enthuſiaſm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only reſource, and there, after eight years attendance, he ſucceeded, and chiefly through the intereſt of queen Iſabella. Columbus now ſet ſail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ſhips, upon the moſt adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were intereſted. In this voyage he had a thouſand difficulties to contend with; the moſt ſtriking was the variation of the compaſs, then firſt obſerved, and which ſeemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered to an unknown ocean, and that the only guide he had left was ready to forſake him. His ſailors, always diſcontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and inſiſted on their return. But the firmneſs of the commander, and much more the diſcovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus firſt landed on one of the Bahama iſlands, but there, to his ſurpriſe and ſorrow, diſcovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that theſe could not be the Indies he was in queſt of. In ſteering ſouthward, however, he found the iſland called Hiſpaniola, abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hoſpitable people, and what was of ſtill greater conſequence, as it inſured his favourable reception at home, promiſing, from ſome ſamples he received, conſiderable quantities of gold. This iſland therefore he propoſed to make the centre of his diſcoveries: and having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the neceſſary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona: Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidſt the acclamations of the people, attended by ſome of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, utenſils, and ornaments of the country he had diſcovered. This entry into Barcelona was a ſpecies of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the iſlands in that great ſea which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had diſcover-

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ed were conſidered as a part of India. Even after the error, which gave riſe to this opinion was detected, and the true poſition of the New World was aſcertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of *Weſt Indies* is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of *Indians* to its inhabitants. Thus were the Weſt Indies diſcovered by ſeeking a paſſage to the Eaſt; and even after the diſcovery, ſtill conceived to be a part of the eaſtern hemiſphere. The preſent ſucceſs of Columbus, his former diſappointments, and the glory attending ſo unexpected a diſcovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his deſigns now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of ſeventeen ſail was immediately prepared; all the neceſſaries for conqueſt or diſcovery were embarked; and 1500 men, among whom were ſeveral of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor with the moſt ample authority. It is impoſſible to determine whether the genius of this great man in firſt conceiving the idea of theſe diſcoveries, or his ſagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, moſt deſerve our admiration. Inſtead of hurrying from ſea to ſea, and from one iſland to another, which, conſidering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with ſuch a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curioſity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the diſcoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himſelf the unavailing applauſe of viſiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleaſure of ſeeing them. With this view he made for Hiſpaniola, where he eſtabliſhed a colony, and erected forts in the moſt advantageous grounds for ſecuring the dependence of the natives. Having ſpent a conſiderable time in this employment, and laboured for eſtabliſhing this colony with as much zeal and aſſiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to aſcertain the importance of his other diſcoveries, and to examine what advantages were moſt likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from ſome ſpecimens, ſeemed a rich diſcovery; but whether it was an iſland, or a part of ſome great continent, he was altogether uncertain. To aſcertain this point was the preſent object of his attention. In coaſting along the ſouthern ſhore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of Iſlands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. Theſe iſlands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the neceſſaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactreſs, who was always uppermoſt in his memory. In the ſame voyage Jamaica was diſcovered. But to ſo many difficulties was Columbus expoſed, on an unknown ſea, among rocks, ſhelves, and ſands, that he returned to Hiſpaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprize.

By the firſt ſucceſs of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the ſame ſucceſs, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain ſet every ſpring in motion againſt him; and there is no difficulty in finding ſpecious grounds of accuſation againſt ſuch as are employed in the execution of an extenſive and complicated plan. An officer was diſpatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a ſpy and informer, and whoſe preſence plainly demonſtrated to Columbus the neceſſity of returning to Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

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It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to ſet out on a third expedition, ſtill more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He deſigned to ſtand to the ſouthward of the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly weſtward that he might diſcover what opening that might afford to India, or what new iſlands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and ſuffering numberleſs inconveniencies from the exceſſive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured with a ſmart gale, and went before it ſeventeen days to the weſtward. At the end of this time, a ſeaman ſaw land, which was an iſland on the coaſt of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having paſſed this iſland, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was ſurpriſed with an appearance he had never ſeen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occaſioned by a conflict between the tide of the ſea and the rapid current of the immenſe river Oronoco. But ſailing forward, he plainly diſcovered that they were in freſh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any iſland ſhould ſupply ſo vaſt a river, he began to ſuſpect he had diſcovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on the weſtward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this diſcovery, he yielded to the uneaſineſs and diſtreſſes of his crew, and bore away for Hiſpaniola. In the courſe of this diſcovery, Columbus landed at ſeveral places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the ſpirit of diſcovery ſpread itſelf widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wiſhed to acquire the reputation of Columbus without poſſeſſing his abilities. The Portugueſe diſcovered Braſil, which makes at preſent the moſt valuable part of their poſſeſſions: Cabot, a native of Briſtol, diſcovered the north-eaſt coaſts, which formerly compoſed the Britiſh empire in North America: and Americus Veſpuſius, a merchant of Florence, ſailed to the ſouthern continent of America, and, being a man of addreſs, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now impoſed on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus was the firſt diſcoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the ſmalleſt mortifications to which this great man was compelled to ſubmit. For ſuch were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after diſcovering the continent, and making ſettlements in the iſlands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed, however, the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory ſo much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which diſfigured all the exploits of thoſe who came after him, and accompliſhed the execution of his plan. He fully vindicated himſelf at court, was reſtored to favour, and undertook another voyage in which he ſuffered great fatigues. He returned to Spain, and died at Valladolid, in 1506, in the 59th year of his age. The ſucceeding governors of Cuba and Hiſpaniola endeavoured to purchaſe the ſame advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good ſenſe and humanity. Theſe iſlands contained mines of gold.—The Indians only knew where they were ſituated; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of perſuaſion, hurried them to acts of the moſt ſhocking violence and cruelty againſt thoſe unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treaſure. The ſlaughter once begun, they ſet no bounds to their fury: in a few

years

years they depopulated Hiſpaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba, that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de las Caſas, a witneſs of theſe barbarous depopulations, ſays, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy ſavages, almoſt naked and unarmed, were purſued like deer into the thick of the foreſts, devoured by dogs, killed with gun ſhot, or ſurpriſed and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only viſited the continent: from what they ſaw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a ſtill more valuable conqueſt. Fernando Cortez is diſpatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horſes, and a ſmall number of field pieces. With this inconſiderable force, he propoſes to ſubdue the moſt powerful ſtate on the continent of America; this was the empire of Mexico: rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians, paſſionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whoſe fame in arms ſtruck terror in the neighbouring nations. Never hiſtory, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had ſubſiſted for ages: its inhabitants, it is ſaid, were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a poliſhed and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whoſe wiſdom is ſtill admired in this particular, that the year conſiſted nearly of 365 days. Their ſuperiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the ſure baſis of laws combined with religion, ſeemed to bid defiance to time itſelf. Mexico, the capital of the empire, ſituated in the middle of a ſpacious lake, was the nobleſt monument of American induſtry: it communicated to the continent by immenſe cauſeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of ſtone, its ſquares, and market-places, the ſhops which glittered with gold and ſilver, and the ſumptuous palaces of Montezuma, ſome erected on columns of jaſper, and containing whatever was moſt rare, curious, or uſeful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it againſt the Spaniards. Cortez in his march, met with feeble oppoſition from the nations along the coaſt of Mexico, who were terrified at their firſt appearance: the warlike animals, on which the Spaniſh officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which iſſued from their hands, the wooden caſtles which had wafted them over the ocean, ſtruck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched they ſpared no age or ſex, nothing ſacred or profane. At laſt the inhabitants of Tlaſcala, and ſome other ſtates on the coaſt, deſpairing of being able to oppoſe them, entered into their alliance, and joined armies with thoſe terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and, in his progreſs, diſcovers a volcano of ſulphur and ſalt-petre, whence he could ſupply himſelf with powder. Montezuma heard of his progreſs without daring to oppoſe it. This ſovereign is reported by the boaſting Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vaſſals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he dares not reſiſt a handful of Spaniards aided by a few Americans, whoſe allegiance would be ſhaken by the firſt reverſe of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spaniſh victories, which always marched before them.

By ſending a rich preſent of gold, which only whetted the Spaniſh avarice, Montezuma haſtened the approach of the enemy. No oppoſition is made to their

their entry into his capital. A palace is ſet apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treated as the maſters of the new world. He had good reaſon, however, to diſtruſt the affected politeneſs of this emperor, under which he ſuſpected ſome plot for his deſtruction to be concealed; but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindneſs, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was ſurrounded with artillery, the moſt frightful of all engines to the Americans. At laſt a circumſtance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hoſtilities. In order to ſecure a communication by ſea to receive the neceſſary reinforcements, he had erected a fort, and left a ſmall garriſon behind him at Vera Cruz, which has ſince become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He underſtood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garriſon in his abſence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himſelf was privy to this violence, and had iſſued orders that the head of the ſlain Spaniard ſhould be carried through his provinces, to deſtroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in perſon to the emperor, attended by a few of his moſt experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez ſeemed extremely ready to believe him, though, at the ſame time, he alledged that the Spaniards in general would never be perſuaded of it, unleſs he returned along with them to their reſidence, which would remove all jealouſy between the two nations. The ſucceſs of this interview ſhewed the ſuperiority of the European addreſs. A powerful monarch, in the middle of his own palace, and ſurrounded by his guards, gave himſelf up a priſoner, to be diſpoſed of according to the inclination of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accompliſhed. The Americans had the higheſt reſpect, or rather a ſuperſtitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty but his freedom, and, at the ſame time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his taſtes and paſſions, maintained the eaſy ſovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their reſpect; Montezuma was the firſt to teach them more politeneſs. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards; Montezuma aſcended the battlements of his priſon, and harangued his Mexicans into order and ſubmiſſion. This farce continued a long while; but on one of theſe occaſions, when Montezuma was ſhamefully diſgracing his character by juſtifying the enemies of his country, a ſtone, from an unknown hand, ſtruck him on the temple, which in a few days occaſioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated ſo ſtrongly with the Spaniards, elect a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who from the beginning diſcovered an implacable animoſity againſt the Spaniſh name. Under his conduct the unhappy Mexicans ruſhed againſt thoſe very men, whom a little before they had offered to worſhip. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly eſtabliſhed to be expelled from Mexico. The immenſe tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, beſides an amazing quantity of precious ſtones, a fifth part of which, diſtributed among his ſoldiers, ſtimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to periſh rather than part with ſo precious a

booty. The Mexicans, however, made no ſmall efforts for independence; but all their valour, and deſpair itſelf, gave way before what they called the Spaniſh thunder. Guatimozin and the empreſs were taken priſoners. This was the prince who, when he lay ſtretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him diſcover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, ſaid to his high prieſt, condemned to the ſame puniſhment, and who loudly expreſſed his ſenſe of the pains that he endured, "Do you take me to "lie on a bed of roſes?" The high prieſt remained ſilent, and died in an act of obedience to his ſovereign. Cortez, by getting a ſecond emperor into his hands, made a complete conqueſt of Mexico; with which the Caſtille D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his ſoldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of another great empire, ſituated towards the equinoctial line and the tropic of Capricorn, which was ſaid to abound in gold and ſilver, and precious ſtones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America, which deſerved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spaniſh government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not chuſe to adventure on new enterprizes; certain it is, that this extenſive country, more important than Mexico itſelf, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence, of three private perſons. The names of theſe were, Frances Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a prieſt, but a man of conſiderable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth and of low education. Pizarro, the ſoul of the enterprize, could neither read nor write. They ſailed over into Spain, and without difficulty obtained a grant of what they ſhould conquer. Pizarro then ſet out for the conqueſt of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horſe, and twelve ſmall pieces of cannon, drawn by ſlaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the ſame prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spaniſh nation, and were beſide, of a character ſtill more ſoft and unwarlike, it need not ſurpriſe us after what has been ſaid of the conqueſt of Mexico, that with this inconſiderable force, Pizarro ſhould make a deep impreſſion on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumſtances likewiſe which conſpired to aſſiſt him, and which, as they diſcover ſomewhat of the hiſtory, religion, and ſtate of the human mind in this immenſe continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of thoſe uncommon men, who, calm and diſpaſſionate themſelves, can obſerve the paſſions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He obſerved that the people of Peru were naturally ſuperſtitious, and had a particular veneration for the ſun. He pretended therefore to be deſcended from that luminary, whoſe worſhip he was ſent to eſtabliſh, and whoſe authority he was entitled to bear. By this ſtory, romantic as it appears, he eaſily deceived a credulous people and brought a large extent of territory under his juriſdiction: a larger ſtill he ſubdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the moſt laudable purpoſes. He united and civilized the diſtreſſed barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arms; he ſoftened them by the inſtitution of a benevolent religion; in ſhort, there was no part of America, where agriculture

agriculture, and the arts were ſo aſſiduouſly cultivated, and where the people were of ſo mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes ſucceeded Mango, diſtinguiſhed by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as deſcendents of their great God the Sun. The twelfth of theſe was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaina Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now makes a part of Spaniſh Peru. To ſecure himſelf in the poſſeſſion, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this marriage was ſprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Hueſcar, of a different mother, had claimed the ſucceſſion to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Hueſcar, as a priſoner, in the tower of Cuſco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed ſtate was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro advanced to it. The ominous predictions of religion too, as in moſt other caſes, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the ſubjection of the empire, by unknown perſons, whoſe deſcription exactly correſponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In theſe circumſtances, Atabalipa, inſtead of oppoſing the Spaniards, ſet himſelf to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whoſe temper partook of the meanneſs of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with thoſe he called Barbarians, but who, however, though leſs acquainted with the cruel art of deſtroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilized than himſelf. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previouſly inſtructed, furiouſly attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were preſſing forward, without regard to their particular ſafety, to defend the ſacred perſon of their monarch, ſeized Atabalipa himſelf, whom they carried off to the Spaniſh quarters. Pizarro, with the ſovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the maſter of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as ſtrongly attached to their emperor, as were the Mexicans. Atabalipa was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ranſom. On this occaſion the ancient ornaments, amaſſed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treaſures of the moſt magnificent temples were brought out to ſave him, who was the ſupport of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negociation, by which he propoſed, without releaſing the emperor, to get into his poſſeſſion an immenſe quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro cauſed ſome embarraſſment in his affairs. The friendſhip, or rather the external ſhew of friendſhip, between theſe men, was ſolely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprizing ſpirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous, that might gratify their ruling paſſion. When their intereſts, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any meaſures could he kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the moſt conſiderable ſhare of the treaſure, ariſing from the emperor's ranſom, becauſe he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro inſiſted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, leſt the common cauſe might ſuffer by any rupture between them, this diſpoſition was agreed to: the ranſom is paid in without delay, a ſum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice. It exceeded 1,500,000l. ſterling, and conſidering the value of money at that time, was prodigious; on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the ſhares of the chief comman-

ders and officers, each private ſoldier had above 2000l. Engliſh money. With ſuch fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be ſubjected to the rigours of military diſcipline. They inſiſted on being diſbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, ſenſible that avarice would ſtill detain a number in his army, and that thoſe who returned with ſuch magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to purſue the ſame plan for acquiring gold. Theſe wiſe reflections were abundantly verified; it was impoſſible to ſend out better recruiting officers, than thoſe who had themſelves ſo much profited by the field; new ſoldiers conſtantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immenſe ranſom was only a farther reaſon for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they diſcovered whether he had another treaſure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an averſion againſt the Peruvian emperor, on account of ſome inſtances of craft and policy which he obſerved in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that, by his command, Atabalipa was put to death. To juſtify this cruel proceeding, a ſham charge was exhibited againſt the unhappy prince, in which he was accuſed of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumſtances of equal impertinence. The only juſt ground of accuſation againſt him was, that his brother Hueſcar had been put to death by his command; and even this was conſiderably palliated, becauſe Hueſcar had been plotting his deſtruction, that he might eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility ſet up the full brother of Hueſcar; Pizarro ſet up a ſon of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to eſtabliſh themſelves by the aſſiſtance of the army. Theſe diſtractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at preſent rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought againſt one another; their battles accuſtomed the harmleſs people to blood; and ſuch is the preference of a ſpirit of any kind raiſed in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the courſe of thoſe quarrels among themſelves, the inhabitants of Peru aſſumed ſome courage againſt the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cauſe of all their calamities. The loſſes which the Spaniards met with in theſe quarrels, though inconſiderable in themſelves, were rendered dangerous by leſſening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preſerve among the inhabitants of the new world. This conſideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce: and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city Lima, and in ſettling the Spaniards in the country. But as ſoon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war againſt the Indians, and after many difficulties, made himſelf maſter of Cuſco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in theſe conqueſts, new grants and ſupplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the ſea-coaſt, to the ſouthward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the ſouthward of Pizarro's government. This diviſion occaſioned a warm diſpute between them, each reckoning Cuſco within his own diſtrict. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He perſuaded his rival, that the country which really belonged to him, lay to the ſouthward of Cuſco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as eaſily conquered as

Peru.

Peru. He offered him his aſſiſtance in the expedition, the ſucceſs of which he did not even call in queſtion.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of ſubduing a kingdom for himſelf, liſtened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged neceſſary, penetrated with great danger and difficulty into Chili; loſing many of his own men as he paſſed over mountains of an immenſe height, and always covered with ſnow. He reduced, however, a very conſiderable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war, not to take advantage of the diviſion of the Spaniſh troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indiſpoſed, and Almagro removed at a diſtance, they were well nigh ſucceſsful. The latter, however, no ſooner got notice of the ſiege of Cuſco, than, relinquiſhing all views of diſtant conqueſts, he returned to ſecure the grand objects of their former labours. He raiſed the ſiege with infinite ſlaughter of the aſſailants; but, having obtained poſſeſſion of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This diſpute occaſioned a long and bloody ſtruggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the reſentment fierce on both ſides, becauſe the fate of the vanquiſhed was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the ſecurity of a rival, in whoſe dangers and triumphs he had long ſhared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprize, he had been ultimately connected. During the courſe of this civil war, many Peruvians ſerved in the Spaniſh armies, and learned, from the practice of Chriſtians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable reſolution. They ſaw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguiſhable reſentment and avarice, and they conjectured that theſe paſſions would never permit their conteſts to ſubſide. Let us retire, ſaid they, from among them, let us fly to our mountains; they will ſpeedily deſtroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This reſolution was inſtantly put in practice; the Peruvians diſperſed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each ſide been exactly equal, this ſingular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with ſucceſs. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never ſince ventured to make head againſt the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now ſole maſter of the field, and of the richeſt empire in the world, was ſtill urged on, by his ambition, to undertake new enterprizes. The ſouthern countries of America, into which he had ſome time before diſpatched Almagro, offered the richeſt conqueſt. Towards this quarter the mountains of Potoſi, compoſed of entire ſilver, had been diſcovered, the ſhell of which only remains at preſent. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, paſſed the Andes, and ſailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immenſe navigation, which diſcovered a rich and delightful country, but as it is moſtly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals the Spaniards then, and ever ſince, neglected it. Pizarro meeting with repeated ſucceſs, and having no ſuperior to control, no rival to keep him within bounds, now gave looſe reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the baſeſt tyranny and cruelty againſt all who had not concurred in his deſigns. This conduct raiſed a conſpiracy againſt him, to which he fell a ſacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himſelf had founded. The partiſans of old Almagro, now declared his ſon of the

the ſame name their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well ſatisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor Charles V. then king of Spain, who ſent over Vaca di Caſtro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wiſdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the moſt advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines of La Plata and Potoſi, which were formerly a matter of private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were ſilenced or cruſhed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, ſince the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was reſtored to Peru. It ſeems, however, that Caſtro had not been ſufficiently ſkilled in gaining the favour of the Spaniſh miniſtry, by proper bribes or promiſes, which a miniſtry would always expect from the governor of ſo rich a country. By their advice, a council was ſent over to control Caſtro, and the colony was again unſettled. The parties but juſt extinguiſhed, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, ſet himſelf at the head of his brother's partiſans, with whom many new malcontents had united. It was now no longer a diſpute between governors about the bounds of their juriſdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal ſubmiſſion to the king. He ſtrengthened daily, and even went ſo far as to behead a governor, who was ſent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spaniſh fleet in the South Seas, by whoſe means he propoſed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the ſituation of affairs, when the court of Spain, ſenſible of their miſtake in not ſending into America men whoſe character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, diſpatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gaſga, a man differing only from Caſtro by being of a more mild and inſinuating behaviour, but with the ſame love of juſtice, the ſame greatneſs of ſoul, and the ſame diſintereſted ſpirit. All thoſe who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked under his ſtandard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gaſga, forſook their old connections: the admiral was gained over by inſinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himſelf was offered a full indemnity, provided he ſhould return to the allegiance of the Spaniſh crown. But ſo intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than ſubmit to any officer of Spain. With thoſe of his partizans, therefore, who ſtill continued to adhere to his intereſt he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered and taken priſoner. His execution followed ſoon after; and thus the brother of him, who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a ſacrifice for the ſecurity of the Spaniſh dominion over that country.

The conqueſt of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American hiſtory, which deſerves to be treated under the preſent head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent or of the iſlands, if it contains either inſtruction or entertainment, ſhall be handled under theſe particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever compoſes the character of the natives of America; and as theſe are extremely ſimilar all over this part of the globe, we ſhall ſpeak of them in general, in order to ſave continual re-

repetitions, noticing at the ſame time, when we enter upon the deſcription of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

Of the Original inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE diſcovery of America has not only opened a new ſource of wealth to the buſy and commercial part of Europe, but an extenſive field of ſpeculation to the philoſopher, who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and obſerve the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human underſtanding, when untutored by ſcience or untainted by corruption. So ſtriking ſeemed the diſparity between the inhabitants of Europe, and the natives of America, that ſome ſpeculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impoſſible they ſhould be of the ſame ſpecies, or derived from one common ſource. This concluſion, however, is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the neceſſaries of life, the force of cuſtom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumſtances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be diſcovered among them all, notwithſtanding the various ſhades which characteriſe nations, and diſtinguiſh them from each other.

When the thirſt of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immerſed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a ſtate of honeſt independence, and noble ſimplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively ſpeaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almoſt every European art; even agriculture itſelf, the moſt uſeful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very ſparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the neceſſaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and foreſts ſupplied in great abundance. This exerciſe, which among them is a moſt ſerious occupation, gives a ſtrength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The ſame cauſe, perhaps, renders their bodies, in general, where the rays of the ſun are not too violent, uncommonly ſtraight and well proportioned. Their muſcles are firm and ſtrong; their bodies and heads flattiſh, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce, their hair long, black, lank, and as ſtrong as that of a horſe. The colour of their ſkin is a reddiſh brown, admired among them and heightened by the conſtant uſe of bears fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumſtances and way of life. A people who are conſtantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious ſubſiſtence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be ſuppoſed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or high flow of ſpirits. The Indians therefore are, in general, grave even to ſadneſs; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to ſome nations in Europe, and they deſpiſe it. Their behaviour

haviour to thoſe about them is regular, modeſt, and reſpectful. Ignorant of the arts of amuſement, of which that of ſaying trifles agreeably, is one of the moſt conſiderable, they never ſpeak, but when they have ſomething important to obſerve; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with ſome meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almoſt continually engaged in purſuits, which to them are of the higheſt importance. Their ſubſiſtence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be loſt by the ſmalleſt inattention to the deſigns of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the neceſſaries of life in greateſt abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the ſame reaſon extremely ſmall, when compared with civilized ſocieties, in which induſtry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vaſt number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders uſeful to one another. The ſmall tribes live at an immenſe diſtance; they are ſeparated by a deſert frontier, and hid in the boſom of impenetrable and almoſt boundleſs foreſts.

There is eſtabliſhed in each ſociety a certain ſpecies of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with very little variation; becauſe over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly ſimilar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great inſtruments of ſubjection in poliſhed ſocieties, an American has no method by which he can render himſelf conſiderable among his companions, but by a ſuperiority in perſonal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very laviſh in her perſonal diſtinctions, where all enjoy the ſame education, all are pretty much equal, and will deſire to remain ſo. Liberty therefore is the prevailing paſſion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this ſentiment, is better ſecured than by the wiſeſt political regulations. They are very far, however, from deſpiſing all ſorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wiſdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they enliſt under the banners of the chief, in whoſe valour and military addreſs they have learned to repoſe their confidence. In every ſociety therefore there is to be conſidered the power of the chief and of the elders: and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a ſpecies of ariſtocracy. Among thoſe tribes which are moſt engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, becauſe the idea of having a military leader, was the firſt ſource of his ſuperiority, and the continual exigencies of the ſtate requiring ſuch a leader, will continue to ſupport and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather perſuaſive than coercive: he is reverenced as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice, and one act of ill-judged violence would put him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be conſidered as an ariſtocracy, have no more power. In ſome tribes indeed there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whoſe influence being conſtantly augmented by time, is more conſiderable. But this ſource of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries, that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In moſt countries therefore age alone is ſufficient for acquiring reſpect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only ſource of knowledge among

among a barbarous people. Among thoſe perſons buſineſs is conducted with the utmoſt ſimplicity, and which may recall to thoſe who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the moſt early ages. The heads of families meet together in a houſe or cabin, appointed for the purpoſe. Here the buſineſs is diſcuſſed, and here thoſe of the nation, diſtinguiſhed for their eloquence or wiſdom, have an opportunity of diſplaying thoſe talents. Their orators, like thoſe of Homer, expreſs themſelves in a bold figurative ſtyle, ſtronger than refined, or rather ſoftened nations can well bear, and with geſtures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expreſſive. When the buſineſs is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feaſt upon the occaſion, of which almoſt the whole nation partakes. The feaſt is accompanied with a ſong, in which the real, or fabulous exploits of their foreſathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like thoſe of the Greeks and Romans, chiefly of the military kind, and their muſic and dancing accompanies every feaſt.

It often happens, that thoſe different tribes or nations, ſcattered as they are at an immenſe diſtance from one another, meet in their excurſions after prey. If there ſubſiſts no animoſity between them, which ſeldom is the caſe they behave in the moſt friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a ſtate of war, or if there has been no previous intercourſe between them, all who are not friends being deemed enemies, they fight with the moſt ſavage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their moſt common motive for entering into a war, when it does not ariſe from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themſelves for the death of ſome loſt friend, or to acquire priſoners, who may aſſiſt them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their ſociety. Theſe wars are either undertaken by ſome private adventurers, or at the inſtance of the whole community. In the latter caſe, all the young men, who are diſpoſed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their deſign to accompany him. For every thing among theſe people is tranſacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief, who is to conduct them, faſts ſeveral days, during which he converſes with no one, and is particularly careful to obſerve his dreams, which the preſumption natural to ſavages, generally renders as favourable as he could deſire. A variety of other ſuperſtitions and ceremonies are obſerved. One of the moſt hideous is ſetting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which among ſome nations muſt formerly have been the caſe, ſince they ſtill continue to expreſs it in clear terms, and uſe an emblem ſignificant of the ancient uſage. Then they diſpatch a porcelane, or large ſhell, to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

"A generous friendſhip no cold medium knows,
"But with one love, with one reſentment glows."

They think that thoſe in their alliance muſt not only adopt their enmities, but have their reſentment wound up to the ſame pitch with themſelves. And indeed no people carry their friendſhips, or their reſentments, ſo far as they do: and this is what ſhould be expected from their peculiar circumſtances: that principle in human nature, which is the ſpring of the ſocial affections, acts with ſo much the greater force, the more it is reſtrained. The Ameri-

cans, who live in ſmall ſocieties, who ſee few objects and few perſons, become wonderfully attached to theſe objects and perſons, and cannot be deprived of them, without feeling themſelves miſerable. Their ideas are too confined, their breaſts are too narrow to entertain the ſentiment of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumſtance, while it makes them cruel and ſavage to an incredible degree, towards thoſe with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendſhips, and to the common tie which unites the members of the ſame tribe, or of thoſe different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, ſome facts we are going to relate would excite our wonder, without informing our reaſon, and we ſhould be bewildered in a number of particulars ſeemingly oppoſite to one another, without being ſenſible of the general cauſe from which they proceed.

Having finiſhed all the ceremonies previous to the war, they iſſue forth with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with ſtreaks of vermillion, which give them a moſt horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and diſpoſe of all their finery to the women, who accompany them a conſiderable diſtance to receive thoſe laſt tokens of eternal friendſhip.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a ſurpriſe; and indeed in theſe they are ſuperior to all nations in the world. Accuſtomed to continual wandering in the foreſts, having their perceptions ſharpened by keen neceſſity, and living in every reſpect according to nature, their external ſenſes have a degree of acuteneſs which at firſt view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immenſe diſtance, by the ſmoke of their fires, which they ſmell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and diſtinguiſh with the utmoſt facility. They even diſtinguiſh the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the preciſe time when they paſſed, where an European could not, with all his glaſſes, diſtinguiſh footſteps at all. Theſe circumſtances, however, are of ſmall importance, becauſe their enemies are no leſs acquainted with them. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making uſe of any thing by which they might run the danger of a diſcovery. They light no fire to warm themſelves, or to prepare their victuals: they lie cloſe to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that cloſes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracks of his own feet, and of theirs who preceded him. When they halt to refreſh themſelves, ſcouts are ſent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they ſuſpect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, maſſacre all the children, women, and helpleſs old men, or make priſoners of as many as they can manage, or have ſtrength enough to be uſeful to their nation. But when the enemy is appriſed of their deſign, and coming on in arms againſt them, they throw themſelves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to reſemble. Then they allow a part to paſs unmoleſted, when all at once, with a tremendous ſhout, riſing up from their ambuſh, they pour a ſtorm of muſket bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the ſame cry. Every one ſhelters himſelf with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverſe party, as ſoon as they raiſe themſelves from the ground to give a ſecond fire. Thus does the battle continue

until the one party is ſo much weakened as to be incapable of farther reſiſtance. But if the force on each ſide continues nearly equal, the fierce ſpirits of the ſavages, inflamed by the loſs of their friends, can no longer be reſtrained. They abandon their diſtant war, they ruſh upon one another, with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and inſulting their enemies with the bittereſt reproaches. A cruel combat enſues, death appears in a thouſand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouſe the fury of the ſavages. They trample, they inſult over the dead bodies, tearing the ſcalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beaſts, and ſometimes devouring their fleſh. The flame rages on till it meet with no reſiſtance; then the priſoners are ſecured, thoſe unhappy men, whoſe fate is a thouſand times more dreadful than theirs who have died in the field. The conquerors ſet up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have loſt. They approach in a melancholy and ſevere gloom to their own village; a meſſenger is ſent to announce their arrival, and the women, with frightful ſhrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their huſbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders, a circumſtantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of thoſe who have fallen, the ſhrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in theſe cries, according as each is moſt connected with the deceaſed by blood or friendſhip. The laſt ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable tranſition, they paſs in a moment from the bitterneſs of ſorrow to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the priſoners, whoſe fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characteriſes the ſavages.

We have already mentioned the ſtrength of their affections or reſentments. United as they are in ſmall ſocieties, connected within themſelves by the firmeſt ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the moſt intenſe warmth within the walls of their own village, ſeldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their reſentment is eaſily extended from the individual who has injured them to all others of the ſame tribe. The priſoners, who have themſelves the ſame feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The perſon who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the diſtribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to ſupply the loſs of a citizen. If thoſe who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occaſion for him, or their reſentment for the loſs of their friends be too high to endure the ſight of any connected with thoſe who were concerned in it, they ſentence him to death. All thoſe who have met with the ſame ſevere ſentence being collected, the whole nation is aſſembled at the execution, as for ſome great ſolemnity. A ſcaffold is erected, and the priſoners are tied to the ſtake, where they commence their death ſong, and prepare for the enſuing ſcene of cruelty with the moſt undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other ſide, are determined to put it to the proof, by the moſt refined and exquiſite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by

the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the fleſh with his teeth; a third thruſts the finger mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe made red hot, which he ſmokes like tobacco; then they pound the toes and fingers to pieces between two ſtones; they pull off the fleſh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gaſhes in the fleſhy parts of his limbs, which they ſear immediately with red hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately; they pull off this fleſh, thus mangled and roaſted, bit by bit, devouring it with greedineſs, and ſmearing their faces with the blood in an enthuſiaſm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the fleſh, they twiſt the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and ſnapping them, whilſt others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increaſe the torment. This continues often five or ſix hours; and ſometimes, ſuch is the ſtrength of the ſavages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they ſhall inflict, and to refreſh the ſtrength of the ſufferer, who, wearied out with ſuch a variety of unheard of torments, often falls into ſo profound a ſleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his ſufferings. He is again faſtened to the ſtake, and again they renew their cruelty; they ſtick him all over with ſmall matches of wood, that eaſily takes fire, but burns ſlowly; they continually run ſharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thruſt out his eyes; and laſtly, after having burned his fleſh from the bones with ſlow fires; after having ſo mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in ſuch a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the ſkin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals, or boiling water on the naked ſkull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and ſtaggering with pain and weakneſs, aſſaulted and pelted on every ſide with clubs and ſtones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every ſtep, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compaſſion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is ſucceeded by a feaſt as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into ſomething worſe than furies, even out-do the men in this ſcene of horror; while the principal perſons of the country ſit round the ſtake, ſmoking and looking on without the leaſt emotion. What is moſt extraordinary, the ſufferer himſelf, in the little intervals of his torments, ſmokes too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there ſeems a conteſt which ſhall exceed, they, in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in induring them, with a firmneſs and conſtancy almoſt above human; not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their countrymen, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exaſperate them to a perfect madneſs of rage and fury, he continues his inſults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquiſite methods, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwiſe, as it would be for any European to ſuffer as

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an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early inſtitution, and a ferocious thirſt of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the ſavage in the face of his tormentors, *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; thoſe who fear them are cowards; they are leſs than women; life is nothing to thoſe that have courage; may my enemies be confounded with deſpair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the laſt drop.*

Theſe circumſtances of cruelty, which ſo exceedingly degrade human nature, ought not, however, to be omitted, becauſe they ſerve to ſhew, in the ſtrongeſt light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity, to what a pitch the paſſions of men may be carried, when untamed by the refinements of poliſhed ſociety, when let looſe from the government of reaſon, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Chriſtianity; a religion that teaches compaſſion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practiſed in other inſtitutions; and it will make us more ſenſible, than ſome appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civilized life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of ſome of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewiſe the ſting of our natural vices, and ſoftened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the hiſtory of mankind forms a ſtronger contraſt than this cruelty of the ſavages towards thoſe with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who conſiſt of all thoſe who live in the ſame village, or are in alliance with it; among theſe all things are common; and this, though it may in part ariſe from their not poſſeſſing very diſtinct notions of ſeparate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the ſtrength of their attachment; becauſe in every thing elſe, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to ſerve their friends. Their houſes, their proviſion, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a gueſt. Has any one of theſe ſucceeded ill in his hunting? Has his harveſt failed? or is his houſe burned? He feels no other effect of his misfortune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled, until by ſome treachery or ſurpriſe he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place great enough to protect the object; he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, he pierces the moſt impracticable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous bogs and deſarts for ſeveral hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirſt, with patience and cheerfulneſs, in hopes of ſurpriſing his enemy, on whom he exerciſes the moſt ſhocking barbarities, even to the eating of his fleſh. To ſuch extremes do the Indians puſh their friendſhip or their enmity; and ſuch indeed, in general, is the character of all ſtrong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have ſaid reſpecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit obſerving the force of their friendſhip, which principally appears by the treatment of the dead. When any one of the ſociety is cut off, he is lamented by the whole: on this occaſion a thouſand ceremonies are practiſed, denoting the moſt lively ſorrow. Of theſe, the moſt remarkable, as it diſcovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feaſt of the dead, or the feaſt of ſouls. The day of this ceremony

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is appointed by public order; and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmoſt pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be preſent and to join in the ſolemnity. At this time all who have died ſince the laſt ſolemn occaſion (which is renewed every ten years among ſome tribes, and every eight among others), are taken out of their graves; thoſe who have been interred at the greateſt diſtance from the villages are diligently ſought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcaſſes.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general diſinterment. I cannot deſcribe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the moſt authentic account of thoſe nations.

Without queſtion, ſays he, the opening of theſe tombs diſplays one of the moſt ſtriking ſcenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human miſery, in ſo many images of death, wherein ſhe ſeems to take a pleaſure to paint herſelf in a thouſand various ſhapes of horror, in the ſeveral carcaſſes, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a ſort of parchment upon their bones; ſome look as if they were baked and ſmoked, without any appearance of rottenneſs; ſome are juſt turning towards the point of putrefaction; while others are all ſwarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to ſtrike us moſt, the horror of ſo ſhocking a ſight, or the tender piety and affection of theſe poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deſerves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they diſcharge this melancholy duty of their tenderneſs; gathering up carefully even the ſmalleſt bones; handling the carcaſſes, diſguſtful as they are with every thing loathſome, cleanſing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their ſhoulders, through tireſome journeys of ſeveral days, without being diſcouraged from the offenſiveneſs of the ſmell, and without ſuffering any other emotions to ariſe than thoſe of regret, for having loſt perſons who were ſo dear to them in their lives, and ſo lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feaſt in honour of the dead; during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourſes which took place between them and their friends are piouſly called to mind. The ſtrangers, who have come ſometimes many hundred miles to be preſent on the occaſion join in the tender condolence; and the women, by frightful ſhrieks, demonſtrate that they are pierced with the ſharpeſt ſorrow. Then the dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general re-interment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each perſon, attended by his family and friends, marches in ſolemn ſilence, bearing the dead body of a ſon, a father, or a brother. When they are convened, the dead bodies, or the duſt of thoſe which were quite corrupted, are depoſited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they poſſeſs moſt valuable is interred with the dead. The ſtrangers are not wanting in their generoſity, and confer thoſe preſents which they have brought along with them for the purpoſe. Then all preſent go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preſerve with the moſt religious care. The bodies, ranged in order are covered with entire new furs, and over theſe with bark, on which they throw ſtones, wood, and earth. Then taking their laſt farewel, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned that in this ceremony the ſavages offer, as preſents to the

the dead, whatever they value moſt highly. This cuſtom, which is univerſal among them, ariſes from a rude notion of the immortality of the ſoul. They believe this doctrine more firmly, and it is the principle tenet of their religion. When the ſoul is ſeparated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it ſtill continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the ſame things with which it formerly was pleaſed. After a certain time, however, it forſakes this dreary manſion, and departs far weſtward into the land of ſpirits. They have even gone ſo far as to make a diſtinction between the inhabitants of the other world; ſome, they imagine, particularly thoſe who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, poſſeſs a high degree of happineſs, have a place for hunting and fiſhing, which never fails, and enjoy all ſenſual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The ſouls of thoſe, on the contrary, who happen to be conquered or ſlain in war, are extremely miſerable after death.

Their taſte for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a ſtrong bias to their religions. Areſkoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and according as his diſpoſition is more or leſs favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or leſs ſucceſsful. Some nations worſhip the ſun and moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the hiſtory of the gods: traditions which reſemble the Grecian fables, but which are ſtill more abſurd and inconſiſtent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have ſome immediate occaſion for the aſſiſtance of their gods, they pay them no ſort of worſhip. Like all rude nations, however, they are ſtrongly addicted to ſuperſtition. They believe in the exiſtence of a number of good and bad genii or ſpirits, who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happineſs or miſery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diſeaſes proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The miniſters of the genii are the jugglers, who are alſo the only phyſicians among the ſavages. Theſe jugglers are ſuppoſed to be inſpired by the good genii, moſt commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the aſſiſtance of the ſick, and are ſuppoſed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the diſeaſe, and in what way they muſt be treated. But theſe ſpirits are extremely ſimple in their ſyſtem of phyſic, and, in almoſt very diſeaſe, direct the juggler to the ſame remedy. The patient is incloſed in a narrow cabin, in the midſt of which is a ſtone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well ſoaked with the warm vapour and his own ſweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him ſuddenly into the next river. This coarſe method, which coſts many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewiſe the uſe of ſome ſpecifics of wonderful efficacy; and all the ſavages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of theſe remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are adminiſtered.

It ſhould be obſerved by the reader, that the particulars which have juſt been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteriſtics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America, were very different. On the firſt appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their diſcoverers found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemiſphere. They were different

ferent in their features and complexions; they were not only averſe to toil, but ſeemed incapable of it; and when rouſed by force from their native indolence, and compelled to work, they ſunk under taſks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with eaſe. This feebleneſs of conſtitution ſeemed almoſt univerſal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were alſo ſtruck with the ſmallneſs of their appetite for food. The conſtitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded in their opinion, the abſtinence of the moſt mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans inſatiably voracious; and they affirmed, that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was ſufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very ſparing, ſo limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raiſed what was ſufficient for their own conſumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their induſtry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were eaſily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards ſettled in any diſtrict, ſuch a ſmall addition of ſupernumerary mouths ſoon exhauſted their ſcanty ſtores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South America, compared with thoſe of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, leſs vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle but daſtardly ſpirit, more enſlaved by pleaſure, and ſunk in indolence.

A General deſcription of AMERICA.

THIS great weſtern continent, frequently denominated the NEW WORLD, extends from the 80th degree North, to the 56th degree South latitude; and where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 136th degree of Weſt longitude from London; ſtretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greateſt breadth 3690. It ſees both hemiſpheres, has two ſummers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is waſhed by the two great oceans. To the eaſtward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the weſt it has the Pacific, or great South Sea, by which it is ſeparated from Aſia. By theſe ſeas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is compoſed of two great continents, one on the North, the other on the South, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a ſort of iſthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, ſo extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulf, which is formed between the iſthmus and the northern and ſouthern continents, lie a multitude of iſlands, many of them large, moſt of them fertile, and denominated the Weſt Indies, in contradiſtinction to the countries and iſlands of Aſia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the Eaſt Indies.

Before we begin to treat of ſeparate countries in their order, we muſt, according to juſt method, take notice of thoſe mountains and rivers, which diſdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America in general be

be not a mountainous country, it has the greateſt mountains in the world. In South America, the Andes, or Cordelleras, run from north to ſouth along the coaſt of the Pacific Ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the Iſthmus of Darien to the Straits of Magellan, they divide the whole ſouthern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are conſtantly covered with ſnow. Chimborazo, the higheſt of the Andes, is 20,608 feet; of this about 2400 feet from the ſummit are always covered with ſnow. Carazon was aſcended by the French aſtronomers, and is ſaid to be 15,800 feet high. In North America, which is chiefly compoſed of gentle aſcents, or level plains, we know of no conſiderable mountains, except thoſe towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American States, ſeparating them from Canada and Louiſiana, which we call the Apalachian or Alligany mountains; if that may be conſidered as a mountain, which upon one ſide is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly on a level with the reſt of the country.

America is, without queſtion, that part of the globe which is beſt watered; and that not only for the ſupport of life, and all the purpoſes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourſe of each part with the others. In North America, ſuch is the wiſdom and goodneſs of the Creator of the univerſe, thoſe vaſt tracts of country, ſituated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immenſe and unknown diſtance from the ocean, are watered by inland ſeas, called the lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give riſe to ſeveral great rivers, particularly the Miſſiſippi, running from north to ſouth till it falls into the gulf of Mexico, after a courſe, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progreſs the vaſt tribute of the Illinois, the Miſaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers, ſcarcely inferior to the Rhine, or the Danube; and on the north the river St. Laurence, running a contrary courſe from the Miſſiſippi, till it empties itſelf into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almoſt navigable to their heads, lay open the inmoſt receſſes of this great continent, and afford ſuch an inlet for commerce, as muſt produce the greateſt advantage, whenever the country adjacent ſhall come to be fully inhabited, and by an induſtrious and civilized people. The eaſtern ſide of North America, beſides the noble rivers Hudſon, Delawar, Suſquehana, and Potowmack, ſupplies ſeveral others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of the ſettlements are ſo advantageouſly interſected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be ſaid to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if poſſible, in this reſpect even more fortunate. It ſupplies much the two largeſt rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plata River. The firſt riſing in Peru not far from the South Sea, paſſes from Weſt to Eaſt, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a courſe of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata riſes in the heart of the country, and having its ſtrength gradually augmented, by an acceſſion of many powerful ſtreams, diſcharges itſelf with ſuch vehemence into the ſea, as to make its taſte freſh for many leagues from land. Beſides theſe there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoco is the moſt conſiderable.

A country of ſuch vaſt extent on each ſide of the equator, muſt neceſ-

 ſarily

ſarily have a variety of ſoils as well as climates. It is a treaſury of Nature, producing moſt of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and high perfection. The gold and ſilver of America have ſupplied Europe with ſuch immenſe quantities of thoſe valuable metals, that they are become vaſtly more common; ſo that the gold and ſilver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price ſet upon them before the diſcovery of America.

This country alſo produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethyſts, and other valuable ſtones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewiſe to lower their value. To theſe, which are chiefly the production of Spaniſh America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of leſs price, are of much greater uſe, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the Britiſh empire in this part of the world. Of theſe are the plentiful ſupplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brazil, fuſtic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut; ſugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balſams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jeſuit's bark, mechoacan, ſaſſafras, ſarſaparilla, caſſia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which, before the diſcovery of America, we were either entire ſtrangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Aſia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoeſe, who then engroſſed the trade of the eaſtern world.

This continent has alſo a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants: and ſo fertile is the ſoil, that many exotic productions are nouriſhed in as great perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians ſtill live in the quiet poſſeſſion of many large tracts, America, ſo far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spaniards, Engliſh, and Portugueſe. The Spaniards, as they firſt diſcovered it, have the largeſt and richeſt portion, extending from New Mexico and Louiſiana, in North America, to the ſtraits of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have ſome forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they ſcarcely deſerve to be conſidered as proprietors of any part of the ſouthern continent.

Next to Spain, the moſt conſiderable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the firſt diſcovery of that continent by Sebaſtian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII. anno 1497, about ſix years after the diſcovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated ſolely to an iſland upon its coaſt. It was a long time before we made any attempt to ſettle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, firſt ſhewed the way by planting a colony in the ſouthern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his miſtreſs queen Elizabeth.

The French, indeed, from this period until the concluſion of the war in 1763, laid a claim to, and actually poſſeſſed Canada and Louiſiana, comprehending all that extenſive inland country, reaching from Hudſon's Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the ſame name on the ſouth: regions which all Europe could not people in the courſe of many ages; but no territory

ritory, however extenſive, no empire, however boundleſs, could gratify the ambition of that aſpiring nation: hence, under the moſt ſolemn treaties, they continued in a ſtate of hoſtility, making gradual advances upon the back of our ſettlements, and rendering their acquiſitions more ſecure and permanent by a chain of forts, well ſupplied with all the implements of war. At the ſame time they laboured inceſſantly to gain the friendſhip of the Indians, by various arts, even by intermarriages, and whom they not only trained to the uſe of arms, but infuſed into theſe ſavages the moſt unfavourable notions of the Engliſh, and the ſtrength of their nation. The Britiſh colonies thus hemmed in, and confined to a ſlip of land along the ſea-coaſt, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and the natural enemies of Great Britain, began in 1755 to take the alarm. The Britiſh empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total diſſolution. The colonies, in their diſtreſs, called out aloud to the mother country. The bulwarks, and the thunder of England, were ſent to their relief, accompanied with powerful armies, well appointed, and commanded by a ſet of heroes, the Scipios of that age. A long war ſucceeded, which ended glorioufly for Great Britain; for after oceans of blood were ſpilt, and every inch of ground was bravely diſputed, the French were not only driven from Canada and its dependencies, but obliged to relinquiſh all that part of Louiſiana, lying on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſippi.

Thus at an immenſe expence, and with the loſs of many brave men, our colonies were preſerved, ſecured, and extended ſo far, as to render it difficult to aſcertain the preciſe bounds of our empire in North America, to the northern and weſtern ſides; for to the northward, it ſhould ſeem that we might have extended our claim quite to the pole itſelf, nor did any nation ſeem inclined to diſpute the property of this northernmoſt country with us. But our flattering proſpects reſpecting our American poſſeſſions, have been annihilated by that unhappy conteſt between the mother-country and the colonies, which, after eight years continuance, with great expence of treaſure and blood, ended in the eſtabliſhment of a new Republic, ſtyled "The Thirteen United States of America." The territory of the United States contains by computation a million of ſquare miles, in which are

Acres	640,000,000
Deduct	51,000,000 of water
	589,000,000 of land

The extent of unappropriated weſtern territory, containing 222,000,000 of acres, is transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for ſinking the national debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new ſtates with republican conſtitutions ſimilar to the others.

The multitude of iſlands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided amongſt the Spaniards, Engliſh and French. The Dutch indeed poſſeſs three or four ſmall iſlands, which in any other hands would be of no conſequence: and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deſerve to be named among the proprietors of America. We ſhall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudſon's Bay, with thoſe vaſt regions towards the Pole, are little known.

A ſummary View of the firſt Settlements of NORTH AMERICA.

Names of Places, when ſettled		By whom
Quebec - -	1608	By the French.
Virginia June 10,	1609	By Lord de la War.
Newfoundland June	1610	By Governor John Guy.
New York, New Jerſey	about 1614	By the Dutch.
Plymouth - -	1620	By part of Mr. Robinſon's congregation.
New Hampſhire -	1623	By a ſmall Engliſh colony, near the mouth of Piſcataqua river.
Delawar, Pennſylvania	- 1627	By the Swedes and Fins.
Maſſachuſet's Bay -	1628	By Capt. John Endicot and company
Maryland -	1633	By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholics.
Connecticut - -	1635	By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Iſland -	1635	By Mr. Roger Williams, and his perſecuted brethren.
New Jerſey - -	1664	Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II. and made a diſtinct government, and ſettled ſome time before this by the Engliſh.
South Carolina - -	1669	By Governor Sale.
Pennſylvania -	1628	By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North Carolina about	1728	Erected into a ſeparate government, ſettled before by the Engliſh.
Georgia - - -	1732	By General Oglethorpe.
Kentucky - - -	1773	By Col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont - - -	1777	By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England.
Territory N. W. of Ohio River	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

The

The Grand Divisions of NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies,	Leng.	Brea.	Sq. Mil.	Chief Towns	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
New Britain	800	750	318,750			Great Britain
Province of Quebec.	600	200	100,000	Quebec		Ditto
New Scotland New Brunsw.	350	250	57,000	Halifax Shelburne		Ditto
New England	550	200	87,000	Boston	3760 W.	United States
New York	300	150	24,000	New York		Ditto
New Jersey	160	60	10,000	Perth Amboy		Ditto
Pennsylvania	300	240	65,000	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	140	135	12,000	Annapolis		Ditto
Virginia	750	240	80,000	Williamsb.		Ditto
North Caro. South Caro. Georgia	700	380	110,000	Edenton Charles-town Savannah		Ditto Ditto Ditto
East Florida West Florida	500	440	100,000	St. Auguſtine Penſacola		Spain Ditto
Louiſiana	1200	645	516,000	New Orleans	4080 S. W.	Ditto
New Mexico & California	2000	1000	600,000	St. Fee St. Juan	4320 S. W.	Ditto Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	4900 S. W.	Ditto

The Thirteen United States - - - -		238,000 Sq. Miles
British Poſſeſſions in North America.	Province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunſwick	157,000

Grand Diviſions of SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Leng.	Brea.	Sq. Miles	Chief Cities.	Diſt. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
Terra Firma	1400	700	700,000	Panama	4650 S. W.	Spain
Peru	1800	600	970,000	Lima	5520 S. W.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 960 B.						
Guiana	780	480	250,000	Surinam Cayenne	3840 S. W.	Dutch French
Brazil	2500	700	940,000	St Sebaſtian	6000 S. W.	Portugal
Parag. or La Plata	1500	1000	1,000,000	Buen. Ayres	6040 S. W.	Spain
Chili	1200	500	206,000	St. Jago	6600 S. W.	Ditto
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia.	1400	460	325,000	The Spaniards took poſſeſſion of it, but did not think it worth while to ſettle there.		

The principal ISLANDS of NORTH AMERICA belonging to the EUROPEANS are

	ISLANDS.	Length	Breadth	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belongs to
In the Gulf of St. Lawr.	Newfoundland	350	200	35,500	Placentia	Great Britain
	Cape Breton	110	80	4,000	Louisburg	Ditto
In the Atlan.	St. John's	60	30	500	Charlotte Town	Ditto
	The Bermuda Isles	20,000 acres		40	St. George	Ditto
	The Bahama ditto	very numerous			Naſſau	Ditto
West India islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America.	Jamaica	140	60	6,000	Kingſton	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	140	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St. Chriſtopher's	20	7	80	Baſſe-terre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	100	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and Monteſerrat	each of theſe is 18 circum.			Charles Town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
	Barbuda	20	12	60		Ditto
	Anguilla	30	10	60		Ditto
	Dominica	28	13	150	Roſſeau	Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	18	150	Kingſton	Ditto
	Granada	30	15	150	St. George's	Ditto
	Tobago	32	9	108		France
	Cuba	700	90	38,400	Havannah	Spain
	Hiſpaniola	450	150	36,000	St. Domingo	France
	Porto Rico	130	49	3,200	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	90	60	2,897	St. Joſeph	Ditto
	Margarita	40	24	624		Ditto
	Martinico	60	30	300	St. Peter's	Britain
	Guadaloupe	45	38	250	Baſſe terre	Ditto
	St. Lucia	23	12	90		Ditto
	St. Bartholomew Deſceda, and Marigalanta	all of them inconſiderable				Ditto Ditto Ditto
	St. Euſtatia	29	circum.		The Bay	Dutch
	Curaſſou	30	10	342		Ditto
	St. Thomas	15	circum.			Denmark
	St. Croix	30	10		Baſſe End	Ditto

British Iſlands in NORTH AMERICA and the WEST INDIES } 46,930 ſquare miles.

BRITISH AMERICA.

NEW BRITAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 850 Breadth 750	between	50 and 70 north latitude. 50 and 100 weſt longitude.	318,750

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudſon's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Eſquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands, and frozen ſeas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean on the Eaſt; by the bay and river of St. Lawrence and Canada, on the South, and by unknown lands on the Weſt. Its length is computed at 850 miles, and 750 broad.

MOUNTAINS.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the north, their being covered with eternal ſnow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occaſion a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the ſame latitude.

RIVERS, BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are numerous, and take their names generally from the Engliſh navigators and commanders, by whom they were firſt diſcovered. The principal bay is that of Hudſon, and the principal ſtraits are thoſe of Hudſon, Davis, and Belleiſle.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudſon's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is ſeen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth has been ſuppoſed incapable of any better production than ſome miſerable ſhrubs. Every kind of European ſeed, which we have committed to the earth, in this inhoſpitable climate, has hitherto periſhed; but, in all probability, we have not tried the ſeed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in ſuch caſes, the place from whence the ſeed comes is of great moment. All this ſeverity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenneſs of the earth which comes from thence, is experienced in the latitude of fifty-one; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are the mooſe deer, ſtags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, ſquirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geeſe, buſtards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fiſh, there are whales, morſes, ſeals, cod-fiſh, and a white fiſh preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and freſh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelſon, in one ſeaſon, ninety thouſand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thouſand hares.

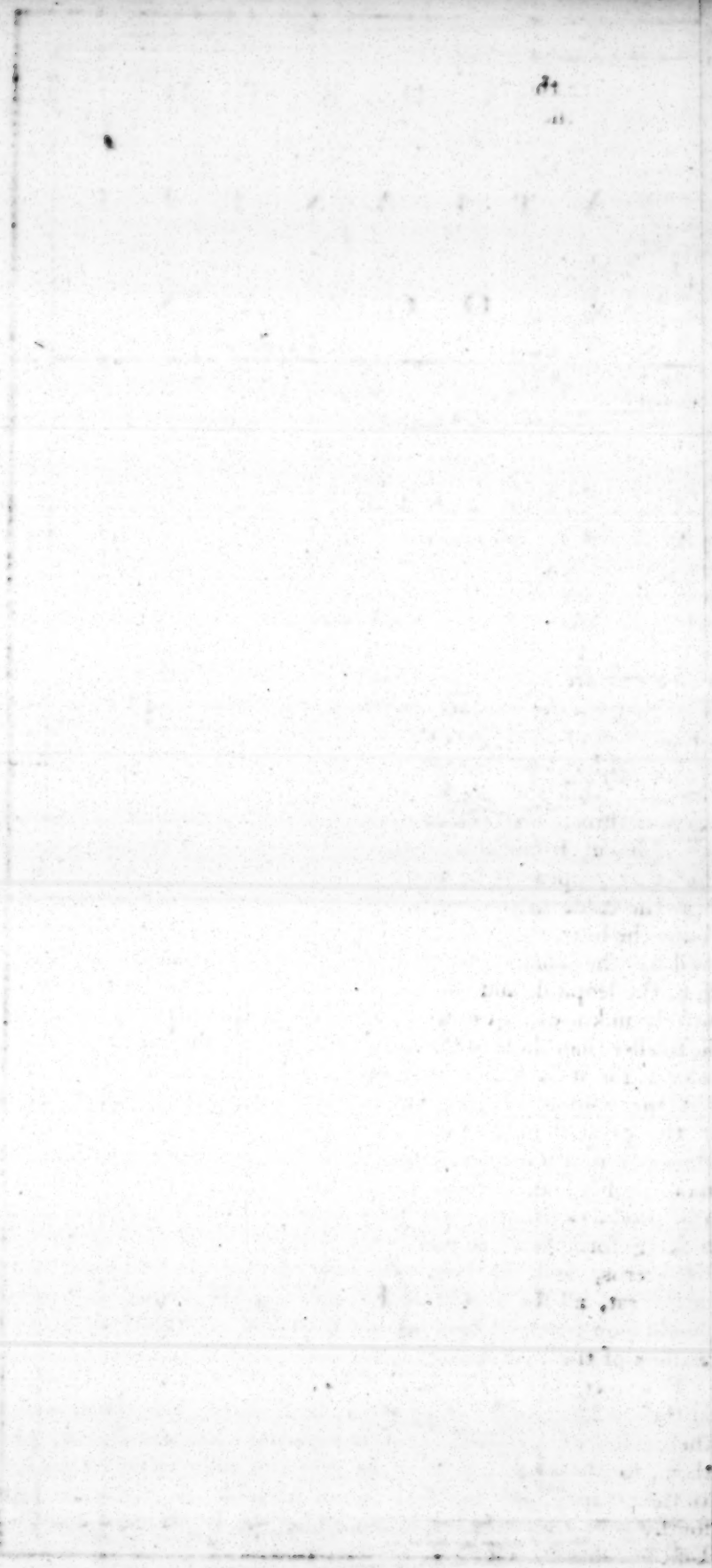
All the animals of theſe countries are clothed with a cloſe, ſoft, warm fur. In ſummer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the ſeveral animals. When that ſeaſon is over, which holds only for three months, they

they all aſſume the livery of winter, and every ſort of beaſts, and moſt of their fowls, are of the colour of the ſnow: every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a ſurpriſing phænomenon. But what is yet more ſurpriſing, and what is indeed one of the moſt ſtriking things, that draw the moſt inattentive to an admiration of the wiſdom and goodneſs of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudſon's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, ſofter, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance farther in the deſcription of America, it may be proper to obſerve in general, that all the quadrupeds of this new world are leſs than thoſe of the old; even ſuch as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never ſeen to improve. If with reſpect to ſize, we ſhould compare the animals of the new and the old world, we ſhall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Aſiatic elephant, for inſtance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, which is the largeſt native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which ſome alſo call the American camel, is ſtill leſs. Their beaſts of prey are quite diveſted of that courage, which is ſo often fatal to man in Africa or Aſia. They have no lions, nor, properly ſpeaking, either leopard, or tyger. Travellers, however, have affixed thoſe names to ſuch ravenous animals as are there found moſt to reſemble thoſe of the ancient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them, are deſpicable in compariſon of the tyger, the leopard, and the panther of Aſia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to meaſure ſix feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tyger, as ſome affect to call it, ſeldom exceeds three. All the animals, therefore, in the ſouthern parts of America, are different from thoſe in the ſouthern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but thoſe which, being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein deer, the ſtag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada, as Ruſſia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the ſouth with us, are utterly unknown in Southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America be ſmaller than thoſe of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wiſdom of the Author of it, that the ſmalleſt animals multiply in the greateſt proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to Southern America, in a few generations becomes much leſs; but then it alſo becomes more prolific, and inſtead of one kid at a time, or two at the moſt, generally produces five, ſix, and ſometimes more. The wiſdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious: had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the ſame degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would ſoon be unequal to the conteſt, and we ſhould ſoon perceive them become the tyrants of thoſe who call themſelves the maſters of the creation.

Persons and habits.] The men of this country ſhew great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themſelves, and in preſerving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where ſurrounds them, for the greateſt part of the year; in other reſpects they are very ſavage. In their ſhapes and faces they do not reſemble the Americans who live to the ſouthward: they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samoeids of Europe, already deſcribed.

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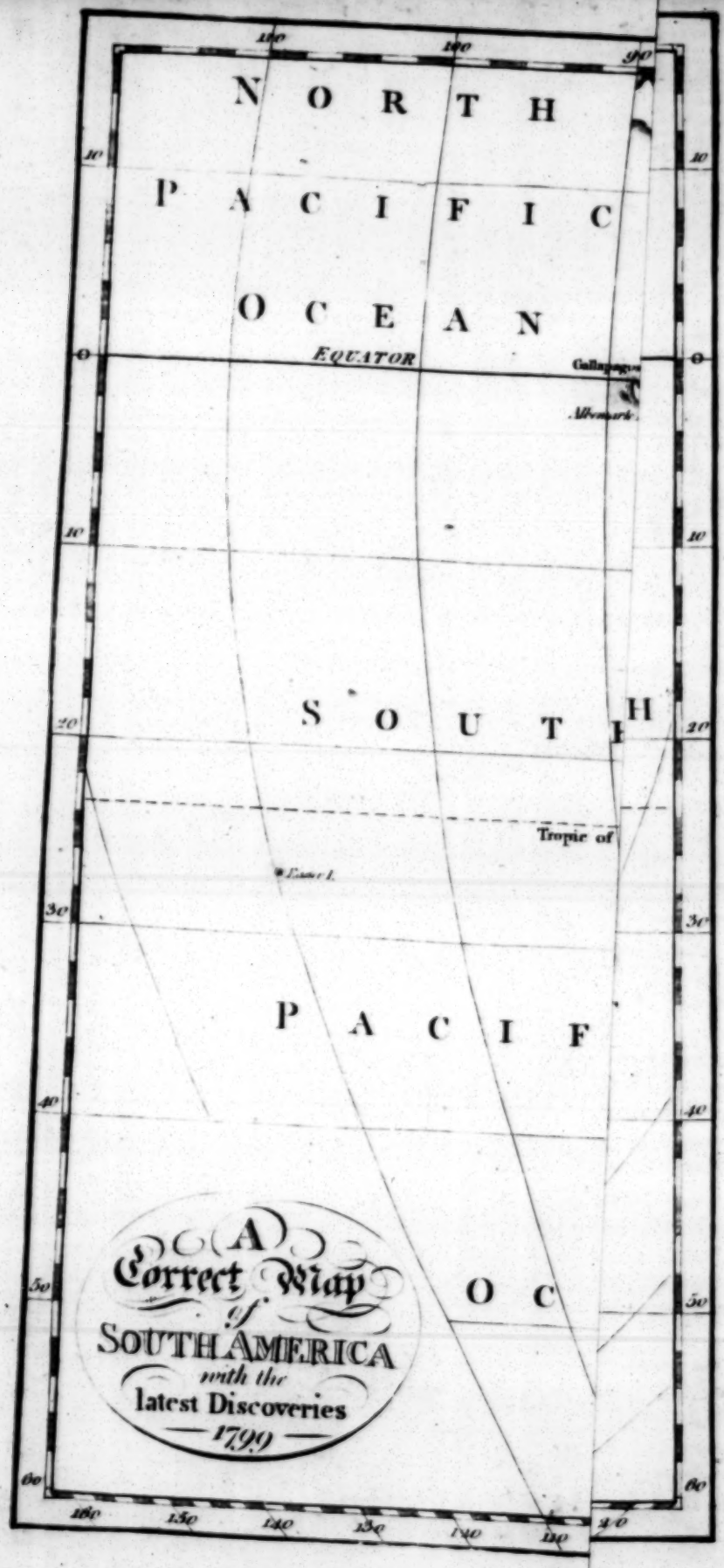



A
Correct Map
of
SOUTH AMERICA
with the
latest Discoveries
1799
NORTH
PACIFIC
OCEAN
SOUTH
PACIFIC
OCEAN
CARIBBEAN SEA
TERRA FIRMA
NEW
GRENADA
EQUATOR
Tropic of Capricorn
Quito
Lima
Truxillo
G. of Guayaquil
Gallapagos I.
Mendana I.
Easter I.
Juan Fernandez I.
St Andrew I.
St Felix
Arica
Valparayso
Santiago
Baldivia
Terra del Fuego
Maire de Dios
Strait
PATAGONIA
CHILI
PERU
CARACAS
R. Bonaventura
C. St Francisco
C. Blanco
C. St Nicholas
C. Horn
C. Pilar
C. Pertas
St Paul
St Ignatio
Loxa
Payta
Piura
Truxillo
Lima
Arica
Valparayso
Santiago
Baldivia
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NORTH
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
EQUATOR
SOUTH
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
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A
Correct Map
of
SOUTH AMERICA
with the
latest Discoveries
1799


NORTH
ATLANTIC
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SOUTH
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BRASIL
AMAZONIA
TAPAYOS
NEW GRENADA
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DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of theſe northern ſeas and countries was owing to a project ſtarted in England for the diſcovery of a north-weſt paſſage to China and the Eaſt-Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of diſcovery it ſeems manifeſt, that no practicable paſſage ever can be found. Forbiſher only diſcovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and thoſe ſtraits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis ſailed from Portſmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coaſts, but he ſeems never to have entered the bay. Hudſon made three voyages on the ſame adventure, the firſt in 1607, the ſecond in 1608, and his third and laſt in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the ſtraits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coaſted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the diſcovery not being abated by the difficulties he ſtruggled with in this empire of winter, and world of froſt and ſnow, he ſtaid here until the enſuing ſpring, and prepared in the beginning of 1611, to pu ſue his diſcoveries; but his crew, who ſuffered equal hardſhips, without the ſame ſpirit to ſupport them, mutinied, ſeized upon him, and ſeven of thoſe who were moſt faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy ſeas, in an open boat. Hudſon and his companions were either ſwallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the inhoſpitable coaſt, were deſtroyed by the ſavages; but the ſhip and the reſt of the men returned home.

Another attempt towards a diſcovery was made in 1746 by captain Ellis, who wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half; but though the adventurers failed in the original purpoſe for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vaſt countries which ſurround Hudſon's Bay, as we have already obſerved, abound with animals, whoſe fur and ſkins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not conſiſt of above nine or ten perſons, for the excluſive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever ſince with great benefit to the private men, who compoſe the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent were it not entirely in the hands of this excluſive company, whoſe intereſted, not to ſay iniquitous ſpirit, has been the ſubject of long and juſt complaint. The company employ but four ſhips, and 130 ſeamen. They have ſeveral forts, viz. Prince of Wales, Churchill, Nelſon, New Severn, and Albany, which ſtand on the weſt ſide of the bay, and are garriſoned by 186 men. The French attacked, took, and made ſome depredations on them the laſt war, it was ſaid to the amount of 400,000l. They export commodities to the value of 16,000l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340l. which yield to the revenue 3,734l. This includes the fiſhery in Hudſon's Bay. This commerce, ſmall as it is, affords immenſe profits to the company, and even ſome advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their ſkins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, ſuch things are ſent of which we have the greateſt plenty, and which, in the mercantile phraſe, are drugs with us. Though the workmanſhip may happen to be in many reſpects ſo deficient, that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the ſkins and furs we bring from Hudſon's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage.

CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600 Breadth 200	between	61 and 81 weſt longitude. 45 and 52 north latitude.	100,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Britain and Hudſon's Bay, on the North and Eaſt; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York, on the South: and by unknown lands on the Weſt.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above; but as it is much farther from the ſea, and more northerly than a great part of theſe provinces, it has a much ſeverer winter, though the air is generally clear; but like moſt of thoſe American tracts, that do not lie too far to the northward, the ſummers are very hot and exceedingly pleaſant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the ſoil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleaſant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other ſorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The iſle of Orleans near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence and other rivers, are remarkable for the richneſs of their ſoil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of great and ſmall cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of Britiſh America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almoſt all the different ſpecies of wood and animals that are found in theſe provinces, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them here at ſome length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greateſt foreſts in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itſelf. Nothing is more magnificent to the ſight; the trees loſe themſelves in the clouds; and there is ſuch a prodigious variety of ſpecies, that even among thoſe perſons who have taken moſt pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are deſcribing produces, amongſt others, two ſorts of pines, the white and the red; four ſorts of firs; two ſorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and female maple; three ſorts of aſh-trees, the free, the mungrel, and the baſtard; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; vaſt numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which, made out of one piece, will contain 20 perſons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they ſew together with the inner rind, and daub over the ſeams with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter reſembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of theſe canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are alſo found cherry trees, plum-trees, the vinegar tree, the fruit of which, infuſed in water, produces vinegar;

vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow ſeveral tufts of flowers, which, when ſhaken in the morning, before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into ſugar, the ſeed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the ſun-plant, which reſembles a marigold, and grows to the height of ſeven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in ſome of the mountains, we are told, ſilver has been found. This country alſo abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's Seguinary, Deſprairies, and Trois Rivieres, but they are all ſwallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river iſſues from the lake Ontario, and taking its courſe north-eaſt, waſhes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile iſlands. It continues the ſame courſe and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the ſea, where it is navigable for large veſſels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the ſea, it becomes broad, and ſo deep, that ſhips of the line contributed, in the war before the laſt, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progreſs innumerable ſtreams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Roſieres, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intenſe, and the ſea boiſterous. In its progreſs it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and iſlands, many of them fruitful, and extremely pleaſant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which the French (now ſubjects of Great Britain) have ſettlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is nothing improbable that Canada, and thoſe vaſt regions to the weſt, will be enabled of themſelves to carry on a conſiderable trade upon the great lakes of freſh water, which theſe countries environ. Here are five lakes, the ſmalleſt of which is a piece of ſweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not leſs than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oſwego, longer, but not ſo broad, is about the ſame extent. That of the Huron ſpreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not leſs than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains ſeveral large iſlands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of theſe are navigable by any veſſels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the paſſage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a ſtupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock croſſes it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can expreſs the conſternation of travellers at ſeeing ſo great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from ſo great a height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as white as ſnow, being all converted into foam, through thoſe violent agitations. The noiſe of this fall is often heard at the diſtance of 15 miles, and ſometimes much farther. The vapour ariſing from the fall may ſometimes be ſeen at a great diſtance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of ſmoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the ſun and the poſition of the traveller favours. Many beaſts and fowls here loſe their lives, by attempting to ſwim, or croſs the ſtream in the rapids above the fall, and are found daſhed in pieces below; and ſome-

times the Indians, through careleſſneſs or drunkenneſs, have met with the ſame fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by ſuch a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already obſerved, is the outlet of theſe lakes; by this they diſcharge themſelves into the ocean. The French, when in poſſeſſion of the province, built forts at the ſeveral ſtraits, by which theſe lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the laſt of them communicates with the river. By theſe they effectually ſecured to themſelves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] Theſe make the moſt curious, and hitherto the moſt inteſting part of the natural hiſtory of Canada. It is to the ſpoils of theſe that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and moſt of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been deſcribing. The animals that find ſhelter and nouriſhment in the immenſe foreſts of Canada, and which indeed traverſe the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are ſtags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weaſels, ſquirrels of a large ſize and greyiſh hue, hares, and rabbits. The ſouthern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a ſmall ſize, divers ſorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marſhes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, ſwarm with otters, beavers or caſtors, of which the white are highly valued, being ſcarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though reſembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the moſt curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs ſixty or ſeventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The ſavages, who waged a continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in ſociety, and was governed by a leader, reſembling their own ſachem, or prince—It muſt indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to ſerve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and ſeverity of it, are ſufficient to ſhew the near approaches of inſtinct to reaſon, and even in ſome inſtances the ſuperiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow, and ſtraw colour; but it is obſerved, that the lighter their colour the leſs quantity of fur they are cloathed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the ſkin before it is applied to any uſe; the green are the furs that are worn, after being ſewed to one another, by the Indians, who beſmear them with unctuous ſubſtances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down, that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and the Engliſh have of late found the ſecret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and ſtockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Beſides the fur, this uſeful animal produces the true caſtoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the teſticles: the value of this drug is well known. The fleſh of the beaver is a moſt delicious food, but when boiled it has a diſagreeable reliſh.

The muſk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver (weighing about five or ſix pounds

pounds), which it reſembles in every thing but its tail; and it affords a very ſtrong muſk.

The elk is of the ſize of a horſe or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling-ſickneſs, are aſcribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its fleſh is very agreeable and nouriſhing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no graſs, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he ſometimes ſprings furiouſly on his purſuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal ſpends his fury on theſe, he takes proper meaſures to diſpatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail ſo long, that Charlevoix ſays he twiſted it ſeveral times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the ſnout to the tail. It is ſaid, that this animal, winding himſelf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twiſt his ſtrong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffaloe, a kind of wild ox, has much the ſame appearance with thoſe of Europe; his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly eſteemed. The fleſh of the female is very good; and the buffaloe hides are as ſoft and pliable as chamois leather, but ſo very ſtrong, that the bucklers which the Indians make uſe of are hardly penetrable by a muſket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domeſtic animal, but differs in no other reſpect from thoſe of Europe. Wolves are ſcarce in Canada, but they afford the fineſt furs in all the country: their fleſh is white, and good to eat; and they purſue their prey to the tops of the talleſt trees. The black foxes are greatly eſteemed, and very ſcarce; but thoſe of other colours are more common: and ſome on the Upper Miſſiſippi are of a ſilver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thouſand antic tricks, and then ſpring upon, and devour them. The Canadian polecat has a moſt beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the ſmell of which is nauſeous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it ſprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the aſſailant. The Canadian wood rat is of a beautiful ſilver colour, with a buſhy tail, and twice as big as the European: the female carries under her belly a bag, which ſhe opens and ſhuts at pleaſure; and in that ſhe places her young when purſued. Here are three ſorts of ſquirrels; that called the flying ſquirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is eaſily tamed, and is very lively, except when aſleep, which is often the caſe; and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's ſleeve, pocket, or muff; he firſt pitches on his maſter, whom he will diſtinguiſh among twenty perſons. The Canadian porcupine is leſs than a middling dog; when roaſted, he eats full as well as a ſucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from thoſe in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two ſorts of bears here, one of a reddiſh, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the moſt dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unleſs when wounded, or oppreſſed with hunger. They run themſelves very poor in the month of July, when it is ſomewhat dangerous to meet them; and they are ſaid to ſupport themſelves during the winter, when the ſnow lies from four to ſix feet deep, by ſucking their paws. Scarcely any thing among the Indians

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is undertaken with greater ſolemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed ſeveral in one day, is more eagerly ſought after, than that of one who has rendered himſelf famous in war. The reaſon is, becauſe the chace ſupplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation, they have eagles, falcons, goſhawks, tercois, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they ſpread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance. Woodcocks are ſcarce in Canada, but ſnipes, and other water-game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is ſaid by ſome writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, ſwallows, and larks; no leſs than twenty-two different ſpecies of ducks, and a great number of ſwans, turkeys, geeſe, buſtards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a diſtance from houſes. The Canadian wood-pecker is a beautiful bird. Thruſhes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very ſhewy, and remarkable for announcing the return of ſpring. The fly-bird is thought to be the moſt beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chafer, and he makes a noiſe with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-ſnake chiefly deſerves attention. Some of theſe are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is moſt remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is ſcaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is ſaid there grows every year one ring, or row of ſcales; ſo that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horſe by his teeth. In moving, it makes a rattling noiſe, from which it has its name. The bite of this ſerpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant which is called rattle-ſnake herb, the root of which (ſuch is the goodneſs of Providence) is a certain antidote againſt the venom of this ſerpent, and that with the moſt ſimple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaſter to the wound. The rattle-ſnake ſeldom bites paſſengers, unleſs it is provoked, and never darts itſelf at any perſon without firſt rattling three times with its tail. When purſued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itſelf round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itſelf with great fury and violence againſt its purſuers; nevertheleſs, the ſavages chace it, and find its fleſh very good; and being alſo of a medicinal quality, it is uſed by the American apothecaries in particular caſes.

Some writers are of opinion that the fiſheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more like to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains perhaps the greateſt variety of any in the world, and theſe in the greateſt plenty and of the beſt ſorts.

Beſides a great variety of other fiſh in the rivers and lakes, are ſea-wolves, ſea-cows, porpoiſes, the lencornet, the goberque, the ſea-plaiſe; ſalmon, trout, turtle, lobſters, the chaouraſou, ſturgeon, the achigau; the gilthead, tunny, ſhad, lamprey, ſmelts, conger eels, mackarel, ſoals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The ſea-wolf, ſo called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largeſt are ſaid to weigh two thouſand pounds; their fleſh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning and currying of leather; their ſkins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not ſo fine as Morocco leather, they preſerve their freſhneſs better,

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and are leſs liable to cracks. The ſhoes and boots made of thoſe ſkins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and laſting covers for ſeats. The Canadian ſea-cow is larger than the ſea-wolf, but reſembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickneſs and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoiſes of the river St. Laurence are ſaid to yield a hogſhead of oil; and of their ſkins waiſtcoats are made, which are exceſſively ſtrong, and muſket proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle-fiſh, quite round, or rather oval: there are three ſorts of them, which differ only in ſize; ſome being as large as a hogſhead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the laſt, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taſte and ſmell of a ſmall cod. The ſea-plaiſe is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaouraſou is an armed fiſh, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, reſembling a pike; but is covered with ſcales that are proof againſt a dagger: its colour is a ſilver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long bony ſubſtance, ragged at the edges. One may readily conceive, that an animal ſo well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few inſtances of fiſh making prey of the feathered creation, which this fiſh does, however, with much art. He conceals himſelf among the canes, and reeds, in ſuch a manner that nothing is to be ſeen beſides his weapon, which he holds raiſed perpendicularly above the ſurface of the water: the fowls, which come to take reſt, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no ſooner alighted, than the fiſh opens his throat, and makes ſuch a ſudden motion to ſeize his prey, that it ſeldom eſcapes him. This fiſh is an inhabitant of the lakes. The ſturgeon is both a freſh and ſalt-water fiſh, taken on the coaſts of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a ſmall kind of ſturgeon, the fleſh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fiſh peculiar to the river St. Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from thoſe of the Nile.

INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were vaſtly populous; but we cannot preciſely determine the number of French and Engliſh ſettled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increaſe. In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador was ſuppoſed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants *. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almoſt innumerable; but theſe people are obſerved to decreaſe in population where the Europeans are moſt numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond. But as liberty is the ruling paſſion of the Indians, we may naturally ſuppoſe that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more diſtant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble, and partly of ſlate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houſes in both are of ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor reſides. The number of in-

* In 1784, general Haldimand ordered a cenſus of the inhabitants to be taken, when they amounted to 113,012 Engliſh and French, excluſive of 10,000 loyaliſts, ſettled in the upper parts of the province.

habitants

habitants have been computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a ſudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies oppoſite the town is ſafe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two baſtions, that are raiſed 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in ſailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landſcapes, the banks being in many places very bold and ſteep, and ſhaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty cloſe all the way; ſeveral gentlemen's houſes, neatly built, ſhew themſelves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flouriſhing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well ſettled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themſelves. Many beautiful iſlands are interſperſed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After paſſing the Richelieu iſlands, the air becomes ſo mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himſelf tranſported to another climate; but this is to be underſtood in the ſummer months.

The town called Trois Rivieres, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much reſorted to by ſeveral nations of Indians, who, by means of theſe rivers, come here and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and ſkins. The country is pleaſant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handſome houſes ſtand on both ſides of the rivers.

Montreal ſtands on the iſland in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the ſouth ſhore. While the French had poſſeſſion of Granada, both the city and iſland of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them ſo well that the whole iſland was become a moſt delightful ſpot, and produced every thing that could adminiſter to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong ſquare, divided by regular and well-formed ſtreets; and when it fell into the hands of the Engliſh, the houſes were built in a very handſome manner; and every houſe might be ſeen at one view from the harbour, or from the ſouthernmoſt ſide of the river, as the hill on the ſide of which the town ſtands falls gradually to the water. This place is ſurrounded by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the Engliſh. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but ſince it fell into the hands of the Engliſh it hath ſuffered much by fires.

GOVERNMENT.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fiſh, fell timber, and to ſow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities were entitled to all their former rights and privileges.

In the year 1774, an act was paſſed by the parliament of Great Britain, for making more effectual proviſion for the government of the province of Quebec. By this it was enacted, that it ſhould be lawful for his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, by warrant under his or their ſignet or ſign manual, and with the advice of the privy-council, to conſtitute and appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to conſiſt of ſuch perſons reſident there,

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not exceeding twenty-three, nor leſs than ſeventeen, as his majeſty, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, ſhall be pleaſed to appoint; and upon the death, removal, or abſence of any of the members of the ſaid council, in like manner to conſtitute and appoint others to ſucceed them. And this council, ſo appointed and nominated, or the majority of them, are veſted with power and authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, with the conſent of the governor, or, in his abſence, of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. The council, however, are not impowered to lay taxes, except for the purpoſe of making roads, reparation of public buildings, or ſuch local conveniencies. By this act, all matters of controverſy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England is to be continued in the province. The inhabitants of Canada are alſo allowed by this act not only to profeſs the Romiſh religion, but the popiſh clergy are inveſted with a right to claim and obtain their accuſtomed dues from thoſe of the ſame religion. This act occaſioned a great alarm both in England and America, and appears to have contributed much towards ſpreading a ſpirit of diſaffection to the Britiſh government in the colonies. The city of London petitioned againſt the bill before it received the royal aſſent; declaring, that they apprehended it to be entirely ſubverſive of the great fundamental principles of the Britiſh conſtitution, as well as of the authority of various ſolemn acts of the legiſlature. And in one of the petitions of the American congreſs to the king, they complained, that by the Quebec act, the limits of that province were extended, the Engliſh laws aboliſhed, and the French laws reſtored, whereby great numbers of Britiſh freemen were ſubjected to the latter; and that an abſolute government, and the Roman catholic religion, were alſo eſtabliſhed by that act, throughout thoſe vaſt regions that border on the weſterly and northerly boundaries of the Proteſtant Engliſh ſettlements.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] The nature of the climate, ſeverely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, ſhews what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarſe linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a ſort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was poſſeſſed by the French, the Indians ſupplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traverſed the vaſt lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible induſtry and patience, carrying their goods into the remoteſt parts of America, and amongſt nations entirely unknown to us. Theſe again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpoſe, people from all parts even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and ſometimes laſted three months. On this occaſion, many ſolemnities were obſerved, guards were placed, and the governor aſſiſted, to preſerve order, in ſuch a concourſe, and ſo great a variety of ſavage nations. But ſometimes great diſorders and tumults happened; and the Indians being ſo fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all that they were poſſeſſed of. It is remarkable that many of theſe nations actually paſſed by our ſettlement of Albany in New York, and travelled 250 miles farther to Montreal, though they might have purchaſed the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of theſe ſavages!

Since we became poſſeſſed of Canada, our trade with that country has been computed to employ about 60 ſhips and 1000 ſeamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in ſkins, furs, ginſeng, ſnake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount to 105,500l. Their imports from Great Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the ſame ſum. It is unneceſſary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only ſupplies us with manufactured materials, indiſpenſably neceſſary in many articles of our commerce, but alſo takes in exchange the manufactures of our own country, or the production of our other ſettlements in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies *.

But whatever attention be paid to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be hardly poſſible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural cauſes; I mean the ſeverity of the winter, which is ſo exceſſive from December to April, that the greateſt rivers are frozen over, and the ſnow lies commonly from four to ſix feet deep on the ground, even in thoſe parts of the country which lie three degrees ſouth of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience ariſes from the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montreal, which render it difficult for very large ſhips to penetrate to that emporium of inland commerce; but veſſels from 300 to 400 tons are not prevented by theſe falls from going there annually.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

NOVA SCOTIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 350 Breadth 250	between	43 and 49 North latitude. 60 and 67 Weſt longitude.	57,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Laurence on the North; by the gulf of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic ocean, Eaſt; by the ſame ocean, South; and by Canada and New England, Weſt. In the year 1784, this province was divided into *two governments*: the province and government, now ſtyled NEW BRUNSWICK, is bounded on the weſtward of the river St. Croix, by the ſaid river to its ſource, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the ſouthern boundary of the province of Quebec, to the northward by the ſame boundary as far as the weſtern extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the eaſtward by the ſaid bay to the gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte, to the ſouth by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river St. Croix aforeſaid, to the mouth of the Muſquat River, by the ſaid river to its ſource, and from thence by a due eaſt line acroſs the iſthmus into the Bay Verte,

* The amount of the exports from this province in the year 1786, was £. 343,263. Amount of imports the ſame year was £. 315,116.

to

to join the eaſtern lot above deſcribed, including all iſlands within ſix leagues of the coaſt.

Rivers.] The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Riſgouche and Nipiſiguit run from Weſt to Eaſt, and fall into the bay of St. Laurence. The rivers of St. John, Paſſamaguadi, Penobſcot, and St. Croix, which run from North to South, fall into Fundy Bay, or the ſea a little to the eaſtward of it.

Seas, bays, and capes.] The ſeas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic ocean, Fundy Bay, and the gulf of St. Laurence. The leſſer bays are Chenigto and Green Bay upon the iſthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the ſouth; and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-eaſt; the bay of Chedibucto on the ſouth-eaſt; the bay of the iſlands, the ports of Bart, Chebucto, Proſper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Ryſignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the ſouth; port La Tour, on the ſouth-eaſt; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the ſouth ſide of Fundy Bay, and port Roſeway, now the moſt populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port and Epis, on the Eaſt. Cape Fogeri, and Cape Canceau, on the ſouth-eaſt. Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape La Heve, and Cape Negro, on the ſouth. Cape Sable, and Cape Fourche on the ſouth-weſt.

Lakes.] The lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

Climate.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European conſtitutions. They are wrapt up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intenſely cold. But though the cold in winter and the heat in ſummer are great, they come on gradually, ſo as to prepare the body for enduring both.

Soil and produce.] From ſuch an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, till lately was almoſt a continued foreſt; and agriculture, though attempted by the Engliſh ſettlers, made little progreſs. In moſt parts, the ſoil is thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a ſhrivelled kind like rye, and the graſs intermixed with a cold ſpongy moſs. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninſula to the ſouthward, which do not yield to the beſt land in New England, and by the induſtry and exertions of the loyaliſts from the other provinces, are now cultivated and likely to be fertile and flouriſhing. In general, the ſoil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ſhip-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new ſettlements and bay of Funtly. A great quantity of land hath been cleared, which abounds in timber, and ſhip-loads of good maſts and ſpars have been ſhipped from thence already.

Animals.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all manner of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the cloſe of March, the fiſh begin to ſpawn, when they enter the rivers in ſuch ſhoals, as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the ſturgeon and ſalmon in May. But the moſt valuable appendage of New Scotland is the Cape Sable coaſt, along which is one continued range of cod-fiſhing banks, navigable rivers, harbours, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. } Notwithſtanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that ſome of the firſt European ſettlements were made. The firſt grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his ſecretary ſir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the Engliſh nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the Engliſh, till the peace of Utrecht, and their deſign in acquiring it, does not ſeem to have ſo much ariſen from any proſpect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehenſion that the French, by poſſeſſing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other ſettlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were tranſported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Halifax, from the earl of that name, to whoſe wiſdom and care we owe this ſettlement. The town of Halifax ſtands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiouſly ſituated for the fiſhery, and has a communication with moſt parts of the province, either by land carriage, the ſea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a ſmall ſquadron of ſhips of war lies during the winter, and in ſummer puts to ſea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fiſhery, and to ſee that the articles of the late peace, relative thereto, are duly obſerved by the French. The town has an intrenchment, and is ſtrengthened with forts of timber. The other towns of leſs note are Annapolis Royal, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the bay of Fundy, and, though but a ſmall place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the fineſt harbours in America, capable of containing a thouſand veſſels at anchor, in the utmoſt ſecurity. St. John's is a new ſettlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the bay of Fundy, on the weſt ſide.

Since the concluſion of the war, the emigration of loyaliſts to this province from the United States, hath been very great: by them new towns have been raiſed, as Shelburne, which extends two miles on the water-ſide, and is ſaid to contain already 9000 inhabitants. Of the old ſettlements, the moſt flouriſhing and populous are Halifax, and the townſhips of Windſor, Norton, and Cornwallis, between Halifax and Annapolis. Of the new ſettlements, the moſt important are Shelburne, Parr-town, Digby, and New Edinburgh. Large tracts of land have been lately cultivated, and the province is now likely to advance in population and fertility.

UNITED STATES of AMERICA.

OF the riſe, progreſs, and moſt remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the eſtabliſhment of the United States of America, we have already given an account, in our view of the principal tranſactions in the hiſtory of Great Britain. It was on the 4th of July, 1776, that the congreſs publiſhed a ſolemn

ſolemn declaration, in which they aſſigned their reaſons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's Bay, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jerſey, Pennſylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, they declared, that they then were, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States; and that, as ſuch, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, eſtabliſh commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent ſtates may of right do. They alſo publiſhed articles of confederation, and perpetual union, between the united colonies, in which they aſſumed the title of "the United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendſhip for their common defence, for the maintenance of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themſelves to aſſiſt each other againſt all violence that might threaten all, or any one of them, and to repel, in common, all the attacks that might be levelled againſt all, or any one of them, on account of religion, ſovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatſoever. Each of the colonies reſerved to themſelves alone the excluſive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But for the more convenient management of the general intereſts of the United States, it was determined, that delegates ſhould be annually appointed in ſuch manner as the legiſlature of each ſtate ſhould direct, to meet in congreſs on the firſt Monday in November of every year, with a power reſerved to each ſtate to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to ſend others in their ſtead, for the remainder of the year. No ſtate is to be repreſented in congreſs by leſs than two, nor more than ſeven members; and no perſon is capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of ſix years: nor is any perſon, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, ſhall receive any ſalary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining queſtions in the United States, in congreſs aſſembled, each ſtate is to have one vote. Every ſtate is to abide by the determinations of the United States in congreſs aſſembled, on all queſtions which are ſubmitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the confederation are to be inviolably obſerved by every ſtate, and the union is to be perpetual; nor is any alteration, at any time hereafter, to be made in any of them, unleſs ſuch alteration be agreed to in a congreſs of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legiſlatures of every ſtate. It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the thirteen United Colonies of America, as independent ſtates. Holland acknowledged them as ſuch April 19, 1782; and on the 30th of November, 1782, proviſional articles were ſigned at Paris, by the Britiſh and American commiſſioners, in which his Britannic majeſty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be Free, Sovereign, and Independent States; and theſe articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as ſuch February 5, 1783; Denmark the 25th of February; Spain in March, and Ruſſia in July 1783.

The

The following calculations were made from actual meaſurement of the beſt maps by THOMAS HUTCHINS, Eſq. *Geographer to the United States.*

The territory of the United States (as before mentioned) contains by computation a million of ſquare miles, in which are - - - - - - - - -	640,000,000 of acres.
Deduct for water - - - - -	51,000,000
Acres of land in the United States - - -	589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the weſt temporary line of Pennſylvania on the eaſt, the boundary line between Britain and the United States extending from the river St. Croix to the north-weſt extremity of the Lake of the Woods on the north, the river Miſſiſippi to the mouth of the Ohio on the weſt, and the river Ohio on the ſouth, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennſylvania, contains by computation about four hundred and eleven thouſand ſquare miles in which are

	263,040,000 of acres.
Deduct for water - - - - - -	43,040,000
To be diſpoſed of by order of congreſs -	220,000,000

The whole of this immenſe extent of unappropriated weſtern territory, containing, as above ſtated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by the ceſſion of ſome of the original thirteen ſtates, and by the treaty of peace transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for ſinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new ſtates, with republican conſtitutions ſimilar to the old ſtates near the Atlantic ocean.

Eſtimate of the number of acres of water, north and weſtward of the river Ohio, within the territory of the United States.

	Acres.
In Lake Superior - - - -	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods - - - -	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c. - - - -	165,200
Red Lake - - - -	551,000
Lake Michigan - - - -	10,368,000
Bay Puan - - - -	1,216,000
Lake Huron - - - - -	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair - - - - -	89,500
Lake Erie, weſtern part - - -	2,252,800
Sundry ſmall lakes and rivers - - -	301,000
	43,040,000

Eſtimate

Eſtimate of the number of acres of water within the Thirteen United States.

In Lake Erie, weſtward of the line extended from the north-weſt corner of Pennſylvania, due north to the boundary between the Britiſh territory and the United States - - -	410,000	
In Lake Ontario - - -	2,390,000	
Lake Champlain - - -	500,000	
Cheſapeak Bay - - -	1,700,000	
Albemarle Bay - - -	330,000	
Delaware Bay - - -	630,000	
All the rivers within the Thirteen States, including the Ohio, - -	2,000,000	
		7,960,000
Total - - -		51,000,000

NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT,

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 350 Breadth 140	between	41 and 46 north latitude. 67 and 74 weſt longitude.	87,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the North by Canada; on the Eaſt by Nova Scotia and the Atlantic Ocean; on the South by the Atlantic and Long-Iſland Sound; and on the Weſt by New York *.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The northern diviſion, or government	New Hampſhire —	Portſmouth.
The middle diviſion	Maſſachuſett's Colony	BOSTON, N. Lat. 42 25. W. Lon. 70-37.
The ſouth diviſion	Rhode Iſland, &c.	Newport.
The weſt diviſion	Connecticut —	New London. Hertford.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, &c.] New England is a high, hilly, and, in ſome parts, a mountainous country. The mountains are comparatively ſmall, running nearly north and ſouth, in ridges parallel to each other. Between theſe ridges flow the great rivers in majeſtic

* Morſe's American Geography.

meanders

meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger ſtreams which proceed from the mountains on each ſide. To a ſpectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a ſtate of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They ſeem an ocean of woods, ſwelled and depreſſed in its ſurface, like that of the great ocean itſelf.

There are four principal ranges of mountains, paſſing nearly from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, through New England. They conſiſt of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many ſpurs, deviating from the courſe of the general range; which ſpurs are again broken into irregular, hilly land. The main ridges terminate, ſometimes in high bluff heads, near the ſea coaſt; and ſometimes by a gradual deſcent in the interior part of the country.—Theſe ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and ſprings of water, that give riſe to numberleſs ſtreams of various ſizes. No country on the globe is better watered than New England *

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piſcataway; 6. Saco; 7. Caſco; 8. Kennebeque; and 9. Penobſcot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The moſt remarkable bays and harbours are thoſe formed by Plymouth, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations; Monument Bay, Weſt Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape Cod; Boſton Harbour; Piſcataway, and Caſco Bay.

The chief capes are, Capes Cod, Marble Head, Cape Anne, Cape Netic, Cape Porpus, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though ſituated almoſt ten degrees nearer the ſun than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more ſevere than with us. The ſummer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the ſame latitude. The clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country ſo healthy, that it is reported to agree better with Britiſh conſtitutions than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boiſterous in the winter ſeaſon, and naturaliſts aſcribe the early approach, and the length, and ſeverity of the winter, to the large freſh water lakes lying to the north weſt of New England, which being frozen over ſeveral months, occaſion thoſe piercing winds, which prove ſo fatal to mariners on this coaſt.

The ſun riſes at Boſton, on the longeſt day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and ſets at 34 minutes after ſeven in the evening; and on the ſhorteſt day, it riſes at 35 minutes after ſeven in the morning, and ſets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longeſt day is about fifteen hours, and the ſhorteſt about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already obſerved, that the lands lying on the eaſtern ſhore of America are low, and in ſome parts ſwampy, but farther back they riſe into hills. In New England, towards the north-eaſt, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The ſoil here is various, but beſt as you approach the ſouthward. Round Maſſachuſett's bay the ſoil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the firſt planters found the graſs above a yard high. The uplands are leſs fruitful, being for the moſt part a mixture of ſand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and paſture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much ſucceſs; the wheat is ſubject to be blaſted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn

* Morſe's American Geography.

corn flouriſhes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower ſort of people. They likewiſe malt and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cyder and ſpruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the ſpruce fir, with the addition of a ſmall quantity of molaſſes. They likewiſe raiſe in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of old England come to a great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a ſingle apple-tree has produced ſeven barrels of cyder in one ſeaſon.

But New England is chiefly diſtinguiſhed for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, aſh, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cyprus, beech, walnut, cheſnut hazel, ſaſſafras, ſumach, and other woods uſed in dying or tanning leather, carpenter's work, and ſhip building. The oaks here are ſaid to be inferior to thoſe of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and formerly furniſhed the royal navy of England with maſts and yards. They draw from their trees conſiderable quantities of pitch, tar, reſin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the ſoil produces hemp and flax. A ſhip may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their foreſts, and indeed, ſhip-building forms a conſiderable branch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich iron mines of a moſt excellent kind and temper, have been diſcovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furniſh many articles of New-England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horſes of New England are hardy, mettleſome, and ſerviceable, but ſmaller than ours, though larger than the Welch. They have few ſheep; and the wool, though of a ſtaple ſufficiently long, is not nearly ſo fine as that of England. Here are alſo elks, deers, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, beavers, otters, monkies, minks, martens, raccoons, ſabbs, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the moſt ſingular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moſe or mooſe deer, of which there are two ſorts; the common light grey mooſe which reſembles the ordinary deer; theſe herd ſometimes thirty together: and the larger black mooſe, whoſe body is about the ſize of a bull; his neck reſembles a ſtag's, and his fleſh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to to the tip, and have ſhoots or branches to each horn, which generally ſpread about ſix feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way: and theſe prodigious horns are ſhed every year. This animal does not ſpring or riſe in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been ſeen to ſtep over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a courſe of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to a bay; but when chaſed, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, as turkeys, geeſe, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, ſwans, heathcocks, herons, ſtorks, blackbirds, all ſorts of barn-door fowl, vaſt flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain ſeaſons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattle-ſnakes, frogs, and toads, which ſwarm in the uncleared parts of theſe countries, where, with the owls, they make a moſt hideous noiſe in the ſummer evenings.

The ſeas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fiſh, and even whales of ſeveral kinds, ſuch as the whalebone whale, the ſpermaceti whale, which yields ambergriſe, the fin-backed whale, the ſcrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and ſend beſides ſome ſhips every year to fiſh for whales in Greenland, and as far as Falkland Iſlands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long, with ſtrong teeth and jaws, perſecutes the whale in theſe ſeas; but, afraid of his monſtrous ſtrength, they ſeldom attack a full-grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobſcot, there is a mackarel fiſhery; they likewiſe fiſh for cod in winter, which they dry in the froſt.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } There is not one of the colonies which can be compared in the abundance of people, the number of conſiderable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The moſt populous and flouriſhing parts of the mother-country hardly make a better appearance than the cultivated parts of this province, which reach about 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of conſiderable landed eſtates; but the great body of the people are land-holders, and cultivators of the ſoil. The former attaches them to their country; the latter, by making them ſtrong and healthy, enables them to defend it *. Theſe freeholds generally paſs to their children in the way of gavelkind; which keeps them from being hardly ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary ſort ſo independent, or poſſeſs more of the conveniences of life; they are uſed from their infancy to the exerciſe of arms; and before the conteſt with the mother-country, they had a militia, which was by no means contemptible; but their military ſtrength is now much more conſiderable.

The inhabitants of New England are almoſt univerſally of Engliſh deſcent; and it is owing to this circumſtance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the Engliſh language has been preſerved among them ſo free of corruption. It is true, that from lazineſs, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accuſtomed themſelves to uſe ſome peculiar phraſes, and to pronounce certain words in a flat, drawling manner. Hence foreigners pretend they know a New Englandman from his manner of ſpeaking. But the ſame may be ſaid with regard to a Pennſylvanian, a Virginian, or a Carolinian; for all have ſome phraſes and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themſelves, which diſtinguiſh them from their neighbours.

The New Englanders are generally tall, ſtout, and well built. They glory, and perhaps with juſtice, in poſſeſſing that ſpirit of freedom, which induced their anceſtors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardſhips of ſettling a wilderneſs. Their education, laws, and ſituation, ſerve to inſpire them with high notions of liberty.—In New England, learning is more generally diffuſed among all ranks of people, than in any other part of the globe; ariſing from the excellent eſtabliſhment of ſchools in every townſhip. A perſon of mature age, who cannot both read and write is rarely to be found. By means of this general eſtabliſhment of ſchools, the extenſive circulation of newſpapers (of which not leſs than 30,000 are printed every week in New Eng-

* Morſe's American Geography.

land,

land, and ſent to almoſt every town and village in the country), and the conſequent ſpread of learning, every townſhip, throughout this country, is furniſhed with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgement and diſcretion *.

New England, ſhould any great and ſudden emergency require it, could furniſh an army of 164,600 men †. The inhabitants of Maſſachuſett's Bay are eſtimated at 350,000.

Connecticut is ſaid, in proportion to its extent, to exceed every other colony of Britiſh America, as well in the abundance of people as cultivation of ſoil. Its inhabitants are about 206,000. The men, in general, throughout the province, are robuſt, ſtout, and tall. The greateſt care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept ſtraight by means of a board; a practice learnt of the Indian women, who abhor all crooked people; ſo that deformity is here a rarity. The women are fair, handſome, and genteel, and modeſt and reſerved in their manners and behaviour. They are not permitted to read plays, nor can they converſe about whiſt, quadrille, or operas; but it is ſaid that they will talk freely upon the ſubjects of hiſtory, geography, and other literary topics. The inhabitants of Connecticut are extremely hoſpitable to ſtrangers.

New Hampſhire, of late years hath greatly increaſed in population, ſo that in 1783 the number of inhabitants was reckoned to amount to 82,200; and of Rhode Iſland province to 50,400.

Religion.] Calviniſm, from the principles of the firſt ſettlers, has been very prevalent in New England; many of the inhabitants alſo formerly obſerved the ſabbath with a kind of Jewiſh rigour; but this hath of late been much diminiſhed. There is at preſent no eſtabliſhed religion in New England; but every ſect of Chriſtians is allowed the free exerciſe of their religion, and is equally under the protection of law ‡. They annually celebrate faſts and thankſgivings. In the ſpring, the ſeveral governors iſſue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiouſly obſerved in faſting, humiliation and prayer, throughout their reſpective ſtates, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harveſt, that gladſome æra of the huſbandman's life, a day of public thankſgiving is appointed, enumerating the public bleſſings received in the courſe of the year. This pious cuſtom originates with their venerable anceſtors, the firſt ſettlers. A cuſtom ſo rational, and ſo well calculated to cheriſh in the minds of the people a ſenſe of their dependence on the Great Benefactor of the world for all their bleſſings, it is hoped will ever be ſacredly preſerved §. The Connecticut province hath lately provided a biſhop for the epiſcopalians among them, by ſending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjuring biſhops of the epiſcopal church in that kingdom.

Chief Towns.] Boſton, the capital of New England, ſtands on a peninſula at the bottom of Maſſachuſett's Bay, about nine miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this bay are ſeveral rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen ſmall iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited. There is but one ſafe channel to approach the harbour, and that ſo narrow, that two ſhips can ſcarcely ſail through abreaſt; but within the harbour there is room for

* Morſe's American Geography. † Morſe.

‡ By a late account there are 400 Independent and Preſbyterian churches in this province, 84 Baptiſt, and 31 of other denominations.

§ Morſe's American Geography.

500 ſail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the iſlands of the bay, ſtands Fort William, the moſt regular fortreſs in all the plantations. This caſtle is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, ſo that it is ſcarcely poſſible for an enemy to paſs the caſtle. To prevent ſurpriſe, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues diſtance, from whence they make ſignals to the caſtle, when any ſhips come near it. There is alſo a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000 feet in length; along which, on the north ſide, extends a row of warehouſes for the merchants, and to this pier ſhips of the greateſt burthen may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greateſt part of the town lies round the harbour, in the ſhape of a half moon; the country beyond it riſing gradually, and affording a delightful proſpect from the ſea. The head of the pier joins the principal ſtreet of the town, which is, like moſt of the others, ſpacious and well built. The trade of Boſton was ſo conſiderable in the year 1768, that 1200 ſail entered or cleared at the cuſtom-houſe there.

Cambridge, in the ſame province, four miles from Boſton, has an univerſity, containing two ſpacious colleges, called by the names of Havard College, and Stoughton Hall, with a well-furniſhed library. It conſiſts of a preſident, five fellows, a treaſurer, three profeſſors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was firſt granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony ſeal.

The other towns in New England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiouſly ſituated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] New England has no one ſtaple commodity. The ocean and the foreſts afford the two principal articles of export; and therefore the trade is great, as it ſupplies a large quantity of goods from within itſelf; but it is yet greater, as the people in this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and to the Weſt Indies, and even for ſome parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields are principally pig and bar iron, which were imported to Great Britain duty free; alſo maſts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contracted largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl aſhes, ſtaves, lumber, boards; all ſorts of proviſions, which they ſent to the French and Dutch ſugar iſlands, and formerly to Barbadoes, and the other Britiſh iſles, as grain, biſcuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, apples, cyder, onions, mackarel, and cod-fiſh dried. They likewiſe ſent thither cattle, horſes, planks, hoops, ſhingles, pipe-ſtaves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-ſkins, and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very conſiderable. They have a moſt valuable fiſhery upon their coaſts in mackarel and cod, which employs vaſt numbers of their people; with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and the Weſt Indies, to a conſiderable amount. Their whale-fiſhery has been already mentioned. The arts moſt neceſſary to ſubſiſtence, are thoſe which the inhabitants of New England have been at the greateſt pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarſe linen and woollen cloth for their own uſe; hats are made here, which find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar-baking, diſtilling, paper-making, and ſalt-works, are upon the improving hand. The buſineſs of ſhip-building is one of the moſt conſiderable, which Boſton, Newbury, or the other ſea-port towns in New England carry on. Ships are ſometimes built here upon commiſſion; but frequently the merchants of New England have them conſtructed upon their own ac-

account: and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval ſtores, fiſh, and fiſh-oil principally, they ſend them upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where, having diſpoſed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until ſuch time as they can ſell the veſſel herſelf to advantage, which they ſeldom fail to do in a reaſonable time.

It was computed, that, before the late unhappy differences aroſe, the amount of Engliſh manufactures, and India goods ſent into this colony from Great Britain, was not leſs, at an average of three years, than 395,000l. Our imports from the ſame were calculated at 370,500l.

History and government.] New England is at preſent divided into the four provinces of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's, Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, King James I. had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to ſend colonies into thoſe parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-eaſt coaſt of America was ſome time called. No ſettlements, however, were made in New England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themſelves with ſending out a ſhip or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fiſh upon their coaſt. This continued to be the only ſort of correſpondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620. By this time the religious diſſenſions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbiſhop Laud perſecuted all ſorts of non-conformiſts with an unrelenting ſeverity. Thoſe men, on the other hand, were ready to ſubmit to all the rigour of perſecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they conſidered as abuſes of the moſt dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, in order to obtain liberty of conſcience. America opened an extenſive field. There they might tranſport themſelves, and eſtabliſh whatever ſort of religious policy they were inclined to. With this view, having purchaſed the territory, which was within the juriſdiction of the Plymouth Company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of ſettling it in whatever way they had a mind, 150 perſons embarked for New England, and built a city, which becauſe they had ſailed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the climate, the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, and the diſeaſes to which, after a long ſea voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were expoſed; notwithſtanding the want of all ſorts of conveniencies, and even of many of the neceſſaries of life, thoſe who had conſtitutions fit to endure ſuch hardſhips, not diſpirited or broken by the death of their companions, and ſupported by the vigour then peculiar to Engliſhmen, and the ſatisfaction of finding themſelves beyond the reach of the ſpiritual arm, ſet themſelves to cultivate this country, and to take the beſt ſteps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their example, and finding themſelves, for the ſame reaſons, uneaſy at home, paſſed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the cloſe of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles Town, and Boſton, which laſt has ſince become the capital of New England. But as neceſſity is the natural ſource of that active and frugal induſtry, which produces every thing great among mankind, ſo an uninterrupted flow of proſperity and ſucceſs occaſions thoſe diſſenſions, which are the bane of human affairs, and often ſubvert the beſt founded eſtabliſhments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from perſecution, became in a ſhort time ſtrongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to in-

introduce an uniformity in religion, among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in that age ſuperior to many prejudices; they had not that open and generous way of thinking, which at preſent diſtinguiſhes the natives of Great Britain: and the doctrine of univerſal toleration, which, to the honour of the firſt ſettlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigotted Calviniſts; and though they had felt the weight of perſecution themſelves, they had no charity for thoſe who profeſſed ſentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the ſame ſociety, without maintaining the ſame religious opinions; and wherever theſe were at variance, the members of different ſects kept at a diſtance from each other, and eſtabliſhed ſeparate governments. Hence ſeveral ſlips, torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, planted themſelves in a new ſoil, and ſpread over the country. Such was that of New Hampſhire, which continues to this day a ſeparate juriſdiction; ſuch too was that of Rhode Iſland, whoſe inhabitants were driven out from the Maſſachuſett colony (for that is the name by which the government firſt erected in New England was diſtinguiſhed), for ſupporting the freedom of religious ſentiments, and maintaining that the civil magiſtrate had no right over the ſpeculative opinions of mankind. Theſe liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and ſuch is the connection between juſtneſs of ſentiment and external proſperity, that the government of Rhode Iſland, though ſmall, became extremely populous and flouriſhing. Another colony, driven out by the ſame perſecuting ſpirit, ſettled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of ſuch as were diſſatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main reſource of all diſcontented and enterpriſing ſpirits; and ſuch were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637 a proclamation was publiſhed, prohibiting any perſon from ſailing thither, without an expreſs licence from the government. For want of this licenſe, it is ſaid, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of that party, were detained from going into New England, after being on ſhip-board for that purpoſe.

Theſe four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at firſt, and ſtill continue, under ſeparate juriſdictions. They were all of them by their charters originally free, and in a great meaſure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magiſtrates, the governor, the council, the aſſembly, and the power of making ſuch laws as they thought proper, without ſending them to Great Britain for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be oppoſite to thoſe of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II. when he and his miniſters wanted to deſtroy all the charters and liberties, the Maſſachuſett's colony was accuſed of violating their charter, in like manner as the city of London, and by a judgment in the King's Bench of England was deprived of it. From that time to the Revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extenſive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was veſted in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entruſted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council; the

governor

governor had a negative on the choice of counſellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reaſon for what he did in this particular, or reſtrained to any number; authentic copies of the ſeveral acts paſſed by this colony, as well as others, were to be tranſmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were preſented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magiſtrates, or acts of government whatſoever, were valid without the governor's conſent in writing; and appeals for ſums above 300l. were admitted to the king and council. Notwithſtanding theſe reſtraints, the people had ſtill a great ſhare of power in this colony; for they not only choſe the aſſembly, but this aſſembly, with the governor's concurrence, choſe the council, reſembling our houſe of lords; and the governor depended upon the aſſembly for his annual ſupport.

But the government of New England has been entirely changed, in conſequence of the revolt of the colonies from the authority of Great Britain; of the origin and progreſs of which an account hath been given in another place. It was on the 25th of July 1776, that, by an order from the council at Boſton, the declaration of the American Congreſs, abſolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the ſtate-houſe in that town.

A conſtitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Maſſachuſett's, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and eſtabliſhed by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October, 1780. In the preamble to this it was declared, that the end of the inſtitution, maintenance, and adminiſtration of government, is to ſecure the exiſtence of the body politic; to protect it, and to furniſh the individuals who compoſe it, with the power of enjoying, in ſafety and tranquillity their natural rights, and the bleſſings of life; and that whenever theſe great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take meaſures neceſſary for their proſperity and happineſs. They expreſſed their gratitude to the great legiſlator of the univerſe, for having afforded them, in the courſe of his providence, an opportunity, deliberately and peaceably, without fraud, violence, or ſurpriſe, of entering into an original, explicit, and ſolemn compact with each other; and of forming a new conſtitution of civil government for themſelves and their poſterity. They declared that it was the right, as well as the duty, of all men in ſociety, publicly, and at ſtated ſeaſons, to worſhip the Supreme Being; and that no ſubject ſhould be hurt, moleſted, or reſtrained, in his perſon, liberty, or eſtate, for worſhipping God in the manner and ſeaſon moſt agreeable to the dictates of his own conſcience; or for his religious profeſſion or ſentiments: provided he did not diſturb the public peace, or obſtruct others in their religious worſhip.

It was alſo enacted, that the ſeveral towns, pariſhes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious ſocieties, ſhould, at all times, have the excluſive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their ſupport and maintenance. That all monies paid by the ſubject to the ſupport of public worſhip, and of the public teachers, ſhould, if he required it, be uniformly applied to the ſupport of the public teacher or teachers of his own religious ſect or denomination, provided there were any on whoſe inſtructions he attended; otherwiſe it might be paid towards the ſupport of the teacher or teachers of the pariſh or precinct in which the ſaid monies ſhould

be

be raiſed. That every denomination of Chriſtians, demeaning themſelves peaceably, and as good ſubjects of the commonwealth, ſhould be equally under the protection of the law: and that no ſubordination of any ſect or denomination to another ſhould ever be eſtabliſhed by law.

It was likewiſe declared, that as all power reſided originally in the people, and was derived from them, the ſeveral magiſtrates and officers of government, veſted with authority, whether legiſlative, executive or judicial, are their ſubſtitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them. That no ſubject ſhould be arreſted, impriſoned, deſpoiled, or deprived of his property, immunities, or privileges, put out of the protection of the law, exiled, or deprived of his life, liberty, or eſtate, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land. That the legiſlature ſhould not make any law that ſhould ſubject any perſon to a capital or infamous puniſhment, excepting for the government of the army or navy, without trial by jury. That the liberty of the preſs is eſſential to the ſecurity of freedom in a ſtate; and that it ought not, therefore, to be reſtrained in that commonwealth. That the people have a right to keep, and bear arms, for the common defence; but that as in times of peace armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the conſent of the legiſlature; and that the military power ſhould always be held in an exact ſubordination to the civil authority, and be governed by it.

It was likewiſe enacted, that the department of legiſlation ſhould be formed by two branches, a ſenate, and a houſe of repreſentatives; each of which ſhould have a negative on the other. That the ſenators, conſiſting of forty, and the members of the houſe of repreſentatives, ſhould be elected annually; and that every male perſon, being twenty-one years of age, or upwards, who had reſided in any particular town in the commonwealth, for the ſpace of one year, and having a freehold eſtate, within the ſaid town, of the annual income of three pounds, or any eſtate of the value of ſixty pounds, ſhould have a right to vote for ſenators and repreſentatives of the diſtrict of which he was an inhabitant. And that there ſhould be a ſupreme executive magiſtrate, who ſhould be ſtyled, the governor of the commonwealth of Maſſachuſet's, and alſo a lieutenant-governor, both of whom ſhould be choſen annually by the whole body of electors in the commonwealth, and aſſiſted by nine counſellors, choſen by ballot, out of the ſenate. The ſecretary, treaſurer, receiver-general, notaries public, and naval officers, to be choſen annually by the ſenators and repreſentatives. The judiciary power to be ſeptennial, and the delegates to congreſs ſhall be annually elected by and out of the ſenate and houſe of repreſentatives, or general court. The governor has a negative on bills ſent to him for aſſent from the general court, but has no control in their choice of officers.

The ſtate of Rhode Iſland admits their original charter as the rule of their government. New Hampſhire and Connecticut have not yet finally eſtabliſhed their forms of government, but have chiefly adopted that of Maſſachuſet's bay.

It is worthy of notice, that ſince the commencement of the war between Great Britain and the colonies, and even while that war was carried on with great animoſity on both ſides, an act was paſſed, on the 4th of May, 1780, by the council and houſe of repreſentatives of Maſſachuſet's Bay, for incorporating and eſtabliſhing a ſociety for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and ſciences. It is entitled, "The American Academy of Arts and Sciences;" the firſt members were named in the act; and they were never

never to be more than two hundred, nor less than forty. It was declared in the act, that the end and design of the institution of the said academy, was to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country; and to determine the uses to which its various natural productions might be applied; to promote and encourage medicinal discoveries; mathematical disquisitions; philosophical inquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological, and geographical observations; and improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce; and in short, to cultivate every art and science, which might tend to advance the interest, honour, dignity, and happiness, of a free, independent, and virtuous people.

NEW YORK.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 350 Breadth 300	between	40 and 45 North latitude. 72 and 76 West longitude.		24,000.

Boundaries.] NEW YORK is bounded on the South and South-west by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; on the East and North-east by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the North-west by Canada.

This province, including the island of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, is divided into the sixteen following counties:

Counties.	Chief Towns.	
New York	New York.	40-40 N. lat. 74-00 W. lon.
Albany	Albany	
Ulster	Kingston	
Dutchess	Poughkeepsie	
Orange	Orange	
West Chester	Bedford, White plains	
King's	Flatbush, Brooklyn	
Queen's	Jamaica	
Suffolk	East Hampton, Huntingdon	
Richmond	Richmond	
* Columbia	Hudson, Kinderhook	
Washington	Salem	
* Clinton	Platsburg	

* These two counties were not constituted in 1786, when the above enumeration was made, and were included in some of the other counties. See Morse.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Montgomery — —	Johnſtown
* Cumberland — —	None
* Glouceſter — —	None

RIVERS.] The principal of theſe are Hudſon's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well ſtored with great variety of fiſh; on this the cities of New York and Albany are ſituated.

The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is 600 miles from New York. It is navigable for ſloops of 80 tons to Albany, and for ſhips to Hudſon. About 60 miles above New York the water becomes freſh. The river is ſtored with a variety of fiſh, which renders a ſummer paſſage to Albany delightful and amuſing to thoſe who are fond of angling †. On the Mohawk is a large cataract called the Cohoes, the water of which is ſaid to fall 30 feet perpendicular; but including the deſcent above, the fall is as much as 60 or 70 feet, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

CAPES.] Theſe are Cape May on the Eaſt entrance of Delaware river; Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point, at the Eaſt end of Long Iſland.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This province, lying to the South of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all conſtitutions. The face of the country, reſembling that of the other Britiſh American colonies, is low, flat, and marſhy towards the ſea. As you recede from the coaſt, the eye is entertained with the gradual ſwelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The ſoil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the ſame with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

CITIES, POPULATION, AND COMMERCE.] The city of New York ſtands on the ſouth weſt end of York-iſland, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well ſituated for trade, at the mouth of Hudſon's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns towards Canada, and the lakes. This city is in length above a mile, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. This city and harbour are defended by a fort and battery; in the fort is a ſpacious manſion-houſe for the uſe of the governor. Many of the houſes are very elegant; and the city though irregularly built, affords a fine proſpect. A fourth part of the city was burnt down by ſome incendiaries in 1776, on the king's troops taking it. A great part of the inhabitants are deſcended from the Dutch families, who remained here after the ſurrender of the New Netherlands to the Engliſh, and the whole province in 1786 was calculated at 238,897, of which 18,889 were blacks. The population for every ſquare mile, including the whole ſtate is only five, ſo that this ſtate is but a ninth part as populous as Connecticut. But it is to be conſidered that Connecticut has no waſte lands, and not half the State of New York is ſettled ‡.

The city of Albany contains about 4000 inhabitants, collected from almoſt all parts of the Northern world. As great a variety of languages are ſpoken

* Theſe counties are claimed by New York, but are within the limits and under the juriſdictions of Vermont.

† Morſe. ‡ Morſe's American Geography.

in

in Albany, as in any town in the United States. Adventurers in purſuit of wealth are led here by the advantages for trade which this place affords. Situated on one of the fineſt rivers in the world, at the head of ſloop navigation, ſurrounded with a rich and extenſive back country, and the ſtore-houſe of the trade to and from Canada, and the Lakes, it muſt flouriſh, and the inhabitants cannot but grow rich.

The city of Hudſon however is their great rival, and has had the moſt rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore in Maryland. It is 130 miles north of New York. It was not begun till the autumn of 1783 *.

The ſituation of New York, with reſpect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the ſtates. It has at all ſeaſons of the year a ſhort and eaſy acceſs to the ocean. It commands the trade of a great proportion of the beſt ſettled and beſt cultivated parts of the United States. It has been ſuppoſed by gentlemen well informed, that more wealth is conveyed down Connecticut river, and through the Sound to New York, than down the Hudſon. This is not improbable, as the banks of the Connecticut are more fertile and much thicker, and more extenſively ſettled than the banks of the Hudſon †. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the ſame with thoſe which the New Englanders uſe; and they have a ſhare in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spaniſh and French plantations. They uſed to take almoſt the ſame ſort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boſton. At an average of three years, their exports were ſaid to amount to 526,000l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000l.

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.] New York is at leaſt half a century behind her neighbours in New England, New Jerſey and Pennſylvania, in point of improvement in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reaſons for this deficiency, that of want of enterprize in the inhabitants is not the leaſt. Indeed their local advantages have been ſuch that they have grown rich without enterprize. Beſides lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of courſe large, and it requires much leſs ingenuity to raiſe 1000 buſhels of wheat upon 60 acres of land, than to raiſe the ſame quantity upon 30 acres. So long, therefore, as the farmer in New York can have 60 acres of land to raiſe 1000 buſhels of wheat, he will never trouble himſelf to find out how he can raiſe the ſame quantity upon half the land. It is population alone that ſtamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family upon a ſmall farm, his invention is exerciſed to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reaſon why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers produce to the farmer twice as much clear profit as lands in equal quantity, and of the ſame quality upon the Hudſon. If the preceding obſervations be juſt, improvements will keep pace with population and the increaſing value of lands.

Improvements in manufactures never precede, but invariably follow improvements in agriculture. This obſervation applies more particularly to the country. The city of New York contains a great number of people who are employed in the various branches of manufactures, viz. wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf-ſugar, bread, beer, ſhoes and boots, ſadlery, cabinet work, cutlery,

* Morſe. † Morſe.

hats, clocks, watches, mathematical and muſical inſtruments, ſhips, and every thing neceſſary for their equipment; a glaſs work and ſeveral iron works have been eſtabliſhed *.

RELIGION, AND LEARNING.] It is ordained, by the late conſtitution of New York, that the free exerciſe and enjoyment of religious profeſſion and worſhip, without diſcrimination or preference, ſhall for ever be allowed, within that ſtate, to all mankind.

A college was erected in New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but as the aſſembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reaſon never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public ſeminary in ſo populous a city.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] The Swedes and Dutch were the firſt Europeans who formed ſettlements on this part of the American coaſt. The tract claimed by the two nations extended from the 38th to the 41ſt degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II. who obtained it from them by right of conqueſt in 1664; and it was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our poſſeſſion before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James, duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's acceſſion to the throne, the right to New York became veſted in the crown, and it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people, once in ſeven years, elected their repreſentatives to ſerve in general aſſemblies. Theſe three branches of the legiſlature (anſwering to thoſe of Great Britain) had power to make any laws not repugnant to thoſe of England; but, in order to their being valid, the royal aſſent to them was firſt to be obtained.

By the conſtitution of the ſtate of New York, eſtabliſhed in 1777, the ſupreme legiſlative power was veſted into two ſeparate and diſtinct bodies of men; the one to be called, "The Aſſembly of the State of New York," to conſiſt of ſeventy members, annually choſen by ballot; and the other "The Senate of the State of New York." to conſiſt of twenty-four for four years, who together are to form the legiſlature, and to meet once, at leaſt, in every year, for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſupreme executive power is to be veſted in a governor, who is to continue in office three years, aſſiſted by four counſellors, choſen by and from the ſenate. Every male inhabitant, of full age, who ſhall poſſeſs a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty ſhillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the ſtate for ſix months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the aſſembly; but thoſe who vote for the governor, and the members of the ſenate, are to be poſſeſſed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congreſs, the judges, &c. are to be choſen by ballot of the ſenate and aſſembly.

* Morſe's American Geography.

NEW

NEW JERSEY.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 160 Breadth 60	between	39 and 43 north latitude. 74 and 76 weſt longitude.	10,000.

Boundaries.] NEW JERSEY is bounded on the Weſt and South-weſt, by Delaware river and Bay; on the South-eaſt and Eaſt, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound which ſeparates Staten Iſland from the continent, and Hudſon's river, on the North.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Eaſt Diviſion contains	Middleſex	Perth Amboy and New Brunſwick
	Monmouth	Shrewſbury and Freehold
	Eſſex	Elizabeth and Newark
	Somerſet	Boundbrook
	Bergen	Hakkenſak
Weſt Diviſion contains	Burlington	Burlington, 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. lon.
	Glouceſter	Woodbury, and Glouceſter
	Salem	Salem
	Cumberland	Hopewell, Bridgetown
	Cape May	None
	Hunterdon	Trenton
	Morris	Morriſtown
	Suſſex	Newton

Rivers.] Theſe are the Delaware, Raritan, and Paſſaick, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is ſaid to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

Climate, soil, and produce.] The climate is much the ſame with that of New York; the ſoil is various, at leaſt one-fourth part of the province is barren, ſandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

History, government, population, chief towns, and commerce.] New Jerſey is part of that vaſt tract of land, which we have obſerved was given by king Charles II. to his brother, James duke of York; he ſold it, for a valuable conſideration, to Lord Berkeley and Sir George

George Carteret (from which it received its preſent name, becauſe Sir George had eſtates in the iſland of Jerſey) and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a ſurrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which ſhe accepted; after which it became a royal government. By an account publiſhed in 1765, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 100,000; but in 1784, a cenſus of the inhabitants was made by order of the legiſlature, when they amounted to 140,435, of which 10,501 were blacks. Of theſe blacks, 1939 only were ſlaves; ſo that the proportion of ſlaves to the whole of the inhabitants in the ſtate, is as one to ſeventy-ſix. The population for every ſquare mile is eighteen *.

Perth-Amboy and Burlington were the ſeats of government; the governor generally reſided in the latter, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the fine river Delaware, within twenty miles of Philadelphia. Both have been lately made free ports for twenty-five years. The former is as good a port as moſt on the continent; and the harbour is ſafe, and capacious enough to contain many large ſhips.—In Bergen county is a very valuable copper mine.

By the new charter of rights eſtabliſhed by the provincial congreſs, July 2, 1776, the government of New York is veſted in a governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly. The members of the legiſlative council are to be freeholders, and worth at leaſt one thouſand pounds real and perſonal eſtate; and the members of the general aſſembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for repreſentatives in council and aſſembly, and for all other public officers. The election of the governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly, are to be annual; the governor, and lieutenant-governor to be choſen out of and by the aſſembly and council. The judges of the ſupreme court are choſen for ſeven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

RELIGION AND LEARNING.] According to the preſent conſtitution of this province, all perſons are allowed to worſhip God in the manner that is moſt agreeable to their own conſciences; nor is any perſon obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpoſe of building or repairing any other church or churches, for the maintenance of any miniſter or miniſtry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himſelf to perform. There is to be no eſtabliſhment of any one religious ſect in this province, in preference to another; and no proteſtant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

A college was eſtabliſhed at the town of Princeton, in this province, by governor Belcher, in 1746, and has a power of conferring the ſame degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There were generally, before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, between 80 and 100 ſtudents here, who came from all parts of the continent, ſome even from the extremities of it.

* Morſe's American Geography.

Pen-

PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq Miles.
Length 300 Breadth 240	between	74 and 81 west longitude. 39 and 44 north latitude.		15,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerseys, on the East; and by Maryland, on the South and West.

The state of PENNSYLVANIA contains the following counties:

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Philadelphia	PHILADELPHIA, N. lat. 40. W. long. 75. 20.
Chester	Chester
Bucks	Newton
Berks	Reading
Northampton	Easton
Lancaster	Lancaster
York	York
Cumberland	Carlisle
Montgomery	Norriston
Dauphin	Louisburg
Luzerne	Wilksborough
Northumberland	Sunbury
Franklin	Chamberstown
Huntingdon	Huntingdon
Westmoreland	Greensburg
Fayette	Union
Washington	Washington
Allegany	Pittsburg

Bedford, a county westward of the mountains upon the Ohio, purchased from the Indians in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and established in 1771.

The DELAWARE state is divided into three counties.

Counties.		Chief Towns.
Newcastle Kent and Sussex	on the Delaware	Newcastle, Wilmington Dover Lewestown, Milford

which

which form a diſtinct ſtate and government, having a preſident, council of nine perſons, and houſe of aſſembly of twenty-one repreſentatives: the judges and other officers of ſtate, civil and military, are choſen by the preſident and general aſſembly.

RIVER.] The rivers are, Delaware, which is navigable for veſſels of one ſort or other, more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. The Suſquehanna and Schuylkill are alſo navigable a conſiderable way up the country. Theſe rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, render this province admirably ſuited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The face of the country, air, ſoil, and produce, do not materially differ from thoſe of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is ſweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are ſo extremly cold and ſevere, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are almoſt intolerably hot, but the country is refreſhed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked in general, that in all parts of the Britiſh plantations, from New York to the ſouthern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four ſpecies, all different from thoſe we have in Europe. But, whether from ſome fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the ſoil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deſerves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a ſort of wine, with which they regale themſelves. It may alſo be obſerved of the timber of theſe colonies, that towards the ſouth it is not ſo good for ſhipping, as that of the more northern provinces. The farther ſouthward you go, the timber becomes leſs compact, and rives eaſily, which property, as it renders it leſs ſerviceable for ſhips, makes it more uſeful for ſtaves.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally poſſeſſed by the Dutch and Swedes. When theſe nations, however, were expelled from New York by the Engliſh, admiral Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the iſland of Jamaica (under the auſpices of Cromwell) being in favour with Charles II. obtained a promiſe of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his ſon, the celebrated quaker, availed himſelf of this promiſe, and, after much court ſolicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Penn be little known but to thoſe of his own perſuaſion, his reputation in a character no leſs reſpectable is univerſal among all civilized nations. The circumſtances of the times engaged vaſt numbers to follow him into his new ſettlement, to avoid the perſecutions to which the quakers, like other ſectaries, were then expoſed; but it was to his own wiſdom and ability that they are indebted for that charter of privileges, which placed this colony on ſo reſpectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmoſt latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the chief and only foundation of all his inſtitutions. Chriſtians of all denominations might not only live unmoleſted, but have a ſhare in the government of the colony. No laws could be made but by the conſent of the inhabitants. —Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn ſubjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be inquired into by a court conſtituted for that purpoſe.

poſe. The cauſes between man and man were not to be ſubjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wiſe and honeſt arbitrators. His benevolence and generoſity extended alſo to the Indian nations; inſtead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchaſed of theſe people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldeſt right, was veſted in them. William Penn, in ſhort, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his ſtatue placed next to thoſe of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the ſolid baſis of equity, ſtill maintain their force; and as a proof of their effects, it is only neceſſary to mention that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four ſhillings reſerved: whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted, were at twenty pounds the thouſand acres, with one ſhilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother-country, land rented at twenty ſhillings the acre; and even at ſeveral miles diſtance from that city, ſold at twenty years purchaſe.

In ſome years, more people tranſported themſelves into Pennſylvania, than into all the other ſettlements together. Upon the principal rivers ſettlements are made, and the country has been cultivated 150 miles above Philadelphia. In the grand convention which was held in Philadelphia, in the ſummer of 1787, the inhabitants of Pennſylvania were reckoned at 360,000. It is probable they are now more numerous, perhaps 400,000. If we fix them at this, the population for every ſquare mile will be only nine; by which it appears that Pennſylvania is only one-fifth as populous as Connecticut.

But Connecticut was ſettled nearly half a century before Pennſylvania; ſo that in order to do juſtice to Pennſylvania in the compariſon, we muſt anticipate her probable population fifty years hence *. The people are hardy, induſtrious, and moſt of them ſubſtantial, though but few of the landed people can be conſidered as rich; but before the commencement of the civil war, they were all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad; and this at the more eaſy rate, as the inferior people manufactured moſt of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very conſiderable towns, ſuch as German-Town, Cheſter, Oxford, Radnor, all of which, in any other colony, would deſerve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity unequalled by any in Europe, totally eclipſes the reſt, and deſerves our chief attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legiſlator of this colony. It is ſituated 100 miles from the ſea, between two navigable rivers, the Delaware, where it is above a mile in breadth on the north, and the Schaylkill, on the ſouth, which it unites, as it were, by running in a line of two miles between them. The whole town, when the original plan can be fully executed, is in this manner: every quarter of the city forms a ſquare of eight acres, and almoſt in the centre of it is a ſquare of ten acres, ſurrounded by the town-houſe, and other public buildings. The High-ſtreet is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town: parallel to it run nineteen other ſtreets, which are croſſed by eight more at right angles, all of them 30 feet wide, and communicating with canals from the two rivers, which add not only to the beauty, but to the wholeſomeneſs of the city. According to the

* Morſ.

original plan, every man in poſſeſſion of 1000 acres in the province, had his houſe either in one of the fronts, facing the rivers, or in the High ſtreet, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, beſides the above-mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of the houſe and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court yards. The proprietor's ſeat, which is the uſual place of the governor's reſidence, and is about a mile above the town, is the firſt private building, both for magnificence and ſituation, in all Britiſh America. The barracks for the troops, the market, and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are ſpacious and fine; and the principal quay is 200 feet wide.

There were in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way ſurpriſing, when we conſider the great trade which it carried on with the Engliſh, Spaniſh, French, and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira iſlands; with Great Britain and Ireland; with Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Beſides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, proviſions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is ſo commodiouſly ſituated, the Germans, who are ſettled in the interior parts of this province, employ ſeveral hundred waggons, drawn each by four horſes, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, 303 veſſels entered inwards at this port, and 291 cleared outwards; but in the year 1786, the number of veſſels entered at the cuſtom-houſe was 910.

The commodities formerly exported into Pennſylvania, at an average of three years, amounted to the value of 611,000l. Thoſe exported to Great Britain and other markets, beſides timber, ſhips built for ſale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, conſiſted of grain, flour, and many ſorts of animal food; and at an average of three years, were calculated at 705,500l. Since the colony's independence, the new duty upon imported goods of two and a half per cent. *ad valorem* produced from the 1ſt March to the firſt December 1784, 132,000l. in Philadelphia, which correſponds to an importation of 3,168,000l.

There was an academy eſtabliſhed at Philadelphia, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England and Scotland, and which, before the civil war broke out, bid fair to become a bright ſeminary of learning. It is now ſtiled an UNIVERSITY; its funds were partly given by the ſtate, and partly taken from the old college. And in 1787 a college was founded at Lancaſter, and, in honour to Dr. Franklin, called Franklin College.

Beſides ſeveral other very improving inſtitutions in this city, there is one which deſerves a particular notice, which is THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, FOR PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE. This ſociety was formed January, 2, 1769, by the union of two other literary ſocieties that had ſubſiſted for ſome time in Philadelphia; and were created one body corporate and politic, with ſuch powers, privileges, and immunities as are neceſſary for anſwering the valuable purpoſes which the ſociety had originally in view, by a charter, granted by the commonwealth of Pennſylvania, on the 15th of March, 1780. This ſociety has already publiſhed two very valuable volumes of their tranſactions, one in 1771, the other in 1786. In 1771, this ſociety conſiſted of nearly 300 members; and upwards of 120 have ſince been added; a large proportion of which are foreigners of the

the firſt diſtinction in Europe. This is an evidence of the increaſing reſpectability and improvement of the ſociety.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congreſs of America met in September 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there, till the king's troops made themſelves maſters of that city, on the 26th of September 1777. But in June 1778, the Britiſh troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the reſidence of the congreſs.

In 1776, the repreſentatives of the freemen of Pennſylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed upon the plan of a new conſtitution of government for that colony. They determined, that the commonwealth, or ſtate of Pennſylvania, ſhould be governed hereafter by an aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the freemen of the ſame, and a preſident and council. That the ſupreme legiſlative power ſhould be veſted in a houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of the commonwealth or ſtate of Pennſylvania. That the ſupreme executive power ſhould be veſted in a preſident and council of twelve. That every freeman of twenty-one years of age, having reſided in Pennſylvania one year before the day of election for repreſentatives, and paid public taxes during that time, ſhould enjoy the right of an elector; and that the ſons of freeholders, of twenty-one years of age, ſhould be entitled to vote, although they had not paid taxes. That the houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of this commonwealth ſhould conſiſt of perſons moſt noted for wiſdom and virtue, to be choſen by the freemen of every city and county of this commonwealth reſpectively. And that no perſon ſhould be elected, unleſs he had reſided in the city or county for which he ſhould be choſen two years before the election; and that no member, while he continued ſuch, ſhould hold any other office, except in the militia. That no perſon ſhould be capable of being elected a member to ſerve in the houſe of repreſentatives of the freemen of this commonwealth more than four years in ſeven. That the members of the houſe of repreſentatives ſhould be choſen annually by ballot, and ſhould be ſtyled, "The general aſſembly of repreſentatives of the freemen of Pennſylvania," and ſhould have power to chooſe their ſpeaker, the treaſurer of the ſtate, and their other officers, to prepare bills and enact them into laws, to redreſs grievances, impeach ſtate criminals, and have all other powers neceſſary for the legiſlature of a free ſtate or commonwealth. That delegates to repreſent Pennſylvania in congreſs ſhould be annually choſen by ballot, in the general aſſembly of repreſentatives. That the ſupreme executive council of this ſtate ſhould conſiſt of twelve perſons, to be choſen by the freemen of Philadelphia, and the ſeveral counties of Pennſylvania. That a preſident, and vice-preſident of this council, ſhould be choſen annually. That the preſident, and in his abſence the vice-preſident, and the council, five of whom are to be a quorum, ſhould have power to appoint and commiſſionate judges, naval officers, judge of the admiralty, attorney-general, and other officers civil and military. That the preſident ſhall be commander in chief of the forces of the ſtate, but ſhall not command in perſon, except adviſed thereto by the council, and then only ſo long as they ſhall approve. That all trials ſhall be by jury; and that freedom of ſpeech, and of the preſs, ſhall not be reſtrained. That all perſons in public offices ſhould declare their belief in one God, and creator, and governor of the univerſe, the rewarder of the good, and the puniſher of the wicked; and alſo acknowledge the Scriptures of the Old and New Teſtament to be given by divine inſpiration. A variety of other particulars were alſo contained in this plan of government; wherein it was like-

wiſe determined, that the freemen of this commonwealth, and their ſons, ſhould be trained and armed for its defence, under ſuch regulations, reſtrictions, and exceptions, as the general aſſembly ſhould by law direct, preſerving always to the people the right of chooſing their colonel, and all commiſſioned officers under that rank, in ſuch manner and as often as by the ſaid laws ſhould be directed. Two perſons alſo are to be choſen by ballot every year for each county and city, by the freemen, to be called the "Council of Cenſors" who are to examine into the conduct of the legiſlative and executive powers.

MARYLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 140 Breadth 135	between	75 and 80 weſt longitude. 37 and 40 north latitude.	12,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Pennſylvania, on the North; by another part of Pennſylvania, and the Atlantic Ocean on the Eaſt; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains on the Weſt.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Cheſapeak, viz. 1. The eaſtern; and 2. The weſtern diviſion.

Diviſion.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
The Eaſt diviſion contains the counties of	Worceſter	Princeſs Anne
	Somerſet	Snow Hill
	Dorſet	Dorſet, or Dorcheſter
	Talbot	Oxford
	Cecil	
	Queen Anne's	Queen's Town
	Kent	Cheſter
	Caroline	
The Weſt diviſion contains	St. Mary's	St. Mary
	Charles	Briſtol
	Prince George	Maſterkout
	Calvert	Abington
	Arundel	ANNAPOLIS, W. lon. 76-50. N. lat. 39.
	Baltimore	Baltimore
	Frederic	
	Waſhington	
	Montgomery	
	Hartford	

RIVERS.]

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vaſt number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn, and Saſſafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] In theſe particulars this province has nothing remarkable by which it may be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe already deſcribed. The hills in the inland country are of ſo eaſy aſcent, that they rather ſeem an artificial than a natural production. The climate is generally mild and agreeably ſuited to agricultural productions, and a great variety of fruit trees. In the interior hilly country the inhabitants are healthy; but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marſhes and ſtagnant waters, they are, as in the other ſouthern ſtates, ſubject to intermittents. The vaſt number of rivers diffuſes fertility through the ſoil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco, and wheat, which are the ſtaple commodities of that country; hemp, Indian corn and grain, &c.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The number of inhabitants including the negroes is eſtimated at 254,050, which is eighteen for every ſquare mile. The commerce of Maryland depends on the ſame principles with that of Virginia, and is ſo cloſely connected with it, that any ſeparation of them would rather confuſe than inſtruct. It will be conſidered therefore under that head.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] It ſeems as if all the provinces of North America were planted from motives of religion. Maryland, like thoſe we have formerly deſcribed, owes its ſettlement to religious conſiderations. As they however were peopled by proteſtants, Maryland was originally planted by Roman catholics. This ſect, towards the cloſe of Charles the Firſt's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the Engliſh nation; and the laws in force againſt the Papiſts were executed with great ſeverity. This in part aroſe from an opinion, that the court was too favourably diſpoſed towards this form of religion. It is certain, that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the moſt eminent, in great favour with the court, and on that account moſt odious to the generality of Engliſhmen. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was conſidered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of Queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV. of France, and ſpouſe to king Charles. The year following about 200 popiſh families, ſome of conſiderable diſtinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into poſſeſſion of this new territory. Theſe ſettlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which diſtinguiſh gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an eaſy price from the native Indians; they even lived with them for ſome time in the ſame city; and the ſame harmony continued to ſubſiſt between the two nations, until the Indians were impoſed on by the malicious inſinuations of ſome planters in Virginia, who envied the proſperity of this popiſh colony, and inflamed the Indians againſt them by ill-grounded reports, ſuch as were ſufficient to ſtir up the reſentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reaſon to be ſo. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own ſafety on this occaſion. Though they continued their friendly intercourſe with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to uſe every other precaution for their defence againſt ſudden hoſtilities; the defeat of this attempt gave a new ſpring to the activity of this plantation, which was likewiſe receiving frequent reinforcements from

from England of thoſe who found themſelves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorſhip of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore, was deprived of his rights; and a new governor, appointed by the protector, ſubſtituted in his room. At the Reſtoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural poſſeſſor. Baltimore was reinſtated in his rights, and fully diſcovered how well he deſerved to be ſo. He eſtabliſhed a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony increaſed and flouriſhed, and diſſenters of all denominations, allured by the proſpect of gain, flocked into Maryland. But the tyrannical government of James II. again deprived this noble family of their poſſeſſion, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence.

At the Revolution lord Baltimore was again reſtored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not conſiſtently be conferred on a Roman catholic. But after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the intereſt. The government of this country exactly reſembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietors, and only confirmed by the crown. The government of Maryland is now veſted in a governor, ſenate of 15, and houſe of delegates, all which are to be choſen annually. The governor is to be elected by ballot, by the ſenate and houſe of delegates. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of ſuffrage in the election of delegates, which is *viva voce*. All perſons appointed to any office of profit or truſt, are to ſubſcribe a declaration of their belief in the Chriſtian religion.

In 1782, a college was founded at Cheſter town in this province, under the name of *Waſhington College*, in honour of general Waſhington.

VIRGINIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 750 Breadth 240	between	75 and 90 weſt longitude 36 and 40 north latitude	80,000

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by the river Potowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the North-eaſt; by the Atlantic ocean, on the Eaſt; by Carolina, on the South; and the river Miſſiſſippi, on the Weſt.

It

It may be divided into 75 counties, of very unequal ſize and population. Of theſe 35 are on the tide waters, or in that parallel; 23 are in the midlands, between the tide waters, and blue ridge of mountains; 8 between the blue ridge and the Allegany; and 8 weſtward of the Allegany. The following table is taken from Morſe's American Geography.

Situation.	Counties.
Weſtward of the Allegany.	Lincoln
	Jefferſon
	Fayette
	Ohio
	Monongalia
	Waſhington
	Montgomery
	Green-briar
Between the Allegany and Blue Ridge.	Hampſhire
	Berkley
	Frederick
	Shenando
	Rockingham
	Auguſta
	Rockbridge
	Botetourt
Between the Blue Ridge and Tide Waters.	Loudoun
	Fauquier
	Culpeper
	Spotſylvania
	Orange
	Louiſa
	Goochland
	Fluvanna
	Albemarle
	Amherſt
	Buckingham
	Bedford
	Henry
	Pittſylvania
	Halifax
	Charlotte
	Prince Edward
	Cumberland
	Powhatan
	Amelia
	Lunenburg
	Mecklenberg
	Brunſwick
Between James river & Carolina.	Greeneſville
	Dinwiddie
	Cheſterfield
	Prince George
	Surry
	Suſſex
	Southampton
	Iſle of Wight
	Nanſemond
	Norfolk
	Princeſs Anne
Between James and York rivers.	Henrico
	Hanover
	New Kent
	Charles City
	James City
	Williamſburg
	York
	Warwick
	Elizabeth City
Between York and Rappahanoc.	Caroline
	King William
	King and Queen
	Eſſex
	Middleſex
	Glouceſter
Between Rappahanoc and Patowmack.	Fairfax
	Prince William
	Stafford
	King George
	Richmond
	Weſtmoreland
	Northumberland
	Lancaſter
Eaſtern ſhore	Accomac
	Northampton

CAPES, BAYS, AND RIVERS.] In ſailing to Virginia or Maryland, you paſs a ſtrait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a paſſage into the bay of Cheſapeak, one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in the

the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the ſouth to the north, is about 18 miles broad for a conſiderable way, and ſeven where it is the narroweſt, the waters in moſt places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vaſt number of navigable rivers from the ſides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, beſides others of leſs note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahannock, and the Potowmac: theſe are not only navigable for large ſhips into the heart of the country, but have ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is without all manner of doubt the country in the world of all others of the moſt convenient navigation. It has been obſerved, and the obſervation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole face of this country is ſo extremely low towards the ſea, that you are very near the ſhore before you can diſcover land from the maſt-head. The lofty trees, which cover the ſoil, gradually riſe as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting proſpect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extenſive coaſt of North America.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] In ſummer the heats here are exceſſive, though not without refreſhing breezes from the ſea. The weather is changeable, and the changes ſudden and violent. Their winter froſts come on without the leaſt warning. To a warm day there ſometimes ſucceeds ſuch an intenſe cold in the evening, as to freeze over the largeſt rivers.

The air and ſeaſons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryneſs and moiſture. In winter they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleaſant. Their ſpring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June, the heat increaſes; and the ſummer is much like ours, being refreſhed with gentle breezes from the ſea, that riſe about nine o'clock, and decreaſe or increaſe as the ſun riſes or falls. In July and Auguſt theſe breezes ceaſe, and the air becomes ſtagnant, and violently hot; in September the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occaſion all the train of diſeaſes incident to a moiſt climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any miſchief.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Towards the ſea ſhore and the banks of the rivers, the ſoil of Virginia conſiſts of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a diſtance from the water there is a lightneſs and ſandineſs in the ſoil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and helped by a kindly ſun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been ſaid of the ſoil and climate, it is eaſy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The foreſts are covered with all ſorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or buſhes grow beneath; ſo that people travel with eaſe through the foreſts on horſeback, under a fine ſhade to defend them from the ſun; the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering ſhrubs of the richeſt colours and moſt fragrant ſcent. Silk grows ſpontaneous in many places, the fibres of which are as ſtrong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the ſnake-root, and the ginſeng of the Chineſe, are here in great plenty. There is no ſort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are ſo engroſſed with the culture of the tobacco plant, that they think if corn ſufficient for their ſupport can be reared, they do enough in this way. But

flax

flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own conſumption, but for exportation, though not in ſuch quantities as might be expected from the nature of the ſoil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

ANIMALS.] We ſhall here obſerve, that there were neither horſes, cows, ſheep, nor hogs in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied ſo extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the ſouthern colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, beef and pork were ſold here from one penny to two-pence a pound; their fatteſt pullets at ſix-pence a-piece; chickens at three or four ſhillings a dozen; geeſe at ten-pence; and turkeys at eighteen-pence a-piece. But fiſh and wild fowl were ſtill cheaper in the ſeaſon, and deer were ſold from five to ten ſhillings a-piece. This eſtimate may ſerve for the other American colonies, where proviſions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in ſome ſtill lower. Beſides the animals tranſported from Europe, thoſe natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a ſort of panther or tyger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewiſe that ſingular animal, called the opoſſum, which ſeems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix, in his hiſtory of Canada. It is about the ſize of a cat; and beſides the belly common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itſelf, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which diſcovers a large number of teats on the uſual parts of the common belly. Upon theſe, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the ſtalk, until they grow in bulk and weight to the appointed ſize; when they drop off, and are received into the falſe belly, from which they go out at pleaſure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all ſorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, whoſe plumage is crimſon and blue; the mocking-bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming-bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and by far the moſt beautiful, all arrayed in ſcarlet, green and gold. It ſips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nouriſhment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, CUSTOMS.] Virginia has produced ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and influential men that have been active in effecting the late grand and important revolution in America. Her political and military character will rank among the firſt in the page of hiſtory. But it is to be obſerved, that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public tranſactions, and who, in ſhort, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themſelves with politics, ſo that their government, though nominally republican, is, in fact, oligarchal, or ariſtocratical.

Several travellers give but a very indifferent account of the generality of the people of this province. The young men, obſerves one, generally ſpeaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horſe-jockies. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the diſcoveries of a Newton, are conſidered as infinitely inferior to the accompliſhments of him, who is expert in the management of a cock-fight, or dexterous in manœuvring at a horſe-race. A ſpirit for literary enquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently ſubordinate to a ſpirit of gaming and barbarous ſports. At almoſt every tavern or ordinary, on the public road, there is a billiard-table, a backgammon-table, cards, and other implements for various

games. To these public-houses the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood resort to *kill* time, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this business they are extremely expert, having been accustomed to it from their earliest youth. The passion for cock-fighting, a diversion not only inhumanly barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of sense, is so predominant, that they even advertize their matches in the public papers *. This dissipation of manners is the consequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruit of African slavery.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. This is the first country which the English planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other settlements, as has been already observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII. of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that Sir Walter Raleigh applied to court, and got together a company, which was composed of several persons of distinction, and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade, and settle a colony, in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony, before any proved successful. The three first companies who sailed into Virginia, perished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced to almost the same situation; and, being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But in the mouth of Chesapeak bay, they were met by lord Delawar, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion they returned: by his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return into England. He left behind him, however, his son, as deputy; with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Summers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James Town, the first town built by the English in the New World, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of consideration and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and under the government of Sir William Berkley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the restoration, there is nothing very interesting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gentleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontents in the colony, on account of restraints in trade, became very popular, and set every thing in confusion. His natural death, however, restored peace and unanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia ceased to destroy themselves.

* A traveller through Virginia observes, Three or four matches were advertised in the public prints at Williamsburg; and I was witness of five in the course of my travels from that to Port Royal.

The

The government of this province was not at firſt adapted to the principles of the Engliſh conſtitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a ſubject of Great Britain thinks himſelf entitled in every part of the globe. It was governed by a governor and council, appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increaſed, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the conſtitution, by which the people, who had formerly no conſideration, were allowed to elect their repreſentatives from each county, into which this country is divided, with privileges reſembling thoſe of the repreſentatives of the commons of England. Thus two houſes, the upper and lower houſe of aſſembly, were formed. The upper houſe, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were appointed, during pleaſure, by the crown; they were ſtyled Honourable, and anſwered in ſome meaſure to the houſe of peers in the Britiſh conſtitution. The lower houſe was the guardian of the people's liberties. And thus, with a governor repreſenting the king, an upper and lower houſe of aſſembly, this government bore a ſtriking reſemblance to our own. When any bill had paſſed the two houſes, it came before the governor, who gave his aſſent or negative as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was tranſmitted to England, and his majeſty's pleaſure known on that ſubject. The upper houſe of aſſembly acted not only as a part of the legiſlature, but alſo as privy-council to the governor, without whoſe concurrence he could do nothing of moment; it ſometimes acted as a court of chancery.

The preſent government of this province as ſettled in convention at Williamſburg, July 5th, 1776, is, that the legiſlative, executive, and judiciary departments be ſeparate and diſtinct; that the houſe of delegates be choſen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the diſtrict of Weſt Auguſta; and one repreſentative for the city of Williamſburg and town of Norfolk. The ſenate to conſiſt of 24 members, alſo choſen by the freeholders of the ſtate, divided into 20 diſtricts. The executive is a governor and privy-council of eight members, choſen annually by the joint ballot of the general aſſembly of the ſtate, who alſo chooſe the delegates to congreſs, the judges and other law officers, preſident, treaſurer, ſecretary, &c. juſtices, ſheriffs, and coroners, commiſſioned by the governor and council.

The inhabitants of Virginia were eſtimated in 1782 at 567,614; of whom 270,762 are negroes. So much do they increaſe under the mild treatment they receive. In the very firſt ſeſſion after their independence on Great Britain, the aſſembly paſſed a law for the perpetual prohibition of the importation of ſlaves. This will in ſome meaſure ſtop the increaſe of this great political and moral evil, while the minds of men may be ripening for a complete emancipation of human nature*. The inhabitants of Virginia are a cheerful, hoſpitable, and in general a well-bred people: ſome of them are accuſed of vanity and oſtentation. Here are only two towns which deſerve that name; the largeſt of which, and the capital of the province, is WILLIAMSBURG, 37-12 N. lat. 76-48 W. long. containing about ſixty houſes, and ſome ſpacious public buildings. It is about 40 miles from the mouth of James-river, and ſeven from James-town, which was formerly the capital, and before the American war, contained many taverns and public houſes, for the entertainment of mariners. York-town and Glouceſter will ever be famous for the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army.

* Morſe.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is alſo included that of Maryland. Theſe provinces were ſuppoſed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000l. into Great Britain. This, at eight pounds per hogſhead, makes the number of hogſheads amount to 96,000. Of theſe, it is computed, that about 13,500 hogſheads were conſumed at home, the duty on which, at 26l. 1s. per hogſhead came to 351,675l. the remaining 82,500 hogſheads, were exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this ſingle branch employed 330 ſail of ſhips, and 7960 ſeamen. Not only our wealth, therefore, but the very ſinews of our national ſtrength were powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of theſe colonies, of which naval ſtores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the moſt conſiderable, made the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000l. The exports of Great Britain, the ſame as to our other colonies, at a like average, came to 865,000l.

Here is a college, founded by king William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchaſe and hold lands to the value of 2000l. a year, and a duty of one penny per pound, on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a preſident, ſix profeſſors, and other officers, who are named by the governors or viſitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children. The Preſbyterian denomination of Chriſtians is the moſt numerous in this province; for though the firſt ſettlers were Epiſcopalians, yet through the indolence of the clergy, two-thirds of the people had become diſſenters at the commencement of the American revolution.

NORTH and SOUTH CAROLINA, with GEORGIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles
Length 700 Breadth 380	between	76 and 91 weſt longitude. 30 and 37 north latitude.	110,000

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Virginia, on the North; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the Eaſt; by the river St. John, which ſeparates Georgia from Florida, on the South; and by the Miſſiſippi, on the Weſt.

NORTH

NORTH CAROLINA.

Districts.	Counties.
Edenton, 9 Counties.	Chowan
	Currituck
	Cambden
	Pasquetank
	Perquimins
	Gates
	Hertford
	Bertie
	Tyreel
Wilmington, 8 Counties.	New Hanover
	Brunswick
	Cumberland
	Robinson
	Duplin
	Beaden
	Wayne
	Moore
Newbern, 8 Counties.	Craven
	Beaufort
	Carteret
	Pitt
	Dobbs
	Hyde
	Jones
	Onslow

The above three districts, of Edenton, Wilmington, and Newbern, are on the sea-coast, extending from the Virginia line south-westward to South-Carolina.

Districts.	Counties.
Davidson, 2 Counties	Davidson
	Sumner.
Halifax, 7 Counties.	Halifax
	Northampton
	Martin
	Edgecomb
	Warren
	Franklin
	Nash
Hillsborough 9 Counties.	Orange
	Chatan
	Granville
	Johnston
	Cafwell
	Sampson
	Wake
	Guildford
	Randolph
Salisbury, 8 Counties.	Rowan
	Mecklenburg
	Rockingham
	Surry
	Montgomery
	Anson
	Wilkes
	Richmond
Morgan, 7 Counties.	Burke
	Green
	Rutherford
	Washington
	Sullivan
	Lincoln
	Hawkins.

SOUTH CAROLINA, hath seven districts, in which are 35 counties, as follows:

Beaufort District.	Counties.	Orange District.	Counties.
on the sea-coast, between Combahee and Savannah rivers. Chief town Beaufort	Hilton	west of Beaufort district. Chief town Orangeburgh.	Lewisburg
	Lincoln		Orange
	Granville		Lexington
	Shrewsbury		Winton

Counties.

	Counties.		Counties.
CHARLESTON DISTRICT. between Santee and Combahee rivers. Chief town CHARLESTON. W. lon. 79-12. N. lat. 32-45.	Charleſton Waſhington Marion Berkley Colleton Bartholomew	CAMDEN DISTRICT, weſt of George-town diſtrict Chief town CAMDEN.	Clarendon Richland Fairfield Cleremont Lancaſter York Cheſter
GEORGE-TOWN DISTRICT. between Santee river and North-Carolina. Chief town GEORGE-TOWN.	Winyah Williamſburg Kingſton Liberty	NINETY-SIX DISTRICT. comprehends all other parts of the ſtate, not included in the other diſtrict. Chief town CAMBRIDGE.	Abbeville Edgefield Newbury Union Laurens Spartanburgh Greenville
CHERAWS DISTRICT, weſt of George-town diſtrict, chief towns are	Marlborough, Cheſterfield, Darlington.		

GEORGIA. That part of the ſtate which hath been laid out in counties is thus divided:

Counties.	Principal Towns.
Chatham	SAVANNAH, lat. 32-5. W. long. 80-20
Effingham	Ebenezer
Burke	Wayneſburg and Louiſville
Richmond	AUGUSTA,
Wilkes	Waſhington
Liberty	Sunbury
Glynn	Brunſwick
Camden	St. Patrick's
Waſhington	Golphinton
Greene	Greenſburg.
Franklin	

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamtico Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee; Santee; Savannah; Alatamaha, or George River, and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida; all which rivers riſe in the Apalachian mountains, and running eaſt, fall into the Atlantic ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yaſous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble ſtreams which fall into the Miſſiſippi, or the gulf of Mexico.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The only ſea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic Ocean; which is ſo ſhallow near the coaſt, that a ſhip of any great burden cannot approach it, except in ſome few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the beſt are thoſe of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle River, Pamtico, and Cape Fear. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George Town,

Town, Charles Town, and Port Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha form good harbours.

The moſt remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 deg. odd minutes north lat. Cape Fear to the ſouth of it, and Cape Carteret ſtill farther ſouth.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any conſiderable difference between the climate of theſe countries. In general it agrees with that of Virginia; but where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The ſummers, indeed are of a more intenſe heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and ſhorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is ſubject to ſudden tranſitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to ſuch violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are ſeldom ſevere enough to freeze any conſiderable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the froſts have never ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the noon day ſun; ſo that many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-Town, and excellent in their kinds, both ſweet and ſour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] In this reſpect, too, there is a conſiderable coincidence between theſe countries and Virginia; the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia hath not ſo good a ſoil as the other provinces. The whole country is in a manner one foreſt, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almoſt the ſame in every reſpect with thoſe produced in Virginia; and by the different ſpecies of theſe, the quality of the ſoil is eaſily known. The land in Carolina is eaſily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the foreſts moſtly conſiſt of tall trees at a conſiderable diſtance. Thoſe grounds which bear the name of the oak, the walnut, and the hickory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark ſand, intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhauſted; for they here never uſe any manure. The pine barren is the worſt of all; there is an almoſt perfectly white ſand; yet it bears the pine tree, and ſome other uſeful plants, naturally yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this ſpecies of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and peaſe; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even anſwers for rice. But what is moſt fortunate for this province is, that this worſt part of its land is favourable to a ſpecies of the moſt valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, ſwampy grounds bear their great ſtaple, rice. The country near the ſea is much the worſt, in many parts little better than an unhealthy ſalt marſh; for Carolina is all an even plain for 80 miles from the ſea, not a hill, not a rock, not ſcarcely even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles diſtance from Charles-Town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpoſe of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleaſant to the eye than the variegated diſpoſition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholeſome, and the ſummer heat much more temperate than in the flat ſandy coaſt.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and ſoil have ſomething in them ſo kindly, that the latter, when left to itſelf, naturally throws out an immenſe quantity of flowers and flowering ſhrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond

beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, ſilk, wine, and oil, might be produced in theſe colonies; of the firſt we have ſeen ſamples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. What grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increaſe.

From what we have obſerved of theſe valuable provinces, their productions appear to be, vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peaſe, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange, citron, cypreſs, ſaſſafras, oak, walnut, caſſia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding ſilk-worms; ſarſaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, reſin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds, and another, which yields a balm thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beſides theſe that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent ſpirits, and mead as good as Malaga ſack. Of all theſe the three great ſtaple commodities at preſent are, the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing ſurpriſes an European more at firſt ſight than the ſize of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of theſe trunks when hollowed, the people of Charles-Town as well as the Indians make canoes, which ſerve to tranſport proviſions and other goods from place to place; and ſome of them are ſo large, that they will carry 30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one piece of timber. Of theſe are likewiſe made curious pleaſure boats.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from thoſe of Virginia; but in Carolina they have a ſtill greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiouſly: to have 2 or 300 cows is very common, but ſome have 1000 or upwards. Theſe ramble all day at pleaſure in the foreſts; but their calves being ſeparated and kept in fenced paſtures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the ſame manner, and return like the cows; theſe are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horſes, in the woods. It is ſurpriſing that the cattle ſhould have increaſed ſo quickly ſince their being firſt improved from Europe, while there are ſuch numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers, conſtantly ranging the woods and foreſts. We have already obſerved that theſe animals are leſs ravenous than the beaſts of Africa and Aſia; they very ſeldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] The firſt Engliſh expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. Nothing ſucceſsful was done in this way till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, and others of great diſtinction, obtained a charter from the crown, inveſting them with the property and juriſdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to ſuch as were willing to go over into the new ſettlement, and to ſubmit to a ſyſtem of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compoſe for them.

They began their firſt ſettlement at a point of land towards the ſouthward of their diſtrict, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-Town, which was deſigned to be, what it now is, the capital of the province. In time, however, the diſputes between

between the church of Englandmen and diſſenters cauſed a total confuſion in the colony. This was rendered ſtill more intolerable by the incurſions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their inſolence and injuſtice. In order to prevent the fatal conſequences of theſe inteſtine diviſions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was paſſed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompenſe of about 24,000l. for both the property and juriſdiction; and the conſtitution of this colony, in thoſe reſpects in which it differed from the royal colonies, was altered. Earl Granville, however, thought fit to retain his ſeventh ſhare, which continued in the poſſeſſion of his family. For the more convenient adminiſtration of affairs, too, Carolina was divided into two diſtricts, and two governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being reſtored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, theſe provinces began to breathe: and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity.

The ſettlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when ſeveral public-ſpirited noblemen and others, from compaſſion to the poor of theſe kingdoms, ſubſcribed a conſiderable ſum, which, with 10,000l. from the government, was given to provide neceſſaries for ſuch poor perſons as were willing to tranſport themſelves into this province, and to ſubmit to the regulations impoſed on them. In proceſs of time, new ſums were raiſed, and new inhabitants ſent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 perſons were ſettled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected, that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great diſtance from their benefactors, and from the check and control of thoſe who had a natural influence over them, would ſubmit to the magiſtrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themſelves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increaſed in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard they ſhould be deprived of. From theſe corrupt ſources aroſe all the bad humours which tore to pieces this conſtitution of government. Diſſenſions of all kinds ſprung up, and the colony was on the brink of deſtruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the ſame footing with the Carolinas.

The method of ſettling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of Britiſh America, was to pitch upon a void ſpace of ground, and either to purchaſe it at the rate of 20l. for 1000 acres, one ſhilling quit-rent for every 100 acres; or otherwiſe, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchaſe-money. The people of Carolina live in the ſame eaſy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians already deſcribed. Poverty is here almoſt an entire ſtranger; and the planters are the moſt hoſpitable people that are to be met with to all ſtrangers, and eſpecially to ſuch as by accident or misfortunes are rendered incapable of providing for themſelves.

The general topics of converſation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice and tobacco, &c. They appear to have as little taſte for the ſciences as for religion. Political enquiries and philoſophical diſquiſitions are attended to but by a few men of genius and induſtry; and are too laborious for the indolent minds of the people at large. Leſs attention and reſpect are paid to the women here, than in thoſe parts of the United States, where the inhabitants have made greater pro-

greſs in the arts of civilized life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by obſervation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilization, in the ſame proportion will reſpect for the women be increaſed: ſo that the progreſs of civilization in countries, in ſtates, in towns and in families, may be remarked by the degree of attention which is paid by huſbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

Temperance and induſtry are not to be reckoned among the virtues of the North Carolinians. The time which they waſte in drinking, idling and gambling, leaves them very little opportunity to improve their plantations or their minds. The improvement of the former is left to their overſeers and negroes; the improvement of the lattter is too often neglected. Were the time, which is thus waſted, ſpent in cultivating the ſoil and in treaſuring up knowledge, they might be both wealthy and learned, for they have a productive country, and are by no means deſtitute of genius.

Time that is not employed in ſtudy or uſeful labour, is generally ſpent in every country in hurtful or innocent exerciſes, according to the cuſtom of the place or the taſte of the parties. The citizens of North Carolina, who are not better employed, ſpend their time in drinking, or gaming at cards or dice, in cock-fighting, or horſe-racing. Many of the interludes are filled up with a boxing match; and theſe matches frequently become memorable by feats of *gouging* *.

In a country that pretends to any degree of civilization, one would hardly expect to find a prevailing cuſtom of putting out the eyes of each other, yet this more than barbarous cuſtom is prevalent in both the Carolinas, and in Georgia, among the lower claſs of people. Of the origin of this cuſtom we are not informed. We preſume there are few competitors for the honour of having originated it; and equally as few who are envious of the *pleaſure* of thoſe who have the *honour* to continue it.

The only place in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charles-Town, W. Lon. 79-12. N. Lat. 32-45. the metropolis, of South Carolina, which for ſize, beauty, and trade, may be conſidered as one of the firſt in Britiſh America. It is admirably ſituated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ſhips 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every reſpect, but that of a bar, which hinders veſſels of more than 200 tons burthen, loaded, from entering. The town is regularly and pretty ſtrongly fortified by nature and art; the ſtreets are well cut; the houſes are large and well built; ſome of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handſome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The ſtreets are wide and ſtraight, interſecting each other at right angles; thoſe running eaſt and weſt extend about a mile from one river to the other. It contains about 1000 houſes, and was the ſeat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the aſſembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond deſcription. Several handſome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred:

* The *delicate* and *entertaining diverſion*, with propriety called *gouging*, is thus performed. When two *boxers* are wearied with fighting and bruiſing each other, they come, as it is called, to *cloſe quarters*, and each endeavours to twiſt his forefingers in the ear locks of his antagoniſt. When theſe are faſt clinched, the thumbs are extended each way to the noſe, and the eyes *gently* turned out of their ſockets. The victor for his expertneſs receives ſhouts of applauſe from the ſportive throng, while his poor *eyeleſs* antagoniſt is laughed at for his misfortune. Morſe.

and before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, the people were ſhewy and expenſive in their dreſs and way of living; ſo that every thing conſpired to make this by much the livelieſt, the loveliest, and politeſt place, as it is one of the richeſt too, in all America. It ought alſo to be obſerved, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that when, in common with the other colonies, they reſolved againſt the uſe of certain luxuries, and even neceſſaries of life; thoſe articles which improve the mind, enlarge the underſtanding, and correct the taſte were excepted: the importation of books was permitted as formerly.

North and South Carolina joined with the other colonies in their revolt againſt Britain; and in 1780, Charles Town being beſieged by the king's troops, ſurrendered on capitulation, with 6000 men in arms priſoners, on the 11th of May in that year, after the ſiege had continued ſeven weeks.

As South Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employed 140 ſhips, while that of the other two did not employ 60. Its exports to Great Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than 395,000l. annual value; and its imports to 365,000l. The exports of North-Carolina were computed at about 70,000l. and its imports at 18,000l. The trade of Georgia is likewiſe in its infancy; the exports amounted to little more than 74,000l. and the imports to 49,000l.

The trade between Carolina and the Weſt-Indies was the ſame in all reſpects with that of the reſt of the colonies, and was very large; their trade with the Indians was in a very flouriſhing condition; and they formerly carried Engliſh goods on pack-horſes 5 or 600 miles into the country weſt of Charles-Town.

The mouths of the rivers in North Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, veſſels of above 70 or 80 tons. This lays a weight upon their trade, by the expence of lighter-age. Edenton is the capital of North Carolina, but little more than a trifling village; they were lately projecting a town farther ſouth, which would be more centrical.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiouſly ſituated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the ſea, upon a noble river of the ſame name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the ſecond town, called Auguſta, which ſtands in a country of the greateſt fertility, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you ſee the whole courſe of the river towards the ſea; and on the other hand, you ſee the river for about 60 miles up into the country. Here the Rev. Mr. George Whitefield founded an orphan-houſe, which is now converted to a very different uſe, into a college for the education of young men deſigned chiefly for the miniſtry. By a late eſtimate of their population, the number of inhabitants in North Carolina is 270,000, of which 60,000 are negroes; in South Carolina 80,000 whites, and about 100,000 negroes; and in Georgia, in the grand convention at Philadelphia, in 1787, the inhabitants of this ſtate were reckoned at 90,000, including three fifths of 20,000 negroes *.

In October 1779, the town of Savannah being in poſſeſſion of the king's troops, was beſieged by 8000 of the American and French troops in conjunction; but they were bravely repulſed by the king's troops, with a great

* Morſe.

ſlaughter of the French and Americans. But Savannah, as well as Charles Town, were afterwards evacuated by the king's troops, and reſtored to the Americans.

The government of North Carolina is now veſted in a governor, ſenate, and houſe of commons, all elected annually; the executive power is a governor and ſeven counſellors: of South Carolina, in a governor, ſenate of 23, and a houſe of repreſentatives of 202 members: and that of Georgia in a governor, executive council of 12, and houſe of aſſembly of 72 repreſentatives.

NEW STATES FORMED IN NORTH AMERICA.

THE *New State of Franklin*, was formed by the union of three counties in North Carolina. But, after much confuſion, all pretenſions to independency were at length relinquiſhed, and it is now re-united with its parent ſtate. Beſides this, two other ſtates have lately ariſen, thoſe of KENTUCKE, and VERMONT. Of theſe we ſhall give ſome account in this place.

KENTUCKE.

[*Belonging at preſent to the State of Virginia.*]

THIS country was firſt diſcovered by one Mc^Bride, in 1754. Its central part is ſituated near the latitude of 38 N. and 85 W. long. It is bounded on the North by Sandy Creek, by the Ohio on the N. W., by North Carolina on the South, and by Cumberland mountains on the Eaſt.

Kentucke is divided into ſeven counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Jefferſon, at the falls of the Ohio	Louiſville
Fayette	Lexington
Bourbon	None
Mercer	Harrodſtown
Nelſon	Bardſtown
Maddiſon	None
Lincoln	None

In all theſe, as well as in many other places, are houſes for the inſpection of tobacco.

The Ohio bounds Kentucke in its whole length. This ſtate is watered by many rivers, and the greateſt part of the ſoil is amazingly fertile, and is more

more temperate and healthy than any part in America. Here are buffaloes, bears, deer, elks, and many other animals, common to the United States, and others entirely unknown to them. In the rivers are the fineſt fiſh, and abundant. Salmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook-fiſh. The paroquet is common here, as is the ivory-bill, wood-cock, of a whitiſh colour, with a white plume. The bill is pure ivory. Here is an owl like ours, but different in vociferation. It makes a ſurprizing noiſe like a man in diſtreſs. Its natural curioſities are aſtoniſhing and innumerable. Caves are found amazingly large, in ſome of which you may travel ſeveral miles under a fine limeſtone rock, ſupported by curious arches and pillars. In moſt of them run ſtreams of water. Near Lexington are to be ſeen curious ſepulchres, full of human ſkeletons. There are three ſprings or ponds of bitumen near Green River, which diſcharge themſelves into a common reſervoir, and when uſed in lamps, anſwer all the purpoſes of the fineſt oil *. There are many allum banks, and different places abounding with copper, which when refined is equal to any in the world. At a ſalt ſpring near the Ohio river, very large bones have been found far ſurpaſſing the ſize of any ſpecies of animals now in America, the head appears to have been conſiderably above three feet long. Dr. Hunter ſaid it could not be the elephant, and that from the form of the teeth it muſt have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been ſent both to France and England. What animal this is, and by what means its ruins are found in theſe regions, (where none ſuch now exiſt) are very difficult queſtions, and variouſly reſolved. The variety of conjectures ſerves only to prove the futility of all.

The Miſſiſippi and Ohio, are the keys to the northern parts of the weſtern continent. The uſual route to Kentucke is from Philadelphia or Baltimore, by the way of Peterſburgh. From the mouth of the Ohio to New Orleans, (a diſtance not exceeding 460 miles in a ſtraight line) is 856 by water. The mouth empties itſelf by ſeveral channels into the gulf of Mexico.

An idea may be formed of the aſtoniſhing emigrations to this country, from the following account taken by the adjutant of the troops ſtationed at Fort Harmer, at the mouth of Muſkingum.

From the 10th of October, 1786, to the 12th of May 1787, 177 boats, containing 2689 ſouls, 1353 horſes, 766 cattle, 112 waggons and two phaetons, beſides a very conſiderable number that paſſed in the night unobſerved.

It is at preſent peopled by above one hundred and fifty thouſand ſettlers. From the interior ſettlements of this vaſt country, America will derive her future greatneſs, and eſtabliſh new empires to rival, and perhaps outdo the ancient world.

VERMONT.

THE ſtate of Vermont is a vaſt country, ſituated eaſtward of New Hampſhire, ſouth of Maſſachuſets, and weſt of New York. It is 155 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. The capital of the ſtates is Bennington.

The Allens are the chiefs or head men of the country. It is governed by

* Morſe's American Geography, p 407.

its

its own laws, independent of congreſs and the ſtates. Hitherto it has been an object of contention between the ſtates of New York and New Hampſhire. The people had, for a long time, no other name than Green Mountain Boys, which they gallicized into Verdmont, and ſince corrupted into the eaſier pronunciation of Vermont.

The antique foreſts, into which the arm of man is juſt carrying the deſtructive ax, every where afford the moſt grand and ſublime proſpects. Little of the land of this ſtate is yet cleared, but the emigrations to it from other ſtates are great, and it will ſoon become well cultivated, and equal in fertility to the ſtates it approximates. Its population is ſaid already to amount to 150,000.

The declaration which they made by their repreſentatives in convention at Windſor, on the 25th of December, 1777, and which makes a part of their conſtitution, breathes as high a ſpirit of liberty, as that of any of their neighbours. They aſſert that all men are born equally free—with equal rights, and ought to enjoy liberty of conſcience—freedom of the preſs—trial by jury—power to form new ſtates in vacant countries, and to regulate their own internal police—that all elections ought to be free—that all power is originally in the people—that government ought to be inſtituted for the common benefit of the community—and that the community have a right to reform or aboliſh government—that every member of ſociety had a right to protection of life, liberty and property—and in return is bound to contribute his proportion of the expence of that protection, and yield his perſonal ſervice when neceſſary—that he ſhall not be obliged to give evidence againſt himſelf—that the people have a right to bear arms—but no ſtanding armies ſhall be maintained in time of peace—that the people have a right to hold themſelves, their houſes, papers, and poſſeſſions free from ſearch or ſeizure, and therefore warrants, without oaths firſt made, affording ſufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right, and ought not to be granted—that no perſon ſhall be liable to be tranſported out of this ſtate for trial for any offence committed within this ſtate, &c. *.

The ſtates of New York and Pennſylvania have large tracts of fertile land, extending to the lakes proper for the forming of ſettlements, and very capital ones have lately been made. This country will in future prove one of the moſt advantageous commercial ſituations in America, having in a manner the key of Canada, and of all the northern Indian trade; the navigation extending from the weſtern ſea to the lakes, has no other obſtruction than ſmall portages, which in time will be converted into canals. The fur trade will chiefly centre in this country.

In the inland country of Virginia and North Carolina, the ſettlements in many parts extend to the mountains. In the eaſtern parts of Virginia, ſettlements have been made in the mountains themſelves, where ſome induſtrious Germans (who found the lands in the vallies taken up,) have eſtabliſhed conſiderable plantations.

South Carolina has immenſe tracts of fertile land unſettled.

The ſtate of Virginia, poſſeſſing lands on the other ſide of the mountains, (and having more immediate communication with the Ohio country on the river) many thouſands have paſſed over them, and ſettled themſelves in

* Morſe's American Geography, p. 427.

that

that tract which lies between the mountains and the river. It is ſaid ſome emigrants have croſſed that river, and ſettled in the country bordering on the lakes.

By a late ſettlement, the country to the ſouthward of the Ohio is included in the ſtate of Virginia. All the country to the northward of this great river, extending from Pennſylvania to the eaſt, the lakes on the north, and the Miſſiſippi on the weſt, are intended to be divided by congreſs into ten new ſtates.

WASHINGTON,	CHERSONESUS,
METROPOTAMIA,	SARATOGA,
PESILIPPA,	SYLVANIA,
MICHIGANIA,	ASSENIPI,
ILLINOIA,	POLYPOTAMIA.

Theſe ten ſtates (ſpreading over an immenſe tract of land,) are traverſed by the great river Ohio, in a courſe of 1200 miles, receiving into its waters the innumerable rivers which are ſcattered over the whole country. On the north they are bounded by the five great lakes, Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario; which empty themſelves into the river S. Laurence. On the eaſt they have the ſtates of New York, Pennſylvania and Virginia, whoſe navigation (as well as the St. Laurence) affords them a direct communication with the Atlantic Ocean. On the ſouth they are partly bounded by the mountains, and on the weſt by the vaſt river Miſſiſippi, (whoſe ſource is unknown) and which after flowing through the great continent of America, (admitting into its ſwelling waves the tributes of a thouſand waters) falls into the gulf of Mexico.

On the 30th Nov. 1782 the proviſional articles of peace and reconciliation between Great Britain and the United States were ſigned at Paris; theſe were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty Sept. 3d. 1783. Thus was terminated a war equally ruinous to Great Britain and America, a war craftily and inſidiouſly fomented by France, the common enemy of both. No ſooner was peace reſtored and the Britiſh troops withdrawn from the country, than the United States began to experience the defects of their general government, and finding that the articles of the confederation would not enable them to ſurmount thoſe national embarraſſments, which they experienced, at length recommended to the ſeveral governments, the appointing of delegates, who met at Philadelphia in June 1787. In this convention ſuch alterations were made on their conſtitution as were ſuited to their preſent circumſtances and calculated to promote unity among the ſeveral members of the confederation, and to give vigour to all their operations. The old congreſs terminated in April 1789. A new congreſs with more ample powers and a new conſtitution partly national and partly federal ſucceeded in their place, to the great joy of all who wiſhed for the happineſs of the United States. By this new conſtitution or rather improvement of the old their ſituation was conſiderably meliorated, they ſtill however continued to experience all the difficulty and embarraſſment which naturally reſult from the neceſſary weakneſs of a new government; in many places the laws were reſiſted, and there wanted ſufficient vigour to enforce obedience, the people were impatient under the taxes which it was neceſſary to impoſe for ſupporting the government and paying the intereſt of the debt contracted during the war; in theſe circumſtances it is probable that a great part of the people found themſelves diſappointed of the happineſs they had

had promiſed themſelves as the fruit of their independence, and began to ſuſpect, that, their imaginations being dazzled by a phantom, which did not in reality exiſt, they had purchaſed at an immenſe price what was merely a name. Time has in ſome degree remedied theſe evils, and by the gradual operation of the ſame agent, the government of the United States will, it is to be hoped, increaſe in energy and ſtability; and like the Britiſh conſtitution of which it is the legitimate offspring, become the parent of proſperity and happineſs to every order of the people. At the breaking out of the French revolution, while the terror and alarm which it excited in all the nations of Europe, warned them to keep at a diſtance from the mighty ruin, various circumſtances ſerved rather to cement the union of France America. They had eſpouſed her cauſe during her ſtruggle with theand mother-country, by her aſſiſtance they had been enabled to ſecure their independence, and though the principles of the revolutionary government of France were as inimical to the American government as they were to every other, yet their diſtance from the ſcene of action and the little intercourſe which the people of one country could have with the other, removed all apprehenſion of danger; perhaps the very name of republic ſerved to promote their union; another reaſon may have operated as powerfully as either, the propagation of the pernicious principles of the French revolution among the people of America. But whatever friendly diſpoſition might exiſt in that country towards France, or to the new order of things eſtabliſhed there, ſhe wiſely determined to make uſe of the advantages of her ſituation, far removed from the contending powers, and to adhere to the ſtricteſt neutrality; it is however impoſſible but that neutral nations muſt experience many things from the conduct of the powers at war, giving riſe to diſcuſſion and negociation; ſubjects of this ſort frequently occurred betwixt Great Britain and America. The rules laid down by the former country at the beginning of the war reſpecting the commerce of France and her colonies, although ſtrictly conformable to the law and practice of nations, and to the conduct obſerved in all former wars, had been greatly miſrepreſented by the activity of the French partizans who abounded in America; theſe miſrepreſentations were not without their effects there, ſo much that at one time matters ſeemed to wear a very threatening appearance; all the miſchiefs however which would have reſulted from a commencement of hoſtilities were prevented by the timely prudence and pacific diſpoſition of both countries: and a treaty of mutual friendſhip and amity was ſigned at London in 1794 by Lord Grenville and Mr Jay; this treaty notwithſtanding all the arts and influence of the French party was afterwards ratified by congreſs. From the beginning of the war the object of France had been to prevail upon America to make a common cauſe with her, and as the likelieſt means to promote theſe views, every effort was made to foment jealouſies and diviſions betwixt Great Britain and America. It is not therefore to be wondered at, that her diſappointment ſhould break out into rage, when by this treaty ſhe ſaw all her proſpects of embroiling the two countries totally blaſted, all their differences compoſed, and the foundation of a friendly intercourſe ſolidly laid. To this ſource alone may be traced all the complaints of the French government againſt this treaty betwixt Great Britain and the United States; for it contains not one article capable of being conſtrued into a violation, or even inconſiſtency with any former treaties by which America ſtood bound to other nations; nor can it in any degree be conſidered as the ſmalleſt departure from the principles of that ſtrict neutrality, to which from the beginning of the war, ſhe ſeemed determined to adhere,

adhere, unleſs driven from it by acts of violence on the part of either of the contending powers. Soon after this France was induced to throw aſide the very thin veil by which ſhe had endeavoured to cover all her proceedings towards the United States; the conſequences were ſuch acts of aggreſſion, inſult and outrage on her part as it was impoſſible for any people to bear, without renouncing all title to the character of a brave and independent nation.

Anxious however to preſerve to their country the bleſſings of peace, embaſſadors were ſent to Paris, if poſſible to ſettle their exiſting differences by negociation; they were treated by the French rulers with the utmoſt contempt, they were not ſo much as received in their public character, and they were given to underſtand by ſome private communication, that the buſineſs of their miſſion could not even be entered upon without ſubmitting themſelves to France; in the courſe of theſe private communications ſuch a diſcovery was made of the infamous duplicity and unprincipled meanneſs of the French rulers as is truly aſtoniſhing, if any thing of this ſort from ſuch men could be aſtoniſhing; but for an account of this as well as of every thing that paſſed at Paris betwixt the agents of the directory and the American plenipotentaries we muſt refer to the account publiſhed by themſelves after leaving France. This account was attended with the beſt effects in America; ſuch appeared to be the inſolent views of France ſo unequivocal and undiſguiſed that every man of virtue and diſcernment in the United States, was at once perſuaded that they had no alternative but either to reſiſt the encroachments of France or tamely ſubmit themſelves to her power. They found themſelves therefore in the ſame dilemna in which all the kingdoms of Europe now ſtand; but here a brave people ſprung from the land of liberty could not long heſitate which to chuſe; one principle ſeemed at once to actuate and unite the whole country in a firm reſolution to preſerve their liberty and repel the unjuſt aggreſſions of an inſulting foe; and we cannot entertain a doubt, but their vigorous efforts will be crowned with ſucceſs.

WEST INDIES.

WE have already obſerved, that between the two continents of America lie a multitude of iſlands which we call the Weſt Indies, and which, ſuch as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and ſeaſons of theſe iſlands, differ widely from what we can form any idea of, by what we perceive at home, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them in general, and mention ſome other particulars that are peculiar to the Weſt-Indies.

The climate in all our Weſt Indian iſlands is nearly the ſame, allowing for thoſe accidental differences which the ſeveral ſituations and qualities of the lands themſelves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the ſun goes

quite over their heads, paſſing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about 30 degrees to the ſouth, they are continually ſubjected to the extreme of an heat, which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, riſing gradually as the ſun gathers ſtrength, did not blow in upon them from the ſea, and refreſh the air in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to attend to their concerns even under the meridian ſun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

By the ſame remarkable Providence in the diſpoſing of things, it is, that when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, as ſhield them from his direct beams; and diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the Weſt Indies (and we may add in the Eaſt Indies) are by no means ſo moderate as with us. Our heavieſt rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuoſity; the rivers riſe in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time, all the low country is under water *. Hence it is the rivers which have their ſource within the tropics, ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon; but ſo miſtaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and ſcorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reaſon uninhabitable; when, in reality, ſome of the largeſt rivers of the world have their courſe within its limits, and the moiſture is one of the greateſt inconveniencies of the climate in ſeveral places.

The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no froſts, no ſnows, and but rarely ſome hail; the ſtorms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailſtones very great and heavy.——Whether it be owing to this moiſture, which alone does not ſeem to be a ſufficient cauſe, or to a greater quantity of a ſulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are ſubject to the action of ſuch cauſes, ruſt and canker in a very ſhort time; and this cauſe, perhaps as much as the heat itſelf, contributes to make the climate of the Weſt Indies unfriendly and unpleaſant to an European conſtitution.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon (principally in the month of Auguſt, more rarely in July and September) that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes; the moſt terrible calamity to which they are ſubject (as well as the people in the Eaſt Indies) from the climate; this deſtroys, at a ſtroke, the labours of many years, and proſtrates the moſt exalted hopes of the planter, and often juſt at the moment when he thinks himſelf out of the reach of fortune. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance, which the elements can aſſemble, that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt, they ſee as the prelude to the enſuing havock, whole fields of ſugar-canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country. The ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; their windmills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeve-

* See Wafer's Journey acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien.

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ral hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houſes are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which in an hour riſes five feet, ruſhes in upon them with an irreſiſtible violence.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full or change of the moon. If it comes at the full moon, obſerve theſe ſigns. That day you will ſee the ſky very turbulent; you will obſerve the ſun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear of all thoſe clouds and miſts which uſually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling ſound, like the ruſhing of a great wind. At night the ſtars ſeem much larger than uſual, and ſurrounded with a ſort of burs; the north-weſt ſky has a black and menacing look; the ſea emits a ſtrong ſmell, and riſes into vaſt waves, often without any wind; the wind itſelf now forſakes its uſual ſteady eaſterly ſtream, and ſhifts about to the weſt; from whence it ſometimes blows with intermiſſions violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herſelf is ſurrounded with a great bur, and ſometimes the ſun has the ſame appearance. Theſe are ſigns which the Indians of theſe iſlands taught our planters, by which they can prognoſticate the appearance of an hurricane.

The grand ſtaple commodity of the Weſt Indies is ſugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the firſt knowledge of it; but the Portugueſe were the firſt who cultivated it in America, and brought it into requeſt, as one of the materials of a very univerſal luxury in Europe. It is not ſettled whether the cane, from which this ſubſtance is extracted be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portugueſe, from India and the coaſt of Africa; but, however that matter may be, in the beginning they made the moſt, as they ſtill do the beſt ſugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the ſugar-cane is the moſt lively, elegant, and leaſt cloying ſweet in nature; and which, ſucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholeſome. From the molaſſes rum is diſtilled, and from the ſcummings of the ſugar a meaner ſpirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is conſumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or diſtributed from thence to the fiſhery of Newfoundland, and other parts; beſides what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molaſſes is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be diſtilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle, and the refuſe of the cane, after grinding, ſerves for fire; ſo that no part of this excellent plant is without its uſe.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molaſſes pay the charges of the plantation, and the ſugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars we have ſeen, and by others which we may eaſily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the Weſt-Indies are very great, and the profits at the firſt view precarious; for the chargeable articles of the windmill, the boiling, cooling, and diſtilling houſes, and the buying and ſubſiſting a ſuitable number of ſlaves and cattle, will not ſuffer any man to begin a ſugar plantation of any conſequence, not to mention the purchaſe of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at leaſt 5000l. Neither is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleneſs and luxury; at all times he muſt keep a watchful eye upon his overſeers, and even overſee himſelf occaſionally. But at the boiling ſeaſon, if he is properly attentive

tentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a conſtant attendance day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and ſo many fiery furnaces; add to this, the loſſes by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad ſeaſons; and then conſider when the ſugars are in the caſk, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ſhips his produce at his own riſk. Theſe conſiderations might make one believe, that it could never anſwer to engage in this buſineſs; but, notwithſtanding all this, there are no parts of the world, in which great eſtates are made in ſo ſhort a time, from the produce of the earth, as the Weſt Indies. The produce of a few good ſeaſons generally provides againſt the ill effects of the worſt, as the planter is ſure of a ſpeedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier ſale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overſeer, who has commonly a ſalary of 150l. a year, with overſeers under him in proportion to the greatneſs of the plantation; one to about 30 negroes, with a ſalary of about 40l. Such plantations too have a ſurgeon at a fixed ſalary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the courſe which is the leaſt troubleſome to the owner of the eſtate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the ſtock of cattle and ſlaves, to a tenant, who gives ſecurity for the payment of the rent, and the keeping up repairs and ſtock. The eſtate is generally eſtimated to ſuch a tenant at half the neat produce of the beſt years; ſuch tenants, if induſtrious and frugal men, ſoon make good eſtates for themſelves.

The negroes in the plantations are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a ſmall portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: ſome are ſubſiſted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to ſome a ſalt herring, or a ſmall portion of bacon or ſalt pork a-day. All the reſt of the charge conſiſts in a cap, a ſhirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10 or 12l. annually. The price of men negroes upon their firſt arrival is from 30l. to 36l. women and grown boys 50s. leſs; but ſuch negro families as are acquainted with the buſineſs of the iſlands generally bring above 40l. upon an average one with another; and there are inſtances of a ſingle negro man expert in buſineſs bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of ſlaves he poſſeſſes.

To particulariſe the commodities proper for the Weſt India market, would be to enumerate all the neceſſaries, conveniencies, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, ſpices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they ſell; but from the numerous ſhipping conſtantly arriving from Europe, and a continual ſucceſſion of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or leſs as a venture, the Weſt India market is frequently overſtocked; money muſt be raiſed, and goods are ſometimes ſold at prime coſt or under. But thoſe who can afford to ſtore their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftſmen, eſpecially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the Weſt Indies, that phyſicians and ſurgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the American war, there were allowed to be in our Weſt Indies at leaſt

leaſt 230,000 negro ſlaves; and, upon the higheſt calculation, the whites there in all did not amount to 90,000 ſouls. This diſproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more viſible every day, ſome writers have endeavoured to account for, by alleging, that the enterpriſing ſpirit, which the novelty of the object, and various concurrent cauſes, had produced in the laſt century, has decayed very much. That the diſpoſition of the Weſt Indians themſelves, who for cheapneſs chooſe to do every thing by negroes which can poſſibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the ſmall number of whites of the lower ſtations. Such indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in conſtant terror of inſurrections and plots, many families employ 25 or 30 negroes as menial ſervants, who are infinitely the moſt dangerous of the ſlaves, and in caſe of any inſurrection they have it more in their power to ſtrike a ſudden and fatal blow: and the cruelty with which the negroes are often treated, gives the white inhabitants too much reaſon for their apprehenſions, that the negroes may endeavour to revenge themſelves upon their maſters.

The firſt obſervation that has been mentioned, in order to account for the preſent diſproportion between the freemen and the negroes in the Weſt Indies, we think it is not well founded; that enterpriſing ſpirit which firſt led Britons out to diſcovery and colonization, ſtill animates in a very conſiderable degree the people of this nation; but the field has been lately more ample and enlarged, and emigrants have had greater ſcope whereon to range. Beſides the vaſt continent of North America, which takes in ſuch a variety of climates, and diſcovers ſuch a richneſs of ſoil; the Eaſt Indies, an inexhauſtible mine of riches, have in ſome degree drawn the attention of mankind from that of the Weſt. Countries as well as individuals, attain a name and reputation for ſomething extraordinary, and have their day. Many of the beſt families of this nation are ambitious of procuring places for their ſons in the Eaſt Indies. Here is an ample field for all adventurous ſpirits, who, diſdaining an idle life at home, and ambitious of becoming uſeful to themſelves, their connections, or the community, boldly venture into the immenſe regions of this Eaſtern world. Others, full as remote from an indolent diſpoſition, but with leſs conduct and inferior abilities, ſet out with the moſt ſanguine hopes. Theſe are your fiery, reſtleſs tempers, willing to undertake the ſevereſt labour, provided it promiſes but a ſhort continuance, who love riſk and hazard, whoſe ſchemes are always vaſt, and who put no medium between being great and being undone.

The iſlands of the Weſt Indies lie in the form of a bow, or ſemicircle, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida north, to the River Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the firſt inhabitants; though this is a term that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward Iſlands. Sailors diſtinguiſh them into the Windward and Leeward Iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena or New Spain and Portobello.——The geographical tables and maps diſtinguiſh them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] The firſt that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and alſo the moſt important, after leaving Florida, is Jamaica, which lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of weſt longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the eaſt and weſt it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing leſs towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles ſouth-weſt of England.

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This iſland is interſected with a ridge of ſteep rocks tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a ſtupendous manner upon one another. Theſe rocks, though containing no ſoil on their ſurface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flouriſhing in a perpetual ſpring; they are nouriſhed by the rains, which often fall, or the miſts which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their roots penetrating the crannies of the rocks, induſtriouſly ſeek out for their own ſupport. From the rocks iſſue a vaſt number of ſmall rivers of pure wholeſome water, which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the ſtupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a moſt delightful landſcape. On each ſide of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminiſh as they remove from it. On theſe coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies or plains between thoſe ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in moſt other countries, and the ſoil is prodigiouſly fertile.

The longeſt day in ſummer is about thirteen hours, and the ſhorteſt in winter about eleven; but the moſt uſual diviſions of the ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies are into the dry and wet ſeaſons. The air of this iſland is in moſt places, exceſſively hot, and unfavourable to European conſtitutions; but the cool ſea breezes, which ſet in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almoſt every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and roars with aſtoniſhing loudneſs, and the lightning in theſe violent ſtorms frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes, of which we ſhall ſpeak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue ſometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found ſeveral ſalt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spaniſh Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the moſt terrible endemial diſtempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greateſt and moſt valuable production of this iſland. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces alſo ginger, and the pimento or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cinnamon-tree, whoſe bark is ſo uſeful in medicine; the manchineel, whoſe fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worſt poiſons in nature; the mahogany, in ſuch uſe with our cabinet-makers, and of the moſt valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large ſize and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardneſs of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma affording oil, much eſteemed by the ſavages, both in food and medicine; the ſoap-tree, whoſe berries anſwer all purpoſes of waſhing; the mangrove and olive bark, uſeful to tanners; the fuſtic and redwood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton-tree is ſtill ſo. No ſort of European grain grows here; they have only maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them reſembling ours, with variety of roots. Fruits, as has been already obſerved, grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and ſweet lemons, limes, ſhadocks, pomegranates, mamees, ſourſops, papas, pine-apples, cuſtard-apples, ſtar-apples, prickly pears, allicada, pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and ſeveral kinds of berries, alſo garden ſtuffs in great plenty, and good. The cattle bred on this iſland are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb, are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs; many

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plantations have hundreds of them, and their fleſh is exceedingly ſweet and delicate. Their horſes are ſmall, mettleſome, and hardy, and when well made, generally ſell for 30 or 40l ſterling. Jamaica likewiſe ſupplies the apothecary with guaiacum, ſarſaparilla, china, caſſia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and ſea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all ſorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other iſlands; beſides parroquets, pelicans, ſnips, teal, Guinea hens, geeſe, ducks, and turkies; the humming bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fiſh. The mountains breed numberleſs adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marſhes do, the guana and gallewaſp; but theſe laſt are not venomous. Among the inſects are the ciror or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the fleſh of the negroes, and the white people are ſometimes plagued with them. Theſe inſects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and ſhut themſelves up in a bag. As ſoon as the perſon feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or point of a penknife, taking care to deſtroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They ſometimes get into the toes, and eat the fleſh to the very bone.

This iſland was originally a part of the Spaniſh empire in America. Several deſcents had been made upon it by the Engliſh, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion.—Cromwell had fitted out a ſquadron under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, but there this ſquadron was unſucceſsful. The commanders of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a deſcent upon Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, ſoon compelled the whole iſland to ſurrender. Ever ſince it has been ſubject to the Engliſh, and the government of it is one of the richeſt places, next to that of Ireland, in the diſpoſal of the crown, the ſtanding ſalary being 2,500l. per annum, and the aſſembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquiſites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

We have already obſerved, that the government of all the American iſlands is the ſame, namely, that kind which we have formerly deſcribed under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is univerſally of the church of England; though they have no biſhop, the biſhop of London's commiſſary being the chief religious magiſtrate in thoſe parts.

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and that of the negroes to 120,000. It appears at preſent that Jamaica is rather on the decline, as is the number of inhabitants, the whites not exceeding 25,000, and the blacks 90,000. Beſides theſe, a number of fugitive negroes have formed a ſort of colony among the Blue Mountains, independent of the whites, with whom they make treaties, and are in ſome reſpects uſeful to the inhabitants of the iſland, particularly in ſending back runaway ſlaves.

Indigo was once very much cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the iſland to ſo great a degree, that in the pariſh of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are ſaid to have had no leſs than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number perhaps even the whole iſland exceeds not at this day; and there is great reaſon to believe, that there were many more perſons of property in Jamaica formerly than there are now; though perhaps they had

had not thoſe vaſt fortunes which dazzle us in ſuch a manner at preſent. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diſeaſes, which, treading on the heels of the former calamities, ſwept away vaſt multitudes. The decreaſe of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, ariſes from the difficulties to which their trade is expoſed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain: as that they are of late deprived of the moſt beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spaniſh coaſt; the low value of their produce, which they aſcribe to the great improvements the French make in their ſugar colonies, who are enabled to underſell them by the lowneſs of their duties; and the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch iſlands, where they pay no duties, and are ſupplied with goods at an eaſier rate. Some of theſe complaints, which equally affect the other iſlands, have been heard, and ſome remedies applied; others remain unredreſſed. Both the log-wood trade, and this contraband, have been the ſubjects of much contention, and the cauſe of a war between Great Britain and the Spaniſh nation. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right, and at the peace of 1763, it was confirmed to us. The latter we permitted; becauſe we thought, and very juſtly, that if the Spaniards found themſelves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a ſtop to it, by their guarda coſtas which cruiſe in theſe ſeas, purpoſely to ſeize and confiſcate ſuch veſſels and cargoes as are found in this trade. In this manner did the Britiſh court argue, till the politics of this nation, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to ſend Engliſh cruiſers to the American coaſt, effectually to cruſh that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of Britiſh ſubjects in America loudly complained, as it put a ſtop to the principal channel which hitherto enabled them to remit ſo largely to Great Britain.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thouſand ſail of large ſhips, and of ſuch depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greateſt eaſe, weighed ſo much with the inhabitants, that they choſe to build their capital on this ſpot, though the place was a hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life, not even freſh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the reſort of pirates, made it a place of great conſideration. Theſe pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with an inconſiderate bravery, and then ſpent their fortune in this capital with as inconſiderate diſſipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place, for its ſize, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, ſo as to leave, in one quarter, not even the ſmalleſt veſtige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and ſwallowed up nine-tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand people. The water guſhed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were caſt away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes, and did not overſet, but afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who ſaved their lives upon her

her. An officer, who was in town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground, and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place appearing for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts, mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a second time, ten years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbish by a hurricane, the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants, therefore, resolved to forsake it for ever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston, which is lately become the capital of the island. It consists of upwards of one thousand houses, many of them handsomely built, and in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticos, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingston, stands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spanish town which though at present inferior to Kingston, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

On the 3d of October 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almost overwhelmed the little sea port town of Savannah-la-Mer, in Jamaica, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houses were left standing, and a great number of lives were lost. Much damage was also done, and many lives perished, in other parts of the island.

In 1795, Jamaica was not exempted from the calamities which afflicted the other West India Islands. On the 14th of June, a dreadful fire broke out at Montego bay, which consumed an immense quantity of stores, and reduced to ashes the greater part of the town. This was succeeded by a calamity of a still more serious aspect, a war with the Maroons. After several bloody engagements in which the British had generally the advantage, the Maroons by the indefatigable zeal of general Walpole were completely hemmed in. They were reduced to such distress, that they surrendered to the British together with their families, and were removed in the month of June following to Lower Canada, where lands were provided for them, and where they are to form a settlement.

The whole product of the island may be reduced to those heads. First, sugars, of which they exported in 1753, twenty thousand three hundred and fifteen hogsheads, some vastly great, even to a tun weight, which cannot be worth less in England than 424,725l. Most of this goes to London, Bristol, and Glasgow, and some part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, staves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from hence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thousand puncheons. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great Britain. Third, molasses, in which they made a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vast distilleries. All these are the produce of the grand staple, the sugar-cane. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter, in Jamaica, that island hath 280,000 acres in canes of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of sugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cocoa and coffee

are exported, with a conſiderable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweatmeats, mahogany, and manchineel planks. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carried on a vaſt and profitable trade in Negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica and the Spaniſh Main goes on, which will be impoſſible for Spain to ſtop, whilſt it is ſo profitable to the Britiſh merchant, and whilſt the Spaniſh officers, from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhew ſo great a reſpect to preſents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilſt they appear to live in ſuch a ſtate of luxury, as in moſt other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes, in a manner, inſtantly. Their equipages, their clothes, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greateſt wealth and profuſion imaginable. This obliges all the treaſure they receive to make but a very ſhort ſtay, being hardly more than ſufficient to anſwer the calls of their neceſſity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of ſilk, and veſts trimmed with ſilver. At other times they generally wear only thread ſtockings, linnen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linnen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a check ſhirt. The negroes, except thoſe who attend gentlemen, who have them dreſſed in their own livery, have once a year Oſnaburghs, and a blanket for clothing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a looſe night-gown, careleſly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off the diſhabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dreſs.

The common drink of perſons in affluent circumſtances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter ſells for a ſhilling per bottle. But the general drink, eſpecially among thoſe of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call Kill-Devil, becauſe being frequently drunk to exceſs, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which in a few hours ſend them to the grave, eſpecially thoſe who are juſt come to the iſland, which is the reaſon that ſo many die here upon their firſt arrival.

Engliſh money is ſeldom ſeen here, the current coin being entirely Spaniſh. There is no place where ſilver is ſo plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for leſs than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets beef, pork, fowl and fiſh, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton ſells at nine pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; there are indeed ſome gentlemen well verſed in literature, and who ſend their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade or riotous diſſipation.

The miſery and hardſhips of the Negroes are truly moving: and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill treatment they receive ſo ſhortens their lives, that inſtead of increaſing by the courſe of nature, many thouſands are annually imported to the Weſt Indies, to ſupply the place of thoſe who pine and die by the hardſhips they receive. It is ſaid, that

that they are ſtubborn and untractable, for the moſt part, and that they muſt be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought not to be cruſhed with it, or to be thought a ſort of beaſts, without ſouls, as ſome of their maſters or overſeers do at preſent, though ſome of theſe tyrants are themſelves the dregs of this nation, and the refuſe of the jails of Europe. Many of the Negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their ſituations eaſy and comfortable; and it has been obſerved, that in North America, where in general theſe poor wretches are better uſed, there is a leſs waſte of Negroes, they live longer, and propagate better. And it ſeems clear, from the whole courſe of hiſtory, that thoſe nations which have behaved with the greateſt humanity to their ſlaves, were always beſt ſerved, and ran the leaſt hazard from their rebellions.—The ſlaves on their firſt arrival from the coaſt of Guinea, are expoſed naked to ſale; they are then generally very ſimple and innocent creatures, but ſoon become roguiſh enough; and when they come to be whipped excuſe their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every Negroe returns to his native country after death. This thought is ſo agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life eaſy, which would otherwiſe, to many of them, be quite intolerable.—They look on death as a bleſſing, and it is ſurpriſing to ſee with what courage and intrepidity ſome of them meet it; they are quite tranſported to think their ſlavery is near at an end, that they ſhall reviſit their native ſhores, and ſee their old friends and acquaintance. When a negroe is about to expire, his fellow ſlaves kiſs him, and wiſh him a good journey, and ſend their hearty good wiſhes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentation; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home, and happy.

BARBADOES.] This iſland, the moſt eaſterly of all the Caribbees, is ſituated in 59 degrees weſt long. and 13 degrees north lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. When the Engliſh, ſome time after the year 1625, firſt landed here, they found it the moſt ſavage and deſtitute place they had hitherto viſited. It had not the leaſt appearance of ever having been peopled even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſts of paſture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for ſupporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was ſo good, and the ſoil appeared fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortunes in England reſolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were ſo large, and of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence. By unremitting perſeverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable ſupport; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, anſwered tolerably. Theſe proſpects, together with the ſtorm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport themſelves into this iſland. And what is extremely remarkable, ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its firſt ſettlement, that in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of Negroes and Indian ſlaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery. A practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcileable to us ever ſince. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate ſugar, which ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy.—The number of the ſlaves therefore was ſtill augmented; and in 1676, it is ſuppoſed that their number

amounted to 100,000 which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this ſmall ſpot; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 ſail of ſhips, one with another of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 350,000l. and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000l. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of 50 years. But ſince that time, this iſland has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar-colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. Their numbers at preſent are ſaid to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 ſlaves. Their commerce conſiſts in the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent. The capital is Bridgetown, where the governor reſides, whoſe employment is ſaid to be worth 5000l. per annum. They have a college, founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has ſuffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October 1780, a dreadful hurricane occaſioned vaſt devaſtation in Barbadoes, great numbers of the houſes were deſtroyed, not one houſe in the iſland was wholly free from damage, many perſons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the ſea, and there periſhed.

ST. CHRISTOPHER's.] This iſland, commonly called by the ſailors St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 62 degrees weſt long. and 17 degrees north lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long and ſeven broad. It has its name from the famous Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention: and in 1626, it was ſettled by the French and Engliſh conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Beſides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much ſugar as Barbadoes, and ſometimes quite as much. It is computed that this iſland contains 6000 whites, and 36,000 Negroes. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but was reſtored again to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in 61 deg. W. lon. and 17 deg. N. lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This iſland, which was formerly thought uſeleſs, has now got the ſtart of the reſt of the Engliſh harbours, being the beſt and ſafeſt as a dock-yard, and an eſtabliſhment for the royal navy; but St. John's is the port of greateſt trade; and this capital, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary ſeat of the governor of the Leeward iſlands. Antigua is ſuppoſed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 ſlaves.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two ſmall iſlands, lying between St. Chriſtopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and are ſaid each to contain 5000 whites, and 10,000 ſlaves. The ſoil in theſe four iſlands is pretty much alike, light and ſandy, but notwithſtanding, fertile in a high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the ſugar cane. Both were taken by the French in the year 1782, but reſtored at the peace.

BARBUDA.] Situated in 18 deg. N. lat. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has an indifferent road for ſhipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in huſbandry, and raiſing freſh proviſions for the uſe of the neighbouring iſles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

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ANGUILLA.] Situated in 19 deg. N. lat. 60 miles north-weſt of St. Chriſtopher's, is about 30 miles long and 10 broad. This iſland is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the ſame with that of Jamaica.—The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themſelves to huſbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situated in 16 deg. N. lat. and in 62 W. lon. lies about half way between Guadaloupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth: it got its name from being diſcovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The ſoil of this iſland is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than ſugar; but the ſides of the hills bear the fineſt trees in the Weſt Indies, and the iſland is well ſupplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always oppoſed our ſettling here, becauſe it muſt cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadaloupe. However, by the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded in expreſs terms to the Engliſh; but we have derived little advantage from this conqueſt, the iſland being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Carribbees, who being expelled their own ſettlements, have taken refuge here. But, on account of its ſituation between the principal French iſlands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the moſt capacious in the Weſt Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itſelf, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but was reſtored again to Great Britain by the late peace. A plan was concerted for the reduction of this iſland in 1793 by Victor Hughes; the enemy were, however attacked by the inhabitants with ſuch ſpirit, that they were obliged to ſubmit.

ST. VINCENT.] Situated in 13 deg. N. lat. and 61. deg. W. lon. 50 miles north weſt of Barbadoes, 30 miles ſouth of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a ſtrong loam, the moſt proper for the raiſing of ſugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well, but this article is leſs cultivated than formerly throughout the Weſt Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here are alſo fugitives from Barbadoes and the other iſlands. The Caribbeans were treated with ſo much injuſtice and barbarity, after this iſland came into poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get poſſeſſion of it again in 1779; but it was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace. In 1795 an inſurrection broke out among the Carribbs, who repulſed the Britiſh troops in ſeveral ſerious conflicts. They were obliged ſoon after to ſubmit to the Britiſh arms.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.] Granada is ſituated in 12 deg. north lat. and 62 deg. weſt lon. about 30 leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is ſaid to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved, that the ſoil of this iſland is extremely proper for producing ſugar, coffee, tobacco, and Indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt Indies, of its dimenſions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the iſland, ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for ſhipping; and has the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a ſandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening place, 100 large veſſels may be moored with perfect ſafety. This iſland was long the theatre of bloody wars between

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the native Indians and the French, during which theſe handful of Carribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery. In the laſt war but one, when Granada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the ſmall iſlands on the north, called the Granadines, which yield the ſame produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763.—But in July 1779, the French made themſelves maſters of this iſland, though it was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace. Granada in 1795 at the ſame time that the other iſlands were in a ſtate of tumult likewiſe ſuffered the calamities of an inſurrection. The inſurgents, were ſeconded by Victor Hughes, who was diſpatched thither with a ſmall detachment of French troops, but they were obliged at laſt to ſubmit to the Britiſh.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Excluſive of the Weſt-India ſugar iſlands, lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims ſeveral others, that are ſeated at the diſtance of ſome thouſand miles from each other, in this quarter of the globe, of which we ſhall ſpeak according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is ſituated to the eaſt of the gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 53 and 59 deg. weſt long. ſeparated from Labrador or New Britain by the Straits of Belleiſle, and from Canada by the Bay of St. Lawrence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland we are far from reaping any ſudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued, and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the ſoil, at leaſt in thoſe parts of the iſland with which we are acquainted, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the ſea-coaſt perhaps is no very remote proſpect) it is ſaid, will afford a large ſupply for maſts, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt-India trade. But what at preſent it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fiſhery of cod, carried on upon thoſe ſhoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the loweſt computation, annually employ 3000 ſail of ſmall craft in this fiſhery; on board of which, and on ſhore to cure and pack the fiſh, are upwards of 10,000 hands; ſo that this fiſhery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a ſource of livelihood to ſo many thouſands of poor people, and a moſt excellent nurſery to the royal navy. This fiſhery is computed to increaſe the national ſtock 300,000l. a year in gold and ſilver, remitted to us for the cod we ſell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod both on the Great Bank, and the leſſer ones, which lie on the eaſt and ſouth-eaſt of this iſland, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but ſeveral other ſpecies of fiſh are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the ſhores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the Iſle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fiſheries are carried on upon all their coaſts, from which we may obſerve, that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or ſo barren as not to produce any thing from their ſoil, their coaſts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that ariſing from the moſt fertile ſoil.

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This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Laurence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the south of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, who stipulated to erect no fortifications on these islands, nor to keep more than 50 soldiers to enforce the police. By the last treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fisheries on the north and west coast of the island. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John; but not above 1000 families remain here in the winter.

CAPE BRETON.] This island, seated between Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, is in length about 110 miles. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisburgh, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water.

The French began a settlement in this island in 1714, which they continued to increase, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, dispossessed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, ceded to the French, who spared no expence to fortify and strengthen it. Notwithstanding which, it was again reduced, in 1758, by the British troops under general Amherst and Admiral Boscawen, together with a large body of New-England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty-one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and stores: and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisburgh dismantled.

ST. JOHN's.] Situated in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, and has many fine rivers; and though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to 4000, submitted quietly to the British arms; and, to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was styled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS, or SUMMER ISLANDS.] These received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Islands, from sir George Summers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated, at a vast distance from any continent, in 32 deg. north lat. and 75 degrees west lon. Their distance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there expresses it, 'walled with rocks.' The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions are perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the cultiva-

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tion of the vine, the chief and only buſineſs of the inhabitants, who conſiſt of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light ſloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the Weſt Indies. Theſe veſſels are as remarkable for their ſwiftneſs, as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is ſeated at the bottom of a haven in the iſland of the ſame name, and is defended with ſeven or eight forts, and ſeventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houſes, a handſome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY'S OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahama are ſituated to the ſouth of Carolina, between 12 and 27 degrees north lat. and 73 and 81 degrees weſt lon. They extend along the coaſt of Florida quite down to the iſle of Cuba; and are ſaid to be 500 in number, ſome of them only mere rocks; but 12 of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the ſoil of Carolina: they are, however, almoſt uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles eaſt of Floridas; though ſome others are larger and more fertile, on which the Engliſh have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spaniſh galleons ſail in their paſſage to Europe. Theſe iſlands were the firſt fruits of Columbus's diſcoveries; but they were not known to the Engliſh till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his paſſage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a ſecond time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The Engliſh, obſerving the advantageous ſituation of theſe iſlands for being a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to ſettle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky incidents prevented this ſettlement from being of any advantage, and the Iſle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infeſted the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to ſend out captain Woods Rogers with a fleet to diſlodge the pirates, and for making a ſettlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was ſtationed in the iſland. Ever ſince this laſt ſettlement theſe iſlands have been improving, though they advance but ſlowly. In time of war, people gain conſiderably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves. The Spaniards captured theſe iſlands during the laſt war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Auguſtine, April 7th, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and Weſt-India iſlands, we ſhall now proceed along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of America, as far as the 52d. deg. of ſouth lat. where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland Iſlands ſituated near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmoſt extremity of South America. Falkland Iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps. They have occaſioned ſome conteſt between Spain and Great Britain, but being of very little worth, ſeem to have been ſilently abandoned by the latter, in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the Spaniſh court.

MARTINICO.] Which is ſituated between 14 and 15 deg. of north lat. and in 61 degrees weſt lon. lying about 40 leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, upon every ſide, a number of agreeable

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and uſeful rivers, which adorn and enrich this iſland in a high degree. The produce of the ſoil is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and ſuch fruits as are found in the neighbouring iſlands. But ſugar is here, as in all the Weſt-India iſlands, the principal commodity, of which they export a conſiderable quantity annually. Martinico was formerly the reſidence of the governor of the French iſlands in theſe ſeas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, ſafe, and commodious, and ſo well fortified, that they uſed to bid defiance to the Engliſh, who in vain, often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, when the Britiſh arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this iſland was added to the Britiſh empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace. Since the beginning of the preſent war (1799) it has been reduced by the Britiſh arms and ſtill remains in their poſſeſſion.

ST. LUCIA.] Situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. weſt lon. 80 miles north-weſt of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being diſcovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The Engliſh firſt ſettled on this iſland in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the Engliſh, that this iſland, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, ſhould remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to ſettle theſe iſlands; which, by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this iſland to France. The ſoil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleaſant rivers, and well-ſituated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain reſtrictions. The Engliſh made themſelves maſters of it in 1778; but it was reſtored again to the French in 1783. The Britiſh made themſelves maſters of this iſland in 1794, and it ſtill remains in their poſſeſſion.

TOBAGO.] This iſland is ſituated 11 degrees odd min. north lat. 120 miles ſouth of Barbadoes, and about the ſame diſtance from the Spaniſh Main. It is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not ſo hot as might be expected ſo near the equator; and it is ſaid that it lies out of the courſe of thoſe hurricanes that have ſometimes proved ſo fatal to the other Weſt-India iſlands. It has a fruitful ſoil, capable of producing ſugar, and indeed every thing elſe that is raiſed in the Weſt-Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous ſprings; and its bays and creeks are ſo diſpoſed as to be very commodious for all kinds of ſhipping. The value and importance of this iſland appear from the expenſive and formidable armaments ſent thither by European powers in ſupport of their different claims. It ſeems to have been chiefly poſſeſſed by the Dutch, who defended their pretenſions againſt both England and France with the moſt obſtinate perſeverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June 1781, it was taken by the French; and was ceded to them by the treaty of 1782. This iſland in 1794 was reduced by the Britiſh arms, and it ſtill belongs to them.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between 59 and 62 degrees weſt lon. and in 10 degrees north lat. lies between the iſland of Tobago and the Spaniſh Main; from which it is ſeparated by the ſtreights of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthful, but fruitful ſoil, producing ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and ſome cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French 1676, who plundered the iſland, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

It was again taken by the Britiſh forces in 1797, under Sir Ralph Abercrombie and admiral Hervey.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. M.
Length 500 Breadth 440	between	80 and 91 Weſt longitude. 25 and 32 North latitude.	100,000

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Great Britain to Spain by the late treaty of peace, is bounded by Georgia on the North; by the Miſſiſſippi on the Weſt; by the Gulf of Mexico on the South; and by the Bahama Straits on the Eaſt.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Miſſiſſippi, which is one of the fineſt in the world, as well as the largeſt; for, including its turnings and windings, it is ſuppoſed to run a courſe of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with ſands and ſhoals, which deny acceſs to veſſels of any conſiderable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pitman ſays ſeventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon, when, like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almoſt to its ſource. The Mobille, the Apalachicola, and St. John's rivers, are alſo large and noble ſtreams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are St. Bernard's, Aſcenſion, Mobille, Penſacola, Dauphin, Joſeph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninſula.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Very various accounts have been given of theſe particulars in this country; but that the air of Florida is pure and wholeſome, appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who, in theſe reſpects, far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours the Mexicans.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] Eaſt Florida, near the ſea, and 40 miles back, is flat and ſandy. But even the country round St. Auguſtine, in all appearance the worſt in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a-year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon-trees grow here, without cultivation, to a large ſize, and produce better fruit that in Spain and Portugal. The inward country toward the hills is extremely rich and

and fertile, producing ſpontaneouſly the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewiſe favourable to the rearing of European productions.

This country alſo produces rice, indigo, ambergriſe, cochineal, amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quick-ſilver, pit-coal, and iron-ore: pearls are alſo found on the coaſt of Florida: mahogany grows on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula, but inferior in ſize and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here ſo numerous, that you may purchaſe a good ſaddle-horſe, in exchange for goods of five ſhillings value prime coſt; and there are inſtances of horſes being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The chief town in Weſt Florida is Penſacola, N. lat. 30-22. W. long. 87-20. which is ſituated within the bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road is, however, one of the beſt in all the Gulf of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind, being ſurrounded by land on every ſide.

St. Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt Florida, N. lat. 29-45. W. long. 81-12. runs along the ſhore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and encloſed with a ditch. It is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is well furniſhed with cannon.

At the entrance into the harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, which form two channels, whoſe bars, or low tides, have eight feet water.

NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.		Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 Breadth 1600	between	94 and 126 weſt longitude. 23 and 43 north latitude.		600,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the North; by Louiſiana, on the Eaſt; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean, on the South; and by the ſame ocean on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
North-eaſt diviſion	New Mexico Proper	SANTA FE, W. lon. 104. N. lat. 36.
South-eaſt diviſion	Apacheira — —	St. Antonio.
South diviſion	Sonora — —	Tuape.
Weſtern diviſion	California, a peninſula	St. Juan.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Theſe countries lying for the moſt part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a ſoil pro-

productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, they experience great heats in the ſummer, particularly towards the ſea-coaſt; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural hiſtory of theſe countries, is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themſelves know little of the matter, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who here at leaſt ſtill preſerve their independence; they are jealous of diſcovering the natural advantages of theſe countries, which might be an inducement to the other nations of Europe to form ſettlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleaſant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, interſected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with varied kinds of trees, ſome producing excellent fruit. With reſpect to the value of the gold mines in thoſe countries, nothing poſitive can be aſſerted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions, to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, ſettling on the roſe leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the ſweetneſs of refined ſugar, without its whiteneſs. There is alſo another very ſingular natural production; in the heart of the country there are plains of ſalt, quite firm, and clear as cryſtal, which, conſidering the vaſt quantities of fiſh found on its coaſts, might render it an invaluable acquiſition to any induſtrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, AND COMMERCE. } The Spaniſh ſettlements here are comparatively weak; though they are increaſing every day in proportion as new mines are diſcovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians whom the Spaniſh miſſionaries have in many places brought over to Chriſtianity, to a civilized life, and to raiſe corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was diſcovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator, ſir Francis Drake, took poſſeſſion of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief in the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably ſituated for trade, and on its coaſt has a pearl fiſhery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from thoſe of Old Mexico.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 Breadth 600	between	83 and 110 weſt longitude. 8 and 30 north latitude.	318,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the North; by the Gulf of Mexico, on the North-eaſt; by Terra Firma

Firma, on the South-eaſt; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the South-weſt, containing three audiences, viz.

Audiences.	Chief Towns
1. Galicia, or Guadalajarra —	Guadalajarra.
2. Mexico Proper — —	Mexico, W. lon. 100. N. lat 19-54. Acapulco. Vera Cruz.
3. Guatimala — — —	Guatimala *.

Bays.] On the north ſea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco and Salinas.

Capes.] Theſe are the Cape Sardo, Cape St. Martin, Cape Cornducedo, Cape Catoche, Cape Honduras, Cape Cameron, and Cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, Cape Spirito Sancto, Cape Corientes, Cape Gallero, Cape Blanco, Cape Burica, Cape Prucreos, and Cape Mala, in the South Sea.

Winds.] In the gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent ſeas, there are ſtrong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a diſtance from land within the tropics. Near the coaſt, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. Monſoons, and ſee and land breezes, as in Aſia.

Soil and climate.] Mexico, lying for the moſt part within the torrid zone, is exceſſively hot, and on the eaſtern coaſt, where the land is low, marſhy, and conſtantly flooded in the rainy ſeaſons, it is likewiſe extremely unwholeſome. The inland country, however, aſſumes a better aſpect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the weſtern ſide, the land is not ſo low as on the eaſtern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The ſoil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuſe any ſort of grain, were the induſtry of the inhabitants to correſpond with their natural advantages.

Produce.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts are here in the greateſt plenty and perfection. Mexico produces alſo a prodigious quantity of ſugar, eſpecially towards the gulf of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, ſo that here are more ſugar-mills than in any other part of Spaniſh America. Cedar trees and logwood flouriſh much about the Bays of Campeachy and Honduras. The maho-tree alſo, which hath a bark with ſuch ſtrong fibres, as they twiſt and make ropes of. They have alſo a tree, which is called light wood, being as light as a cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandize on the ſea-coaſts. But what is conſidered as the chief glory of this country, and what firſt induced the Spaniards to form ſettlements upon it, are the mines of gold and ſilver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Thoſe of ſilver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in ſeveral parts, but in none ſo much

* This city was ſwallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1772 when eight thouſand families inſtantly periſhed. New Guatimala is built at ſome diſtance, and is well inhabited.

as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the moſt barren and mountainous part of the country: nature making amends in one reſpect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and ſilver mines depends on the ſame principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of ſeveral heterogeneous ſubſtances, mixed with the precious metals, it is broken into ſmall pieces by a mill, and afterwards waſhed, by which means it is diſengaged from the earth, and other ſoft bodies which clung to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all ſubſtances, has the ſtrongeſt attraction for gold, and likewiſe a ſtronger attraction for ſilver than the other ſubſtances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and ſilver are firſt ſeparated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by ſtraining an evaporation, they are diſunited from the mercury itſelf. Of the gold and ſilver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been ſaid. Thoſe who have enquired moſt into this ſubject, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spaniſh America, ſupply the whole world with ſilver. The other articles next in importance to gold and ſilver, are the cochineal and cocoa. After much diſpute concerning the nature of the former, it ſeems at laſt agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the ſpecies of the gall inſects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and ſucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimſon colour. It is from this juice, that the cochineal derives its value, which conſiſts in dying all ſorts of the fineſt ſcarlet, crimſon, and purple. It is alſo uſed in medicine as a ſudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no leſs than nine hundred thouſand pounds weight of this commodity, to anſwer the purpoſes of medicine and dying. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next conſiderable article in the natural hiſtory and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling ſize, which bears a pod about the ſize and ſhape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spaniſh commerce in this article is immenſe; and ſuch is the internal conſumption, as well as the external call for it, that a ſmall garden of cocoas is ſaid to produce to the owner twenty thouſand crowns a year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholeſome, nutritious, and ſuitable to the climate. This country likewiſe produces ſilk, but not ſo much as to make any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightneſs is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT, AND MANNERS. We ſhall place theſe heads under one point of view, becauſe the reader will ſoon be ſenſible they are very nearly connected. We have already deſcribed the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conqueſt of that country by the Spaniards. The preſent inhabitants may be divided into Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are Creoles, i. e. natives of Spaniſh America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the ſame character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a ſtill more conſiderable portion of pride; for they conſider themſelves as entitled to every high diſtinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The Creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are deſcended, without that courage, firmneſs, and patience, which make the praiſe-worthy of the Spaniſh character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greateſt part of their lives to loitering and inactive pleaſures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expenſive with great parade, and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave

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and ſpecious inſignificance. From idleneſs and conſtitution their whole buſineſs is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of conſequence are not at all diſtinguiſhed for their chaſtity, or domeſtic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithſtanding the devaſtations of their firſt invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppreſſion and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miſerable race of mortals. The blacks here, like all thoſe in other parts of the world, are ſtubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the groſs ſlavery they endure, as any human creatures can be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greateſt part of Spaniſh America. The civil government is adminiſtered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a reſemblance to the old parliaments in France. In theſe courts the viceroy of the king of Spain preſides. His employment is the greateſt truſt and power which his Catholic majeſty has in his diſpoſal, and is perhaps the richeſt government entruſted to any ſubject in the world. The greatneſs of the viceroy's office is diminiſhed by the ſhortneſs of its duration. For, as jealouſy is the leading feature of Spaniſh politics, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which no doubt may have a good effect in ſecuring the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy conſequences to the miſerable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that prieſts, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in other parts of Spaniſh America. It is impoſſible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to eccleſiaſtics, in any part of the world. The people are ſuperſtitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with ſuch materials to work upon it is not remarkable, that the church ſhould enjoy one fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom. It is more ſurpriſing that it has not a half.

COMMERCE CITIES AND SHIPPING.] The trade of Mexico conſiſts of three great branches, which extend over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, ſituated on the gulf of Mexico, or North Sea; with the Eaſt Indies, by Acapulco on the South Sea, and with South America, by the ſame port. Theſe two ſea-ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are wonderfully well ſituated for the commercial purpoſes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and receives in return the numberleſs luxuries and neceſſaries, which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themſelves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, conſiſting of three men of war, as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ſhips, annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargoe conſiſts of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who ſend out little more than wine and oil. The profit of theſe, with the freight and commiſſion to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and diſpoſed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious ſtones, and other commodities for Europe. Sometime in May they are are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they ſail to the Havannah, in the iſle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello.

When

When all are collected, and provided with a convoy neceſſary for their ſafety, they ſteer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the ſea port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spaniſh empire in America, and the Eaſt-Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by a large ſhip as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrives here. The cargoes of theſe ſhips, (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewiſe carries goods), conſiſt of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the Eaſt. At the ſame time the annual ſhip from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is not computed to bring leſs than two millions of pieces of eight in ſilver, beſides quickſilver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchaſe of the galleon's cargoes. Several other ſhips, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the ſame occaſion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, laſts thirty days. The galleon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with ſilver and ſuch European goods as have been thought neceſſary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but ſmall gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial ſtates, to furniſh the greater part of the cargoe of the Flota, ſo the Spaniſh inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the ſame indolence which ruined their European anceſtors, permit the Chineſe merchants to furniſh the greater part of the cargoe of the galleon. Notwithſtanding what has been ſaid of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco; the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be conſidered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world: for here the principal merchants reſide, and the greateſt part of the buſineſs is negociated. The Eaſt India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all paſs through this city. Hither all the gold and ſilver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is depoſited, and here are wrought all thoſe utenſils and ornaments in plate which are every year ſent into Europe. The city itſelf breathes the air of the higheſt magnificence, and according to the beſt accounts contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1400 Breadth 700	between	60 and 82 weſt longitude. the equator, and 12 north lat.	700,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the North Sea; part of the Atlantic Ocean, on the North; by the ſame ſea and Surinam on the

the Eaſt; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.
The northern diviſion contains the provinces of	1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. lon. 80. 21. N. lat. 8-47.
	2. Carthagena —	Carthagena
	3. St. Martha —	St. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela —	Venezuela
	6. Comana —	Comana
	7. New Andaluſia, or Paria	St. Thomas
The ſouthern diviſion contains the provinces of	1. New Granada —	Santa Fé de Bagota
	2. Popayan	Popayan.

BAYS, CAPES, &c. The Iſthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the North, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little weſt of theſe two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America, and here the Iſthmus or neck of land, is only 60 miles over. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Chagre, and the Oronoque.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's, in the South Sea, the bay of Porto Bello, the gulf of Darien, Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulf of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulf of Trieſto, the bay of Guaira, the bay of Curiaco and the gulf of Paria, or Andaluſia, in the North Sea.

The chief capes are, Samblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Naſſau; all on the north ſhore of Terra Firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern diviſions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmeſt day in Paris is continual in Carthagena; the exceſſive heats raiſe the vapour of the ſea, which is precipitated in ſuch rains as ſeem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almoſt continually flooded; and this, together with the exceſſive heat, ſo impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholeſome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The ſoil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impoſſible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coaſts are generally barren ſand, and incapable of bearing any ſpecies of grain. The trees, moſt remarkable for their dimenſions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balſam tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit reſembling an apple, but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtle poiſon, againſt which common oil is found to be the

beſt antidote. The malignity of this tree is ſuch, that if a perſon only ſleeps under it, he finds his body all ſwelled, and racked with the ſevereſt tortures. The beaſts from inſtinct, always avoid it. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a ſpecies of willow, and contains a kernel reſembling an almond, but leſs white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never failing remedy for the bite of the moſt venomous vipers and ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great meaſure exhauſted. The ſilver, iron, and copper mines have been ſince opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the ſouthern parts; it is therefore unneceſſary to repeat them hereafter. Among thoſe peculiar to this country, the moſt remarkable is the ſloth, or, as it is called by way of deriſion, the Swift Peter. It bears a reſemblance to an ordinary monkey in ſhape and ſize, but is of a moſt wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its ſkin all over corrugated. He ſtands in no need of either chain or hutch, never ſtirring unleſs compelled by hunger; and he is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch a plaintive, and at the ſame time, ſo diſagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and diſguſt. In this cry conſiſts the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the firſt hoſtile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with diſguſtful howlings, ſo that his purſuer flies much more ſpeedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noiſe. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he aſcends with a world of uneaſineſs, moving, and crying, and ſtopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to ſave himſelf ſuch another troubleſome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himſelf in a bunch, and with a ſhriek drops to the ground.

The monkeys in theſe countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at leaſt they chatter, and make a frightful noiſe, throwing things at him; they hang themſelves by the tail, on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes; but where two or three people are together, they uſually ſcamper away.

NATIVES.] Beſides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general deſcription of the Americans, there is another ſpecies, of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a ſmaller ſtature than the ordinary Indians. Their diſpoſitions too are more ſoft and effeminate; but what principally diſtinguiſhes them is their large, weak, blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the ſun, ſee beſt by moon light, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.] We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from thoſe of Mexico. To what we have obſerved, with regard to this country, it is only neceſſary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variouſly intermixed with the negroes and Indians. Theſe intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully diſtinguiſhed from each other, becauſe

cauſe every perſon expects to be regarded, in proportion as a greater ſhare of the Spaniſh blood runs in his veins. The firſt diſtinction, ariſing from the intermarriage of the whites with the Negroes, is that of the Mulattoes, which is well known. Next to theſe are the Tercerones, produced from a white and mulatto. From the intermarriage with theſe and the whites, ariſe the Quarterones, who, though ſtill near the former, are diſgraced with a tint of the Negro blood. But the produce of theſe and the whites are the Quinterones, who, which is very remarkable, are not to be diſtinguiſhed from the real Spaniards, but by being of a ſtill fairer complexion. The ſame gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the Mullatoes and the Negroes; and beſides theſe, there are a thouſand others, hardly diſtinguiſhable by the natives themſelves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the moſt conſiderable cities in Spaniſh America; and each containing ſeveral thouſand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandiſe of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coaſt, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the leaſt conſiderable. An immenſe number of Negro ſlaves are employed in fiſhing for theſe, and who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are ſometimes however devoured by fiſh, particularly the ſharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are cruſhed againſt the ſhelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the ſame footing with that of Mexico.

PERU.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1800 Breadth 500	between	the equator and 25 ſouth latitude, 60 and 81 weſt longitude.	970,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the North; by the mountains, or Cordeleirias des Andes, Eaſt; by Chili, South; and by the Pacific Ocean, Weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The northern diviſion	Quito —	Quito Payta
The middle diviſion	Lima, or Los Royes	LIMA, 76-49 W. lon, 12-11. S. lat Cuſco, and Callao.
The ſouthern diviſion	Los Charcos	Potoſi Porco.

SEAS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only ſea which borders on Peru is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are

Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Coſma, Vermeio, Guara, Callao, the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

RIVERS.] There is a river whoſe waters are as red as blood. The rivers Granada, or Cagdalena, Oronoque, Amazon, and Plate, riſe in the Andes. Many other rivers riſe alſo in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight deg. S. lat.

PETRIFIED WATERS.] There are ſome waters, which, in their courſe, turn whatever they paſs over into ſtone; and here are fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, reſembling pitch and tar, and uſed by ſeamen for the ſame purpoſe.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one ſide the South Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not ſo ſtifled with heat, as the other tropical countries. The ſky too, which is generally cloudy, ſhields them from the direct rays of the ſun; but what is extremely ſingular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is ſufficiently ſupplied by a ſoft kindly dew, which falls gradually every night on the ground, and ſo refreſhes the plants and graſs, as to produce in many places the greateſt fertility. Along the ſea-coaſt, Peru is generally a dry barren ſand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

ANIMAL, VEGETABLE, AND MINERAL PRODUCTIONS. There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are conſtantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns ſhift with the mines. That of Potoſi, when the ſilver there was found at the eaſieſt expence, (for now having gone ſo deep, it is not ſo eaſily brought up) contained 90,000 ſouls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were ſix to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no leſs remarkable for its fineneſs than for the animals on which it grows; theſe they call Lamas and Vicunnas. The Lama has a ſmall head, in ſome meaſure reſembling that of a horſe and a ſheep at the ſame time. It is about the ſize of a ſtag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it ſpits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls on. The fleſh of the Lama is agreeable and ſalutary and the animal is not only uſeful in affording wool and food, but alſo as a beaſt of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the ſteepeſt mountains with a burden of 60 or 70 pounds. It feeds very ſparingly, and never drinks. The Vicunna is ſmaller and ſwifter than the Lama, and produces wool ſtill finer in quality. In the Vicunna too is found the Bezoar ſtones, regarded as a ſpecific againſt poiſons. The next great article in their produce and commerce is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jeſuits bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous part of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The beſt bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it, is about the ſize of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit, reſembling the almond. But it is only the bark which has thoſe excellent qualities that render it ſo uſeful in intermitting fevers, and other diſorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greateſt abundance in the vale of Arica, a diſtrict in the ſouthern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually, to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewiſe the only part of Spaniſh America which produces quick-ſilver; an article of immenſe value, conſidering the various purpoſes to which it is applied, and eſpecially

cially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass resembling brick ill burned. This substance is volatilised by fire, and received in steam by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join these articles here because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire: its situation in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the river Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and besides it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting to seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could justify these accounts, is the immense richness and extensive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the East Indies, land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more terrible or perfect, not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable.——This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent; but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself and was saved. Cusco,

the

the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a diſtance from the ſea, it has been long on the decline. But it is ſtill a very conſiderable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have alſo, both here and in Quito, a particular taſte for painting; and their productions in this way, ſome of which have been admired in Italy, are diſperſed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populouſneſs if not ſuperior to it. It is, like Cuſco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply the conſumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT. It would be in vain to pretend ſaying any thing deciſive with regard to the number of inhabitants in Peru. The Spaniards themſelves are remarkably ſilent on this head. It has been gueſſed by ſome writers, that in all Spaniſh America there are about three millions of Spaniards and Creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any reſpect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spaniſh dominions. Pride and lazineſs are the two predominant paſſions. It is agreed on by the moſt authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other deſcendants of the Spaniards, according to the above diſtinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Caſtilian could not think of but with deteſtation. This, no doubt, in part ariſes from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spaniſh pride has made the greateſt deſcents; and many of the firſt nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy reſides, whoſe authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has lately been detached from it. The viceroy is as abſolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are ſo extenſive, it is neceſſary that he ſhould part with a ſhare of his authority to the ſeveral audiences or courts eſtabliſhed over the kingdom. There is a treaſury court eſtabliſhed at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

CHILI.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1200	between	25 and 45 ſouth latitude	206,000
Breadth	500		65 and 85 weſt longitude	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Peru, on the North; by La Plata, on the Eaſt; by Patagonia, on the South; and by the Pacific Ocean, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
On the west side of the Andes.	Chili Proper	St. Jago. W. lon. 79. S. lat. 34.
		Baldivia.
		Imperial.
On the east side of the Andes.	Cuyo, or Cutio	St. John de Frontiera.

LAKES.] The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Besides which, they have several salt-water lakes, that have a communication with the sea, part of the year. In stormy weather the sea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fish; but in the hot season the water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white salt a foot thick.

SEAS, RIVERS, BAYS, AND HARBOURS.] The only sea that borders upon Chili, is that of the Pacific Ocean on the west. The principal rivers are the Salado or Salt River, Guasco, Coquimbo, Chiapa, Bohio, and the Baldivia, all scarcely navigable but at their mouths.

The principal bays, or harbours, are Capiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valparisо, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's-haven, and Castro.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] These are not remarkably different from the same in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with respect to the gifts of Nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all species of grain, of which a considerable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the same with those of Peru; and they have gold almost in every river.

INHABITANTS.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are still in a great measure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preservation from the Spanish yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, Negroes, and Mulattoes, are not supposed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been some formidable insurrections against the Spaniards, by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spanish court.

COMMERCE.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and some parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn sufficient for 60,000 men. Their other exports are hemp, which is raised in no other part of the South Seas; hides, tallow, and salted provisions; and they receive in return the commodities of Europe and the East Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY,

PARAGUAY, or LA PLATA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles
Length 1500 Breadth 1000	between	12 and 37 ſouth latitude, 50 and 75 weſt longitude,	1,000,000.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Amazonia, on the North; by Braſil, Eaſt; by Patagonia, on the South; and Cape St. Chili, Weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Eaſt diviſion contains	Paraguay	Aſſumption
	Parana	St. Anne
	Guaira	Civadad Real
	Uragua	Los Royes
South diviſion	Tucuman	St. Jago
	Rio de la Plata	Buenos Ayres, W. lon. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35.

Bays and lakes.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which ſtands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonio, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which Caſacoroes, is 100 miles long.

Rivers.] This country, beſides an infinite number of ſmall rivers, is watered by three principal ones Paragua, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the ſea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their receſs leave them enriched with a ſlime that produces the greateſt plenty of whatever is committed to it.

Air, soil, and produce.] This vaſt tract is far from being wholly ſubdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above-mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continual level, not interrupted by the leaſt hill for ſeveral hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich paſtures, in which are bred ſuch herds of cattle, that it is ſaid the hides of the beaſts are all that is properly bought, the carcaſe being in a manner given into the bargain. A horſe ſome time ago might be bought for a dollar; and the uſual price for a beaſt, choſen out of a herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But contrary to the general nature of America, this country is deſtitute of woods.

woods. The air is remarkably ſweet and ſerene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholeſome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE. The Spaniards firſt diſcovered this country, by ſailing up the river La Plata in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, ſo called on account of the excellence of the air, on the ſouth ſide of the river, fifty leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is ſeven leagues broad. This is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the ſouthward of Braſil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spaniſh America; two, or at moſt three, regiſter ſhips, make the whole of their regular intercourſe with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, conſiſting chiefly of the gold and ſilver of Chili and Peru, ſugar and hides. Thoſe who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portugueſe, who keep magazines for that purpoſe, in ſuch parts of Braſil as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are ſo much the ſame with thoſe of the reſt of the Spaniſh colonies in South America, that nothing farther can be ſaid on thoſe articles.

But we cannot quit this country without ſaying ſomething of that extraordinary ſpecies of commonwealth, which the Jeſuits erected in the interior parts, and of which theſe crafty prieſts endeavoured to keep all ſtrangers in the dark.

About the middle of the laſt century, thoſe fathers repreſented to the court of Spain, that their want of ſucceſs in their miſſions was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in the Indians, wherever they came. They inſinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the Goſpel might, by their labours, have been extended into the moſt unknown parts of America; and that all thoſe countries might be ſubdued to his catholic majeſty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonſtrance met with ſucceſs; the ſphere of their labours was marked out: and uncontrolled liberty was given to the Jeſuits within theſe limits; and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to ſuffer any Spaniards to enter into this pale without licence from the fathers. They, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to ſend a certain number to the king's works whenever they ſhould be demanded, and the miſſions ſhould become populous enough to ſupply them.

On theſe terms the Jeſuits gladly entered upon the ſcene of action, and opened their ſpiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 50 wandering families, whom they perſuaded to ſettle; and they united them into a little townſhip. This was the ſlight foundation upon which they built a ſuperſtructure, which has amazed the world, and added ſo much power, at the ſame time that it has brought on ſo much envy and jealouſy, to their ſociety. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with ſuch indefatigable pains, and ſuch maſterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the moſt ſavage nations; fixed the moſt rambling, and ſubdued thoſe to their government, who had long diſdained to ſubmit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portugueſe. They prevailed upon thouſands of various diſperſed tribes to embrace their religion, and theſe ſoon

induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the Fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace with preciſion all the ſteps which were taken in the accompliſhment of ſo extraordinary a conqueſt over the bodies and minds of ſo many people. The Jeſuits left nothing undone, that could conduce to their remaining in this ſubjection, or that could tend to increaſe their number to the degrees requiſite for a well-ordered and potent ſociety; and it is ſaid that above 340,000 families, ſeveral years ago, were ſubject to the Jeſuits, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or conſtraint: That the Indians were inſtructed in the military art with the moſt exact diſcipline, and could raiſe 60,000 men well armed: That they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exerciſed manufactures; ſome even aſpired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of theſe miſſions, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of theſe Jeſuits with great ſeverity; accuſing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to ſuch an exceſs, as to cauſe not only perſons of both ſexes, but even the magiſtrates, who are always choſen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with ſtripes, and to ſuffer perſons of the higheſt diſtinction, within their juriſdiction, to kiſs the hem of their garments, as the greateſt honour. The prieſts themſelves poſſeſſed large property, all manufactures were theirs, the natural produce of the country was brought to them, and the treaſures annually remitted to the ſuperior of the order, ſeemed to evince, that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming theſe miſſions. The Fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Meſtizos, or even Indians, to come within their miſſions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of this territory was ceded by Spain to the crown of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacrament, to make the Uragua the boundary of their poſſeſſions, the Jeſuits refuſed to comply with this diviſion, or to ſuffer themſelves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own conſent. And we were informed by authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithſtanding the exactneſs of their diſcipline, they were eaſily, and with conſiderable ſlaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were ſent to quell them. And, in 1767, the Jeſuits were ſent out of America, by royal authority, and their late ſubjects were put upon the ſame footing with the reſt of the inhabitants of the country.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The iſland of Cuba is ſituated between 19 and 23 degrees north lat. and between 74 and 87 degrees weſt long. 100 miles to the ſouth of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the iſland from eaſt to weſt; but the land near the ſea is in general level and flooded in the rainy ſeaſon, when the ſun is vertical

vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia fistula, mastic, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar; but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the same cause that this large island does not produce, including all its commodities, so much for exportation as our small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence; but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, by the courage and preseverance of the English troops in the year 1762, but restored in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, there is likewise Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havannah.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between 64 and 67 degrees west lon. and in 18 degrees north lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands. It is well watered with springs and rivers; but the island is unhealthful in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands in a little island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief island by a causeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better habited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the king of Spain's subjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the east end of Porto Rico, are extremely small.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in 64 degrees west lon. and 11-30 north lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia in Terra Firma, by a strait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast, which is now discontinued.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We shall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the first Spanish island of any importance is CHILOE, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 degrees west lon. and 33 south lat. 300 miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at, and water; and here they are in no danger of being discovered, unless when, as is generally the case, their arrival in the South Seas, and their motions, have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends in

Braſil. This iſland is famous for having given riſe to the celebrated romance of Robinſon Cruſoe. It ſeems, one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotſman, was left aſhore in this ſolitary place by his captain, where he lived ſome years, until he was diſcovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could ſcarcely be underſtood, ſeeming to ſpeak his words by halves. He was dreſſed in goats ſkins, would drink nothing but water, and it was ſome time before he could reliſh the ſhip's victuals. During his abode in this iſland, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of theſe were caught, 30 years after, by lord Anſon's people; their venerable aſpect and majeſtic beards diſcovered ſtrong ſymptoms of antiquity. Selkirk, upon his return to England, was adviſed to publiſh an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is ſaid to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that writer, by the help of theſe papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinſon Cruſoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; ſo that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigeſted for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but thoſe hints, which might give riſe to his own celebrated performance.

The other iſlands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago iſles, ſituated 400 miles weſt of Peru under the equators; and thoſe in the bay of Panama called the King's or Pearl Iſlands.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

CONTAINING BRASIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 2500	between	the equator and 35 ſouth latitude.
Breadth 700		35 and 60 weſt longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the North; by the ſame ocean on the Eaſt; by the mouth of the river Plata South; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the county of Amazons on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Northern diviſion contains the captainſhips of	Para — —	Para or Belim.
	Marignan —	St. Lewis.
	Siara — —	Siara.
	Petagues —	St. Lue.
	Rio Grande —	Tignares.
	Payraba —	Payraba.
	Tamara —	Tamara.
	Pernambuco —	Olinda.

Diviſions

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Middle division contains the captainships of	Serigippe —	Serigippe.
	Bahia, or the Bay of All Saints	St. Salvador.
	Ilheos —	Paya.
	Porto Seguro —	Porto Seguro.
	Spirito Sancto —	Spirito Sancto.
Southern division contains the captainships of	Rio Janeiro —	St. Sebastian.
	St. Vincent —	St. Vincent.
	Del Rey —	St. Salvador.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catherine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES.] The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brasil on the north east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours: as the harbours of Pernambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the river la Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Trio, and Cape St. Mary, the most southerly promontory of Brasil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, CLIMATE AND RIVERS.] The name of Brasil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with wood of that name. To the northward of Brasil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, refreshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceedingly pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west, far within land, are mountains from whence issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata; others running across the country from east to west till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar-mills belonging to the Portuguese.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muscovado, as we call our unrefined sugar. Also tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaibo, Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind; it has likewise some place in medicine, as a stomachic and restringent.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered; these, with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in consequence, Brasil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America, by the most judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people, who,

who, while ſunk in the moſt effeminate luxury, practiſe the moſt deſperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and diſſembling; of little ſincerity in converſation, or honeſty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet penurious; for like the inhabitants of moſt ſouthern climates, they are much more fond of ſhew, ſtate, and attendance, than of the pleaſures of free ſociety, and of a good table; yet their feaſts, which are ſeldom made, are ſumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cauſe themſelves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called Serpentines, which are borne on the Negroes ſhoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Moſt of theſe hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the ſame colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of teſter, with curtains; ſo that the perſon carried cannot be ſeen, unleſs he pleaſes; but may either lie down or ſit up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be ſeen, he pulls the curtains aſide, and ſalutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the ſtreets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the ſtreets; but then the two ſlaves who carry them, make uſe of a ſtrong well-made ſtaff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they ſtick faſt in the ground, and reſt the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of theſe, till their maſter's buſineſs or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of faſhion, or any lady, will paſs the ſtreets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the ſame excluſive plan on which the ſeveral nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly reſembles the Spaniſh method, in not ſending out ſingle ſhips, as the convenience of the ſeveral places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which ſail at ſtated times from Portugal, and compoſe three floats, bound to as many ports in Braſil; namely, to Pernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the ſouthern extremity; and to the Bay of All Saints, in the middle.

In this laſt is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and ſometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, ſpacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and ſteep rock, having the ſea upon one ſide, and a lake, forming a creſcent, inveſting it almoſt wholly, ſo as nearly to join the ſea, on the other. The ſituation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have beſides added to it very ſtrong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond compariſon, the moſt gay and opulent city in all Braſil.

The trade of Braſil is very great, and increaſes every year; which is the leſs ſurpriſing, as the Portugueſe have opportunities of ſupplying themſelves with ſlaves for their ſeveral works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has ſettlements in America; they being the only European nation that has eſtabliſhed colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 Negroes, annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Braſil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is ſuppoſed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000l. This, with the ſugar, the tobacco, the hides, and the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give ſome idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ſhips carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portugal; they conſiſt of woollen goods of all kinds, from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces

of

of Holland, France, and Germany; the ſilks of France and Italy; ſilk and thread ſtockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all ſorts of utenſils wrought in theſe metals, from England; as well as ſalt-fiſh, beef, flour, and cheeſe. Oil they have from Spain; wine, with ſome fruit, is nearly all they are ſupplied with from Portugal. England is at preſent moſt intereſted in the trade of Portugal, both for home conſumption and what they want for the uſe of the Braſils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Braſil is a very wealthy and flouriſhing ſettlement. Their export of ſugar, within 40 years, is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almoſt the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raiſed in ſuch large quantities as in the American colonies. The northern and ſouthern parts of Braſil abound with horned cattle: theſe are hunted for their hides only, of which no leſs than 20,000 are ſent annually to Europe.

The Portugueſe had been long in poſſeſſion of Braſil before they diſcovered the treaſures of gold and diamonds, which have ſince made it ſo conſiderable. Their fleets rendezvous in the Bay of All Saints, to the amount of 100 ſail of large ſhips, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treaſures of the Spaniſh flota and galleons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions ſterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

History and government.] This country was firſt diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſio, in 1498, but the Portugueſe did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themſelves at the bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with ſome interruption at firſt from the court of Spain, who conſidered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portugueſe ſhould poſſeſs all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they ſtill enjoy. The French alſo made ſome attempts to plant colonies on this coaſt, but were driven from thence by the Portugueſe, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of proſperity, they were ſtruck by one of thoſe blows which inſtantly decides the fate of kingdoms: Don Sebaſtian, the king of Portugal, loſt his life in an expedition againſt the Moors in Africa, and by that event the Portugueſe loſt their liberty, being abſorbed into the Spaniſh dominions.

The Dutch, ſoon after this, having thrown off the Spaniſh yoke, and being not ſatisfied with ſupporting their independency by a ſucceſsful defenſive war; and fluſhed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, purſued the Spaniards into the remoteſt receſſes of their extenſive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the ſpoils of their former maſters. They particularly attacked the poſſeſſions of the Portugueſe; they took almoſt all their fortreſſes in the Eaſt Indies, and then turned their arms upon Braſil, where they took ſeven of the captainſhips or provinces; and would have ſubdued the whole colony, had not their career been ſtopt by the archbiſhop, at the head of his monks, and a few ſcattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Braſil, but their Weſt India company ſtill continuing their pretenſions to this country, and haraſſing the Portugueſe at ſea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquiſh their intereſt in that country, which was accepted; and the Portugueſe have remained in peaceable poſſeſſion of all Braſil from that

that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spaniſh Governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's ſiege, the Portugueſe frontier fortreſs called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was reſtored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE poſſeſſions of the French on the continent of America are at preſent inconſiderable. They were maſters of Canada and Louiſiana; but they have now loſt all footing in North America; though on the ſouthern continent they have ſtill a ſettlement, which is called

CAYENNE, or EQUINOCTIAL FRANCE.

IT is ſituated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of weſt longitude. It extends 240 miles along the coaſt of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam on the North, by the Atlantic Ocean, Eaſt; by Amazonia, South; and by Guiana, Weſt. The chief town is Caen. All the coaſt is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for ſettlements; the French have, however not yet extended them ſo far as they might; but they raiſe the ſame commodities which they have from the Weſt India Iſlands, and in no inconſiderable quantity. They have alſo taken poſſeſſion of the iſland of Cayenne, on this coaſt, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The iſland is very unhealthy; but having ſome good harbours, the French have here ſome ſettlements, which raiſe ſugar and coffee.

FRENCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

THE French were amongſt the laſt nations who made ſettlements in the Weſt Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they purſued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable meaſures which they uſed in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending againſt the difficulties which it threw in their way.

The government of the French Weſt India iſlands was formerly under the moſt judicious and excellent regulations; their commerce flouriſhed; and they were daily increaſing in riches and population, when the Revolution took place in the mother country, and ſoon communicated its baneful influence

fluence to the colonies, where the moſt dreadful diſorders took place and deſolated their moſt flouriſhing colonies.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.] This iſland was at firſt poſſeſſed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the moſt conſiderable part fell into the hands of the French. As that part of the iſland poſſeſſed by the Spaniards was ceded to France by the treaty of peace lately concluded between the two countries, it muſt now be conſidered as a French iſland.

It is ſituated between the 17th and 21ſt degrees north lat. and the 67th and 4th of weſt lon. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hiſpaniola was firſt diſcovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at leaſt a million. But ſuch was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to ſo infamous a height did they carry their oppreſſion of the poor natives, that they were reduced to ſixty thouſand in the ſpace of fifteen years. The face of the iſland preſents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the ſoil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and caſſava root. The European cattle are ſo multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the moſt barren parts of the rocks, they diſcovered formerly ſilver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The north-weſt parts, which are in the poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vaſt abundance. This indeed is the beſt and moſt fruitful part of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The moſt ancient town in this iſland, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole iſland is ſometimes named eſpecially by the French. It is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, and is a large, well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spaniſh towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Meſtizos and Negroes.

The French towns are, Cape St. Francois, the capital, which is neither walled or paled in, and is ſaid to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of ſize, is a good port, a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of the French government in that iſland. They have two other towns conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and Port Louis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above-mentioned places, are not leſs in value than 1,200,000l. They likewiſe carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spaniſh dollars.

In the night between the 22d and 23d of Auguſt, 1791, a moſt alarming inſurrection of the negroes began on the French plantations upon this iſland. A ſcene of the moſt horrid cruelties enſued. In a little time no leſs than one hundred thouſand negroes were in rebellion, and all the manufactories and plantations of more than half the northern province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains were filled with carnage and deluged with blood. Two commiſſioners were diſpatched from France while the Gironde party was in power, who acting upon the principles of the rights of man, were rather apoſtles of diſcord than of peace: they ſeem to have united with the people of colour, and a ſeries of aſſaſſinations and pillage obliged the majority of the white coloniſts to take refuge in Ameri-

ca. In October 1793 the royaliſts of fort Jeremie, invited the Engliſh to take poſſeſſion of that part of the iſland, and Cape Nichola Mole ſubmitted in a few days after to the Britiſh forces. They were obliged, however, partly on account of the diſorders which deſolated the iſland and partly on account of that dreadful ſcourge the yellow fever, to abandon this iſland altogther.

Only one reflection we ſhall make from the above facts, which is, that the ſituation of theſe unhappy negroes, men as well as their maſters, and who have as good a right to the liberty of independence as they have, will very much extenuate ſome of the enormities which they committed, enormities which will not bear a mention with thoſe which theſe poor ſufferers, have received from their tyrants in their firſt captivity, and in the ſubſequent hard treatment they have had. Let the proprietors of theſe ſlaves aſk themſelves, whether, had theſe negroes carried them as ſlaves into Africa, they would not have thought it a noble effort to endeavour to regain their freedom? Every man feels the anſwer which would be given: and that anſwer will place the conduct of theſe Africans in its proper point of light.

GUADALOUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the reſemblance of its mountains to thoſe of that name in Spain, is ſituated in 16 degrees north lat. and in 62 weſt lon. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almoſt as much ſouth of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad.—It is divided into two parts by a ſmall arm of the ſea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ſhips can venture; but the inhabitants paſs it in a ferry-boat. Its ſoil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This iſland was in a flouriſhing condition, and its exports of ſugar were almoſt incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the Engliſh, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the Britiſh arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763. It was reduced in 1794 by the Britiſh but retaken by Victor Hughes.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE, } Are three ſmall iſlands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Chriſtopher's, and of no great conſequence to the French; except in time of war, when they give ſhelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our Weſt-India trade. The former was given to Sweden in 1785.

The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated near Newfoundland have been already mentioned in our account of that Iſland, p. 967.

DUTCH AMERICA.

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portugueſe had diſpoſſeſſed the Dutch of Braſil in the manner we have ſeen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to conſole themſelves with their rich poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, and to ſit down content in the Weſt with Surinam; a country once in the poſſeſſion of England, but of no great value whilſt we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; with

with two or three ſmall and barren iſlands in the north ſea, not far from the Spaniſh main.

Dutch Guiana is ſituated between five and ſeven degrees north lat. extending 100 miles along the coaſt from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, ſouth. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholeſome; and a conſiderable part of the coaſt is low, and covered with water. The chief ſettlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the ſame name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. This is one of the richeſt and moſt valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a leſs proſperous ſituation than it was ſome years ſince, owing, among other cauſes, to the wars they have been engaged in with their fugitive Negroes, whom they have treated with great barbarity, and who are become ſo numerous, having increaſed from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almoſt inacceſſible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former maſters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themſelves, they have cultivated lands for their ſubſiſtence, and making frequent incurſions into the neighbouring plantations, revenge themſelves upon their old oppreſſors. The chief trade of Surinam conſiſts in ſugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, ſkins, and ſome valuable dying drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring hither horſes, live cattle, and proviſions; and take home a large quantity of molaſſes.

Connected with Surinam, we ſhall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Iſſequibo on the Spaniſh main, which ſurrendered to the Engliſh in the year 1781, and were repreſented as a very valuable acquiſition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the Britiſh Weſt-India iſlands united. But the report was either not believed or ſlighted, for the colonies were left defenceleſs, and ſoon were retaken by a French frigate.

Dr. Bancroft obſerves, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddiſh-brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiſcuous intercourſe of theſe different people has likewiſe generated ſeveral intermediate caſts, whoſe colours immutably depend on their degree of conſanguinity to either Whites, Indians, or Negroes. Theſe are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones and Quinterones, with ſeveral intermediate ſubdiviſions, proceeding from their retrogade intercourſe. There are ſo great a number of birds, of various ſpecies, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that ſeveral perſons in this colony have employed themſelves advantageouſly, with their ſlaves and dependants, in killing and preſerving birds for the cabinets of naturaliſts in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, ſilver, copper, or by a ſtick of ſome particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a ſhock perfectly reſembling that of electricity. There are an immenſe number and variety of ſnakes in this country, and which form one of its principal inconveniencies. A ſnake was killed ſome years ſince, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, Eſq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largeſt place, near the middle, was three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a ſmall amphibious

creature, about the ſize of a pig four months old, covered with fine ſhort hair; and its fleſh, by the Europeans who reſide here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS, or EUSTATIA.] SITUATED in 17° 29′ N. lat. 63° 10′ W. long. and three leagues north-weſt of St. Chriſtophers, is only a mountain, about 29 miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea like a pyramid, and almoſt round. But though ſo ſmall, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch has made it to turn to very good account; and it is ſaid to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The ſides of the mountains are laid out in very pretty ſettlements; but they have neither ſprings nor rivers. They raiſe here ſugar and tobacco; and this iſland, as well as Curaſſou, is engaged in the Spaniſh contraband trade, for which, however, it is not ſo well ſituated; and it has drawn the ſame advantage from its conſtant neutrality. But when hoſtilities were commenced by Great Britain againſt Holland, admiral Rodney was ſent with a conſiderable land and ſea-force againſt St. Euſtatius, which, being incapable of any defence, ſurrendered at diſcretion, on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiſcated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconſiſtent with the humanity and generoſity by which the Engliſh nation were formerly characteriſed. The reaſon aſſigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Euſtatius had aſſiſted the revolted colonies with naval and other ſtores. But on the 27th of November, the ſame year, St. Euſtatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouillé, though their force conſiſted of only three frigates and ſome ſmall craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU.] Situated in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. It ſeems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders ſhould every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting againſt an unfriendly nature; for the iſland is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worſt in America; yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largeſt, and by far one of the moſt elegant and cleanly towns in the Weſt Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handſome; the private houſes commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; ſome of them ſo well contrived, that ſhips are at once lifted into the dock. Though this iſland is naturally barren, the induſtry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a conſiderable quantity both of tobacco and ſugar: it has, beſides, good ſalt-works, for the produce of which there is a briſk demand from the Engliſh iſlands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this iſland of moſt advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ſhips from Europe touch at this iſland for intelligence, or pilots, and

and then proceed to the Spaniſh coaſts for trade, which they force with a ſtrong hand, it being very difficult for the Spaniſh guarda coſtas to take theſe veſſels; for they are not only ſtout ſhips, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of choſen ſeamen, deeply intereſted in the ſafety of the veſſel and the ſucceſs of the voyage. They have each a ſhare in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the ſtation of the owner, ſupplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime coſt. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, becauſe every man fights in defence of his own property. Beſides this, there is a conſtant intercourſe between this iſland and the Spaniſh continent.

Curaſſou has numerous warehouſes, always full of the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies. Here are all ſorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, ſilks, ribands, iron utenſils, naval and military ſtores, brandy, the ſpices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch Weſt India, which is alſo their African Company, annually bring three or four cargoes of ſlaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themſelves come in ſmall veſſels, and carry off not only the beſt of the Negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above ſorts of goods; and the ſeller has this advantage, that the refuſe of warehouſes and mercers' ſhops, with every thing that is grown unfaſhionable and unſaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being ſufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and ſilver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, Jeſuits' bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curaſſou, even in times of peace, is ſaid to be annually worth to the Dutch no leſs than 500,000l. but in time of war the profit is ſtill greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the Weſt Indies; it affords a retreat to ſhips of all nations, and at the ſame time refuſes none of them arms and ammunition to deſtroy one another. The intercourſe with Spain being then interrupted, the Spaniſh colonies have ſcarcely any other market from whence they can be well ſupplied, either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the Engliſh bring from the continent of North America, or which is exported from Ireland; ſo that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt-India company alone: at preſent, ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licences: the company however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The ſmall iſlands of Saba and St. Martin's, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatia, hardly deſerve to be mentioned; they were both captured by admiral Rodney and General Vaughan, at the time when St. Euſtatia ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain; but were afterwards retaken by the French.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconſiderable member of the Carribbees, ſituated in 64 degrees weſt lon. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ.] Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt-India company, were ill managed, and of little conſequence to the Danes; but that wiſe and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of 3000 hogſheads of ſugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the Weſt-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale; and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh Main, and return with money in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandiſe. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to ſettle faſt; ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of very great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement to do ſo. But, indeed, theſe two nations, the Dutch and Danes, hardly deſerve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their poſſeſſions there being ſo inconſiderable; and yet the Dutch are ſaid to make their ſhare of them worth at leaſt 600,0000l. a year.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been conſiderably augmented by the late diſcoveries of the Ruſſians, and ſtill more by thoſe that have been made by Britiſh navigators in the preſent reign, which have been numerous and important: and of theſe diſcoveries we ſhall therefore give a compendious account.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS conſiſts of ſeveral groups of iſlands, which are ſituated between the Eaſtern coaſt of Kamtſchatka and the weſtern coaſt of the continent

tinent of America *. Mr. Muller divides theſe iſlands into four principal groups, the firſt two of which are ſtyled the Aleutian iſlands. The firſt group, which is called by ſome of the iſlanders Safignan, comprehends, 1. Beering's Iſland; 2. Copper Iſland; 3. Otma; 4. Samyra, or Shemyia; 5. Anakta. The ſecond group is called Khao, and comprizes eight iſlands, viz. 1. Immak; 2. Kiſka; 3. Tchetchia; Ava; 5. Kavia; 6. Tſchanguelek; 7. Ulagama; 8. Amtſchidga. The third general name is Negho and comprehends the iſlands known to the Ruſſians under the name of Andreanoffski Oſtrova; ſixteen of which are mentioned under the following names: 1. Amatkinak; 2. Ulak; 3. Unalga; 4. Navotſha; 5. Unga: 6. Anagin; 7. Kagulak: 8. Illaſk, or Illak; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano; 10 Kanaga, which has alſo a volcano: 11. Leg; 12. Sketſhuna; 13. Tagaloon; 14. Gorleoi; 15. Otchu; 16 Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends ſixteen iſlands; which are called by the Ruſſians Lyſſic Oſtrova, or the *Fox Iſlands*; and which are named; 1. Amuchta; 2. Tſchigama; 3. Tſchegula; 4. Uniſtra; 5. Ulaga; 6. Tauagulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelmaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun Alaſhka; 12. Unimma; 13. Uligan; 14. Anturo-Leiſſume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senagak.

Some of theſe iſlands are only inhabited occaſionally, and for ſome months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who conſtantly reſide in them. Copper Iſland receives its name from the copper which the ſea throws upon its coaſts. The inhabitants of theſe iſlands are, in general, of a ſhort ſtature, with ſtrong and robuſt limbs, but free and ſupple. They have lank black hair, and little beard, flattiſh faces, and fair ſkins. They are for the moſt part well made, of ſtrong conſtitutions, ſuitable to the boiſterous climate of their iſles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian iſles live upon roots which grow wild, and ſea animals. They do not employ themſelves in catching fiſh, though the rivers abound with all kinds of ſalmon, and the ſea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the ſkins of birds, and of ſea-otters.

The Fox iſlands are ſo called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dreſs of the inhabitants conſiſts of a cap and a fur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-ſkin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fiſhing caps, they place a ſmall board like a ſkreen adorned with the jaw-bones of ſea-bears, and ornamented with glaſs beads, which they receive in barter from the Ruſſians. At their feſtivals and dancing parties they uſe a much more ſhewy ſort of caps. They feed upon the fleſh of all ſorts of ſea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they chooſe to dreſs their victuals, they make uſe of a hollow ſtone; having placed the fiſh or fleſh therein, they cover it with another, and cloſe the interſtices with lime or clay.

* Mr. Coxe obſerves, that "the firſt project for making diſcoveries in that tempeſtuous ſea, which lies between Kamtſchatka and America, was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expence of the crown; but when it was diſcovered, that the iſlands of the ſea abounded with valuable furs private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in ſimilar expeditions; and within a period of ten years, more important diſcoveries were made by theſe individuals, at their own private coaſt, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The inveſtigation of uſeful knowledge has alſo been greatly encouraged by the preſent empreſs of Ruſſia; and the moſt diſtant parts of her vaſt dominions, and other countries and iſlands, have been explored, at her expence, by perſons of abilities and learning, in conſequence of which conſiderable diſcoveries have been made.

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They then lay it horizontally upon two ſtones, and light a fire under it. The proviſion intended for keeping is dried without ſalt in the open air. Their weapons conſiſt of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they uſe wooden ſhields.

The moſt perfect equality reigns among theſe iſlanders. They have neither chiefs nor ſuperiors, neither laws nor puniſhments. They live together in families, and ſocieties of ſeveral families united, which form what they call a race, who, in caſe of an attack, or defence, mutually help and ſupport each other. The inhabitants of the ſame iſland always pretend to be of the ſame race; and every perſon looks upon this iſland as a poſſeſſion, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the ſame ſociety. Feaſts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one iſland are viſited by thoſe of the others. The men of the village meet their gueſts beating drums, and preceded by the women, who ſing and dance. At the concluſion of the dance, the hoſts ſerve up the beſt proviſions, and invite their gueſts to partake of the feaſt. They feed their children when very young with the coarſeſt fleſh, and for the moſt part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the ſea ſide, and, whether it be ſummer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This cuſtom is ſo far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them againſt the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the leaſt inconvenience. They ſeldom heat their dwellings: but, when they are deſirous of warming themſelves, they light a bundle of hay, and ſtand over it; or elſe they ſet fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow ſtone. They have a good ſhare of plain natural ſenſe, but are rather ſlow of underſtanding. They ſeem cold and indifferent in moſt of their actions; but let an injury, or even a ſuſpicion only, rouſe them from this phlegmatic ſtate, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the moſt violent revenge, without any regard to the conſequences. The leaſt affliction prompts them to ſuicide, the apprehenſion of even an uncertain evil often leads them to deſpair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent inſenſibility.

THE DISCOVERY OF AN INLAND SEA CONTAINING A GREAT NUMBER OF ISLANDS IN NORTH AMERICA.

FROM the obſervations made by Captain Cook on the inhabitants of the weſtern parts of America, about the latitude of 64° north, it appeared that a ſtrong ſimilarity appeared between them and the Eſquimaux on the eaſtern coaſt. Hence it was even then conjectured that a communication by ſea exiſted between the eaſtern and weſtern ſides of that continent.

In this part of America, however, a moſt ſurprizing diſcovery has lately been made, which, when properly authenticated, cannot fail to be of the utmoſt utility, not only to ſcience in general, but to the commercial and political intereſts of mankind; not to ſay that it will undoubtedly contribute, by giving an opportunity for the advancement of civilization, to their moral intereſts alſo. This, though not made by captain Cook himſelf, took place in conſequence of his diſcoveries on the north-weſt continent of America.

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In theſe parts he found that ſuch quantities of valuable furs might be purchaſed from the inhabitants, as promiſed to be a very valuable article of commerce, provided any regular connection could be eſtabliſhed between that part of the world and the Britiſh ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies. This task was quickly undertaken by ſome ſpirited adventurers, who unluckily found themſelves oppoſed both by *friends* and *foes*, viz. the Eaſt India Company, and the Spaniards; the former pretending that they had no right to diſpoſe of furs in the Eaſt Indies, and the latter, that they had none to bring them from the weſtern coaſt of America. By one Mr. Etches, who fitted out ſhips for this purpoſe, it was diſcovered that all the weſtern coaſt of America from lat. 48° to 57° north, was no continued tract of land, but a chain of iſlands which had never been explored, and that theſe concealed the entrance to a vaſt inland ſea like the Baltic or Mediterranean in Europe, and which ſeems likewiſe to be full of iſlands*. Among theſe, Mr. Etches' ſhip, the Princeſs Royal, penetrated ſeveral hundred leagues in the north-eaſt direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudſon's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the Archipelago, juſt mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new Mediterranean ſea. From what they really did diſcover, it was ſuppoſed that there might be this way a communication with Hudſon's Bay, in which caſe, the north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt Indies would be found through ſeas much more navigable than thoſe in which it had hitherto been attempted. With a view to aſcertain the exiſtence of any navigable communication between the North Pacific and North Atlantic oceans, a voyage was undertaken by his majeſty's orders the command of which was given to Captain Vancouver. Captain Vancouver ſet ſail from Deptford February, 7. 1791, and arrived in England in 1795. The reſult of his explorations, on the principal point of his miſſion, is the complete certainty, that within the limits of his reſearches on the continental ſhore of North America, no internal ſea, nor other navigable communication exiſts, uniting the Pacific and Atlantic oceans.

THE PELEW ISLANDS.

THE exiſtence and ſituation of theſe iſlands were probably known to the Spaniards at a diſtant period; but from a report among the neighbouring iſlands, of their being inhabited by a ſavage race of Cannibals, it appears that there had never been the leaſt communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope Packet (belonging to the Eaſt India Company) was wrecked on one of them, in Auguſt, 1783. From the accounts given of theſe iſlands, by captain Wilſon, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are ſituated between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of Eaſt longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction; they are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce ſugar-cane, yams, cocoa nuts, plan-

* In our map of North America, an Iſland is laid down at the entrance of the river of the weſt, north latitude 45° and weſt longitude 130°, the place where this diſcovery is ſaid to have been made.

tains, bananas, oranges and lemons; and the ſurrounding ſeas abound with the fineſt and greateſt variety of fiſh.

The natives of theſe iſlands are a ſtout, well made, people, above the middle ſtature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is underſtood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two ſmall aprons, one behind, and one before, made of the huſks of the cocoa-nut dyed with different ſhades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is abſolute, but his power is exerciſed more with the mildneſs of a father than a ſovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occaſionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or Chief, and confers a ſingular honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members of which are diſtinguiſhed by wearing a Bone on their arm.

The idea, which the account publiſhed by captain Wilſon gives us of theſe iſlanders, is that of a people, who, though naturally ignorant of the arts and ſciences, and living in the ſimpleſt ſtate of nature, yet poſſeſs all that genuine politeneſs, that delicacy, and chaſtity of intercourſe between the ſexes, that reſpect for perſonal property, that ſubordination to government, and thoſe habits of induſtry, which are ſo rarely united in the more civilized ſocieties of modern times.

It appears that when the Engliſh were thrown on one of theſe iſlands, they were received by the natives, with the greateſt humanity and hoſpitality, and till their departure, experienced the utmoſt courteſy and attention. "They felt our people were diſtreſſed, and in conſequence wiſhed they "ſhould ſhare whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence that beſtows and ſpreads its favours with a diſtant eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It was the love of "man to man. It was a ſcene that pictures human nature in triumphant "colouring, and whilſt their liberality gratified the ſenſe, their virtue ſtruck "the heart."

THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS.

ARE five in number, firſt diſcovered by Quiros, in 1595; and their ſituation better aſcertained by captain Cook in 1774. St. Dominica is the largeſt, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and cloathing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the ſame as the Society iſles.

OTAHEITE, or KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

THIS iſland was diſcovered by captain Wallis, in the Dolphin*, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is ſituated between the 17th degree 28 min.

* The Dolphin was ſent out, under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expence of the Britiſh government, in Auguſt, 1766, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Theſe veſſels proceeded together, till they came within ſight of the South Sea, at the weſtern entrance of the ſtrait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June 1767, captain Wallace diſcovered an iſland, about four miles long, and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitſun-Iſland*, it being diſcovered on Whitſun-eve. Its latitude is 19° 28' S. and its longitude, 137° 36' W. The next day he diſcovered another iſland, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's* and

and the 17th degree 53 min. ſouth latitude; and between the 149th degree 11 min. and the 149th degree 39 minutes weſt long. It conſiſts of two peninſulas, of a ſomewhat circular form, joined by an iſthmus, and is ſurrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form ſeveral excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almoſt any number of the largeſt ſhips. The face of the country is very extraordinary, for a border of low land almoſt entirely ſurrounds each peninſula, and behind this border the land riſes in ridges that run up into the middle of theſe diviſions, and theſe form mountains that may be ſeen at ſixty leagues diſtance. The ſoil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the moſt delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the ſea, is in few places more than a mile and a half broad, and this, together with ſome of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made ſome ſtay at this iſland; and it was afterwards viſited again by Captain Cook in the Endeavour, in April 1769. That commander was accompanied by Joſeph Banks, Eſq. now Sir Joſeph Banks, and Dr. Solander; and thoſe gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate ſurvey of the iſland.

Some parts of the iſland of Otaheite are very populous; and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole iſland amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, ſtrong, well-limbed, and finely ſhaped; the women are of an inferior ſize, but handſome, and very amorous, and indeed generally ſomewhat licentious. Their cloathing conſiſts of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greateſt part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houſes, thoſe which are of a middling ſize, are of an oblong ſquare, about 24 feet long, and eleven wide, with a ſhelving

Iſland. The inhabitants of this iſland, captain Wallis ſays, were of a middle ſtature, dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung looſe over their ſhoulders. The men were well made, and the women handſome. Their clothing was a kind of coarſe cloth or matting, which was faſtened about their middle, and ſeemed capable of being brought up round their ſhoulders. This iſland is about ſix miles long, and one mile wide and lies in latitude 19° 25′ S. longitude 138° 4′ W. In the ſpace of a few days after, he alſo diſcovered ſeveral other ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the names of *Egmont Iſland*, *Gloucester Iſland*, *Cumberland Iſland*, *Prince William Henry's Iſland*, and *Oſnaburgh Iſland*.

On the 19th of the ſame month he diſcovered the Iſland of Otaheite; and, after he had quitted that iſland, he diſcovered, on the 28th of July 1767, another iſland about ſix miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders's Iſland*; and on the 30th of the ſame month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Iſland*. After having diſcovered ſome other ſmall iſlands, one of which was named *Wallis's Iſland*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February, 1768, and his ſhip anchored ſafely in the Downs, on the 20 of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, having paſſed through the ſtrait of Magellan, and made ſome ſtay at the iſland of Maſafuero, diſcovered, on the 2d of July 1787, an iſland about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Iſland*. It lies in latitude 25° 4′ S. longitude 133° 21′ W. and about a thouſand leagues to the weſtward of the continent of America. The 11th of the ſame month he diſcovered another ſmall iſland, to which he gave the name of *the Biſhop of Oſnaburgh's Iſland*. The next day, he diſcovered two other ſmall iſlands, which he called *the Duke of Gloucester's Iſlands*. The following month he diſcovered a cluſter of ſmall iſlands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Iſlands*, and alſo three others, which he named *Gower's Iſland*, *Simpſon's Iſland*, and *Carteret's Iſland*. On the 24th of the ſame month, he diſcovered *Sir Charles Hardy's Iſland*, which lies in latitude 4° 30′ S. and the next day *Winchelſea Iſland*, which is diſtant about ten leagues in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards diſcovered ſeveral other iſlands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March, 1769.

roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The utmost height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being inclosed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats; and upon these they sit in the day, and sleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and those they use are made of stone, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running-water three times every day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels. There are no tame animals on the island but hogs, dogs, and poultry; and the only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, and a few other birds, rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the most excellent fish.

In other countries, the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length: but here the women always cut it short round their ears, and the men (except the fishers, who are almost continually in the water) suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the custom of discolouring the skin, by pricking it with a small instrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattowing. This is performed upon the youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different trees. The finest and whitest is made of the Chinese paper mulberry tree; and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer, and in every respect better than any we have in Europe. The coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker-work; their baskets are of a thousand different patrons, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one Supreme Deity, but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate Deities: they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations, under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made upon the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for war-like operations.

THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the ſeveral iſlands ſo called, and which were diſcovered by captain Cook *, in the year 1769, the principal are, HUHAEINE, ULIETEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. HUAHEINE is about 31 leagues to the north-weſt of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the ſame, but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants ſeem to be larger made, and

* At the cloſe of the year 1767 it was reſolved by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to ſend perſons into ſome part of the South Sea, to obſerve a tranſit of the planet Venus over the Sun's diſk, which, according to aſtronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: and that the iſlands called Marqueſas de Mendoza, or thoſe of Rotterdam or Amſterdam, were the propereſt places then known for making ſuch obſervation. In conſequence of theſe reſolutions, it was recommended to his majeſty, in a memorial from the ſociety, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleaſed to order ſuch an obſervation to be made; upon which his majeſty ſignified to the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty his pleaſure, that a ſhip ſhould be provided to carry ſuch obſervers as the ſociety ſhould think fit to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark of three hundred and ſeventy tons was prepared for that purpoſe. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was ſoon after, by the Royal Society, appointed with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had been long aſſiſtant to Dr Bradley, at the Royal Obſervatory at Greenwich, to obſerve the tranſit. But while this veſſel was getting ready for her expedition, captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this aſtronomical obſervation, he, by letter, dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May 1768, the day before he landed at Haſtings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the iſland of Otaheite; the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in anſwer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whither they would have their obſervers ſent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook ſet ſail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26 of Auguſt 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joſeph Banks, Eſq. and Dr. Solander. They made no diſcovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Iſland, Two Groups, Bird Iſland, and Chain Iſland; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April 1769. During their ſtay at that iſland, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquiries relative to its produce and inhabitants; and on the 4th of June, the whole paſſage of the planet Venus over the ſun's diſk was obſerved by them with great advantage. The reſult of their obſervations may be found in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook diſcovered and viſited the Society Iſlands and Oheteroa, and thence proceeded to the ſouth till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees, 22 minutes; longitude 147 degrees 29 minutes W.; and afterwards made an accurate ſurvey of the coaſt of New Zealand. In November he diſcovered a chain of iſlands, which he called *Barrier Iſlands*. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and in September, 1770, arrived at the iſland of Saua, from whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was reſolved to equip two ſhips, in order to make farther diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Accordingly the Reſolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpoſe; the firſt was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They ſailed from Plymouth Sound, on the 13th of July, 1772; and on the 29th of the ſame month arrived at the iſland of Madeira. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February, 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having ſought in vain for a ſouthern continent. In that month the Reſolution and the Adventure ſeparated, in conſequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's Sound, on the 18th of May following. In Auguſt they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they diſcovered Hervey's Iſland. On the 2d of October, they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Iſlands; and about the cloſe of that month, the Reſolution and the Adventure were ſeparated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Reſolution, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern polar regions, but was ſtopped, in his progreſs by the ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes ſouth; longitude 100 degrees 54 minutes weſt. He then proceeded to Eaſter Iſland, where he arrived in March 1774, as he did alſo in the ſame month at the Marqueſas Iſland. He afterwards diſcovered four iſlands, which he named Palliſer's iſlands; and again ſteered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made ſome ſtay, and alſo viſited the neighbouring iſles. In Auguſt, he came to the New Hebrides

more

more ſtout, than thoſe of Otaheite. Mr. Banks meaſured one of the men, and found him to be ſix feet three inches and a half high; yet they are ſo indolent, that he could not perſuade one of them to go up the hills with him; for they ſaid, if they were to attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than thoſe of Otaheite, and both ſexes appear leſs timid and leſs curious; though in their dreſs, language, and almoſt every other circumſtance, they are the ſame. Their houſes are neat, and they have boat houſes that are remarkably large. *Ulitea* is about ſeven or eight leagues to the ſouth-weſtward of Huaheine, and is a much larger iſland, but appears neither ſo fertile nor ſo populous. The principal refreſhments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls; but the two laſt are rather ſcarce. *Otaho* is divided from Ulitea by a ſtrait, that in the narroweſt part is not above two miles broad. This iſland affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the ſame kind as that of the other iſlands. About four leagues to the north weſt of Otaha lies *Bolabola*, which is ſurrounded by a reef of rocks, and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compaſs. To theſe iſlands, and thoſe of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles to the weſtward of Bolabola, containing ſix in all, captain Cook gave the name of the Society Iſlands.

OHETEROA.

THIS iſland is ſituated in the latitude of 22 deg. 47 min. ſouth, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. weſt from Greenwich. It is thir-

brides, ſome of which were firſt diſcovered by him. After leaving theſe iſlands, he ſteered to the ſouthward a few days, and diſcovered New Caledonia. Having ſurveyed the ſouth weſt coaſt of this iſland, Captain Cook ſteered again for New Zealand, in order to refreſh his crew, and put his ſhip into a condition to encounter the danger attending the navigation in the high ſouthern latitudes. Directing his courſe to the ſouth and eaſt, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 59 degrees, ſix minutes ſouth, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes weſt, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of diſcovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a reſolution to ſteer directly for the weſt entrance of the ſtrait of Magellan, with a view of coaſting and ſurveying the outermoſt or ſouth ſide of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 55 or 56, and ſteering nearly eaſt, he arrived off the weſtern mouth of the ſtraits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in his new route. In January, 1775, he diſcovered a large and dreary iſland, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia*. He afterwards diſcovered various capes and elevated ſnow clad coaſts, to the moſt ſouthern part of which he gave the name of the *Southern Thule*, as being the neareſt land to that pole, which has yet been diſcovered. In February he diſcovered *Sandwich Land*, and ſeveral iſlands covered with ſnow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England, in the Adventure, a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope without making any remarkable diſcovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by ſome of the ſavages of New Zealand; ſo that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exiſt; and, indeed, in the courſe of theſe voyages of diſcovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to Captain Cook, in the courſe of his voyage in the Reſolution, he had made the circuit of the ſouthern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traverſed it in ſuch a manner, as to leave not the leaſt room for the poſſibility of there being a ſouthern continent, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deſerves alſo to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, captain Cook, that, with a company of a hundred and eighteen men, he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates from fifty-two degrees north, to ſeventy one degrees ſouth, with the loſs of only one man by ſickneſs; and this appears, in a conſiderable degree, to have ariſen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preſerving the health of his men.

teen

teen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither ſo populous nor fertile as ſome of the other iſlands in theſe ſeas. The inhabitants are luſty and well made, but are rather browner than thoſe of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa-wood, which is very hard, and ſome of them are near twenty feet long.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands were ſo named by Captain Cook in the year 1773, on account of the friendſhip which appeared to ſubſiſt among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to ſtrangers. Abel Janſen Taſman, an eminent Dutch navigator, firſt touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal iſlands. Captain Cook laboriouſly explored the whole cluſter, which he found to conſiſt of more than ſixty. The three iſlands which Taſman ſaw he named New Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg. The firſt is the largeſt, and extends about 21 miles from eaſt to weſt and 13 from north to ſouth. Theſe iſlands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great induſtry. The iſland of Amſterdam is interſected by ſtraight and pleaſant roads, with fruit trees on each ſide, which provide ſhade from the ſcorching heat of the ſun.

The chief iſlands are Annamooka, Tongataboo, and Eooa. This laſt when viewed from the ſhip at anchor, formed one of the moſt beautiful proſpects in nature; and very different from the others of the Friendly Iſles; which, being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here, the land riſing gently to a conſiderable height, preſented an extenſive proſpect, where groves of trees are only interſperſed at irregular diſtances, in beautiful diſorder, and all the reſt is covered with graſs, except near the ſhores, where it is entirely covered with fruit and other trees: amongſt which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the iſland as poſſible, captain Cook and ſome of his officers walked up to the higheſt point of the iſland. From this place they had a view of almoſt the whole iſland, which conſiſted of beautiful meadows, of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. 'While I was ſurveying this delightful proſpect,' ſays captain Cook, 'I could not help flattering myſelf with the pleaſing idea that ſome future navigator may, from the ſame ſtation, behold theſe meadows ſtocked with cattle, brought to theſe iſlands by the ſhips of England; and that the completion of this ſingle benevolent purpoſe, independent of all other conſiderations, would ſufficiently mark to poſterity, that our voyages had not been uſeleſs to the general intereſts of humanity.'

NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1622, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally diſtinguiſhed in our maps and charts, by the name of New Zealand,

Zealand, and was ſuppoſed to be part of a ſoutherly continent; but it is now known, from the late diſcoveries of captain Cook, who ſailed round it, to conſiſt of two large iſlands, divided from each other by a ſtrait four or five leagues broad. They are ſituated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees ſouth, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees eaſt from Greenwich. One of theſe iſlands is for the moſt part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joſeph Banks, and of Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flouriſh here in great luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is ſuppoſed, that the winters are milder than thoſe in England, and the ſummers not hotter, though more equally warm; ſo that it is to be imagined, that if this country were to be ſettled by people from Europe, they would with moderate induſtry, be ſoon ſupplied, not only with the neceſſaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are foreſts of vaſt extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been deſcribed by the naturaliſts. The inhabitants of New Zealand are ſtout and robuſt, and equal in ſtature to the largeſt Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been expoſed to the ſun, and in many not ſo deep; and both ſexes have good features. Their dreſs is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner ſimilar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, which is called tattowing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally ſhewn themſelves very hoſtile to the Europeans who have viſited them.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by captain Cook to a cluſter of iſlands, the moſt northerly of which was ſeen by Quiros, the Spaniſh navigator, in 1606, and by him named Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo. From that time, till captain Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was ſuppoſed to be part of a great ſouthern continent, called *Terra Auſtralis incognita*. But when captain Cook had ſailed round New Zealand, and along the eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage in the Reſolution, he reſolved to explore thoſe parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, beſides aſcertaining the extent and ſituation of theſe iſlands, he diſcovered ſeveral in the group, which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are ſituated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 29 min. and 20. deg. 4 min. ſouth; and between 166 deg. 41 min. and 170 deg. 21 min. eaſt longitude. They conſiſt of the following iſlands, ſome of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Iſle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitſuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Appee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Irronan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies NEW CALEDONIA, a very large island, first discovered by Captain Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth is not considerable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chesnut brown. A few leagues distant are two small islands called the island of Pines, and Botany Island.

NEW HOLLAND.

THE largest island in the world, and formerly supposed to be a part of that imaginary continent, called Terra Australis Incognita, lies between 10 deg. 30. min. and 43 deg. south latitude, and between 110 and 153 deg. 30 min. east longitude; extending in all as much as the whole continent of Europe, the eastern coast running no less than 2000 miles in length from north-east to south-west. Its dimensions from east to west have not been so exactly ascertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the account of navigators of different nations, who visited this part of the world at a time when the method of making observations, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places was less accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of these discoverers as Van Diemen's land, Carpentaria, &c.; and though the general appellation of the whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and west parts of the country. The eastern part, called New South Wales, was taken possession of in his majesty's name by Captain Cook, and now forms a part of the British dominions, a colony being very lately formed there chiefly of the convicts, sentenced to transportation.

The accounts of the climate and soil of this extensive country, now become an object of importance to Great Britain, are very various, and indeed it cannot be expected otherwise, as different parts have been explored at different times, and at different seasons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the sea-coast, the only place on which any inhabitants have been discovered, appearing sandy and barren, and as for the inland parts, which might reasonably be supposed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural sterility of the soil, or the barbarity of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet discovered.

One thing we are assured of by all who have ever visited this country, that its coast is surrounded by very dangerous shoals and rocks, so that it is by no means easy to effect a landing upon it. A shoal called Houtman's Abrolhos, or shoal, from Frederick Houtman, commander of a fleet of Dutch Indiamen in 1618, lies on the western coast, on which commodore Pelsart, a Dutch navigator, was wrecked in 1629. When his ship, the Batavia, having on board 330 men, struck on this shoal, there was no land in sight, excepting some small rocky islands, and one considerably bigger, about three leagues distant. All these were explored in search of fresh water, and none being found, they were obliged to sail in their skiff to the continent, which they soon after discovered. But on their approach, they found the coast so excessively rocky, that it was impossible to land. Continuing their course northward for two days they found

themſelves in 27 degrees of ſouth latitude; but ſtill the ſhore was ſo extremely ſteep, that there was no poſſibility of approaching it. It preſented the ſame appearance as far north as 24 degrees; but the men being now reſolved to get on ſhore at any rate, ſix of them who were expert ſwimmers threw themſelves into the ſea, and with much ado got to land. Here they employed themſelves in ſearching for freſh water, but finding none, they were obliged to ſwim back again to their ſkiff. Next day they diſcovered a cape, from the extreme points of which ran a ridge of rocks for about a mile into the ſea, with another behind it; but ſtill no paſſage was found to the continent. Another opening appeared about noon the ſame day, into which they ventured, though the paſſage was extremely dangerous, even for a ſkiff, having only two feet water, with a rugged ſtony bottom. Here, however, they effected a landing, but though they made the moſt diligent ſearch for freſh water, they could find neither rivulets, ſprings, nor even water that could be drank by digging of wells. The ſhoal on which commodore Pelſart was wrecked, is placed by Dampier in 27 degrees ſouth latitude.

This navigator explored the coaſt of New Holland in 1688 and 1699. In the laſt of theſe voyages he fell in with the land in 26 deg. ſouth latitude; but could not land on account of the ſteepneſs of the ſhore. In 22 deg. 22 min. he found another ſhoal, which was the firſt he had met with ſince leaving the Abrolhos in 27 deg. In 20 deg, 21. min. he fell in with ſome rocky Iſlands, which, from the nature of the tides, he ſuppoſed to extend in a range as far ſouth as Shark's Bay, in 25 deg. and nine or ten leagues in breadth from eaſt to weſt. In 18 deg. 21 min. he effected a landing, but the ſhore here, as in all other places viſited by this navigator, was exceſſively rocky at low water, ſo that it is then impoſſible to land. At high water, however, the tides riſe ſo high, that boats may get over the rocks to a ſandy beach, which runs all along the coaſt.

The ſouthern part of this iſland, viſited by captain Taſman in 1642, was found leſs difficult of acceſs. He purſued the coaſt as far ſouth as 44 degrees, where it begins to run to the eaſtward; and from his time the country appears not to have been viſited by any Europeans, till the year 1770, when captain Furneaux of the Adventure, reached the point we ſpeak of, lying in 43 deg. 17 min. ſouth, 145 deg. 36 min. and by account 143 deg. 10 min. eaſt from Greenwich. Several iſlands appeared to the north-weſt, one of which was named by Captain Cook, Eddyſtone, from its reſemblance to the light houſe of that name; and he obſerves that nature ſeems to have left theſe two rocks for the ſame purpoſe that the Eddyſtone light houſe was built by man, viz. to give navigators warning of their danger; for they are the conſpicuous ſummits of a ledge of rocks under water, on which the ſea in many places breaks very high. Their ſurface is white with the dung of ſea fowls, which makes them conſpicuous at a conſiderable diſtance.

This celebrated navigator Captain Cook, ſpent upwards of four months in ſurveying the eaſtern coaſt, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of herbs found on ſhore, was called BOTANY BAY, and is the place for which the convicts were originally deſtined; though now they are ſettled in another part of the Iſland, about fifteen miles to the northward, named by captain Cook, Port Jackſon, the principal ſettlement being called SYDNEY COVE.

This was not viſited or explored by Captain Cook; it was ſeen at the diſtance

diſtance of between two and three miles from the coaſt; but had fortune conducted him into the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention as a ſeaman than Botany Bay, where he paſſed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackſon gradually extends into a noble and capacious baſon, having ſoundings ſufficient for the largeſt veſſels, and ſpace to accommodate in perfect ſecurity any number that could be aſſembled. It runs chiefly in a weſtern direction about 13 miles into the country, and contains no leſs than 100 ſmall coves formed by narrow necks of land, whoſe projections afford ſhelter from the winds.

Sydney Cove lies on the ſouth ſide of the harbour, between five and ſix miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is moſtly covered with wood, yet ſo rocky, that it is not eaſy to comprehend how the trees could have found ſufficient nouriſhment, to bring them to ſo conſiderable a magnitude. The ſoil in other parts of the coaſt, immediately about Port Jackſon, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the ſouth end of the harbour from the ſea, is chiefly ſand. Between Sydney Cove and Botany Bay the firſt ſpace is occupied by a wood, in ſome parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that is a kind of heath, poor, ſandy, and full of ſwamps; but, as far as the eye can reach to the weſtward, the country is one continued wood.

The name of Cumberland county was given by the government to this part of the territory. It is above 50 miles in length, and 30 broad. The boundaries fixed for Cumberland county were, on the weſt, Carmarthen and Lanſdown Hills; on the north, the northern parts of Broken Bay; and to the ſouthward, the ſouthern parts of Botany Bay. Thus including completely theſe three principal bays, and leaving the chief place of ſettlement at Sydney Cove, nearly in the centre.

At the very firſt landing of Governor Philip on the ſhore of Botany Bay, an interview took place with the natives. They were all armed, but on ſeeing the governor approach with ſigns of friendſhip, alone and unarmed, they readily returned his confidence by laying down their arms.

They were perfectly devoid of cloathing, yet ſeemed fond of ornaments, putting the beads and red baize that were given them on their heads or necks, and appearing pleaſed to wear them.

The different coves of Port Jackſon were examined with all expedition, and the preference was given to one which had the fineſt ſpring of water; and in which ſhips can anchor ſo cloſe to the ſhore, that at a very ſmall expence quays may be conſtructed, at which the largeſt veſſels may unload.

After they had all landed at Sydney Cove, a plan was laid down for building a town, according to which were traced out the principal ſtreets, the governor's houſe, main-guard, hoſpital, church, ſtore-houſes, and barracks. In ſome parts of this ſpace, temporary barracks are erected, but no permanent building will be allowed, except in conformity to the plan laid down. Should the town be farther extended in future, the form of other ſtreets are alſo marked out, in ſuch a manner as to enſure a free circulation of air. The principal ſtreets, according to this deſign, will be 200 feet wide.

The climate at Sydney Cove is conſidered, on the whole, as equal to the fineſt in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are ſeldom any fogs. The ſoil, though in general light, and rather ſandy in this part, is full as good as uſually is found ſo near the ſea-ſide. All the

plants

plants and fruit trees brought from Braſil and the Cape, which were not damaged in the paſſage, thrive exceedingly; and vegetables have now become plentiful, both the European ſorts, and ſuch as are peculiar to New South Wales.

The natives of New Holland, in general, ſeem to have no great averſion to the new ſettlers: the only acts of hoſtility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fiſhing-grounds, which the New Hollanders juſtly ſuppoſed to belong to themſelves. They appear, however, to be in too ſavage a ſtate to be capable as yet of deriving any inſtruction from their new neighbours. They are ſo ignorant of agriculture, that it ſeems moſt probable, they do not even know the uſe of corn, and, therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, ſet fire to that which the coloniſts had raiſed for their own uſe. To avoid ſuch diſagreeable incidents, a new ſettlement was begun on a ſmall uninhabited iſland, named *Norfolk Iſland*, lying in ſouth latitude 29°, and eaſt long. 168°. 10′ at the diſtance 1200 miles from New Holland. The party ſent out to form this ſettlement conſiſted only of 26 perſons, who took poſſeſſion on the 14th of February, 1788. This ſettlement was found ſo eligible, that, in October 1788, another party was ſent thither, ſo that the new colony, at the time the laſt advices were received, conſiſted of 44 men and 16 women; who being ſupplied with 18 months proviſions, will probably be able to cultivate the ſoil in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to form a granary, which will put thoſe who are ſettled on New Holland, entirely out of danger from their barbarous neighbours.

For a more particular account of this new ſettlement, we refer our readers to the Voyage of Governor Phillip to Botany Bay, publiſhed by Stockdale.

NEW GUINEA.

TILL the late diſcoveries, was thought to be the north coaſt of an extenſive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but captain Cook diſcovered a ſtrait between them, which runs north-eaſt, through which he ſailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow iſland, extending north-eaſt, from the ſecond degree of ſouth latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees eaſt longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country conſiſts of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interſperſed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, breadfruit, and moſt of the trees, ſhrubs, and plants, that are found in the other South-ſea iſlands. It affords from the ſea a variety of delightful proſpects. The inhabitants make nearly the ſame appearance as the New Hollanders on the other ſide the ſtraits.

To the north of New Guinea is NEW BRITAIN, which is ſituated in the 4th degree of ſouth latitude, and 152 deg. 19 min. eaſt longitude from Greenwich. It was ſuppoſed to be part of an imaginary continent till capt. Dampier found it to be an iſland, and ſailed through a ſtrait which divides it from New Guinea. Capt. Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found it was of much leſs extent than it was till then imagined to be, by ſailing through another ſtraight to the north, which ſeparates it from a long iſland, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and ſtately trees. To the eaſtward of New Britain, and in both the above ſtraits, are many iſlands, moſt

moſt of which are ſaid to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW IRELAND extends in length, from the north-eaſt to the ſouth eaſt, about two hundred and ſeventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolly headed like the Negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat noſes and thick lips. North weſtward of New Ireland a cluſter of iſlands was ſeen by capt. Carteret, lying very near each other, and ſuppoſed to conſiſt of twenty or thirty in number. One of theſe, which is of very conſiderable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; but the reſt of the cluſter received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

BESIDES the voyages of diſcovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by capt. Cook and capt. Clerke, in the Reſolution and Diſcovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in ſearch of a north-weſt paſſage between the continents of Aſia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In their courſe they diſcovered two iſlands, which capt. Cook called Prince Edward's Iſles. The largeſt about 15 leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46, 53 ſouth, longitude 37, 46; the other about 9 leagues in circuit, lat. 46, 40, and long. 38, 8, E. both barren and almoſt covered with ſnow. From New Holland to New Zealand, and afterwards they viſited the Friendly and the Society Iſles. In January, 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Iſles, which are twelve in number, and are ſituated between 22 deg. 15 min. and 18 deg. 53 min. N. latitude. The air of theſe iſlands is in general ſalubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the ſame with thoſe of the Society and Friendly Iſles. The inhabitants are of a middle ſize, ſtout, and well made, and their complexions in general a brown olive. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44. deg. 33 min. north, and long. 235 deg. 36 min. eaſt, they ſaw part of the American continent, bearing north eaſt. They afterwards diſcovered King George's Sound, which is ſituated on the north-weſt coaſt of America, and is extenſive: that part of it where the ſhips under the command of capt. Cook anchored, is in lat. 49 deg. 36 min. north, and long. 233 deg. 28 min. eaſt. The whole ſound is ſurrounded by high land, which in ſome places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle ſize, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they diſcovered Sandwich Sound, in lat. 59 deg. 54. min. north. The harbour in which the ſhips anchored, appeared to be almoſt ſurrounded with high land; which was covered with ſnow; and here they were viſited by ſome of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the iſland of Unalaſchka, and after their departure from thence, ſtill continued to trace the American coaſt, till they diſcovered the ſtrait which ſeparates it from the continent of Aſia. Here both the hemiſpheres preſented to the view, a naked and flat country, without any defence, and the ſea between them not very deep. They paſſed the ſtrait, and arrived on the 20th of Auguſt 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. long. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themſelves almoſt ſurrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eaſtward, the

the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no farther; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the North; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, on the island of O'why'hee, one of the Sandwich isles, on the 14th of February, 1779; not so much by his own rashness, as through the inadvertence and neglect of some of his own people; his death was universally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but also in other parts of Europe, by those to whom his merits and public services were known. In his last voyage he had explored the coast of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 sec. north. After the death of captain Cook, the command devolved on captain Clerke, who died at sea on his return to the southward on the 22d day of August 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article without inserting the following extract, to perpetuate the memory and services of so excellent a navigator.

Perhaps no science ever received greater additions from the labours of a single man than geography has done from those of captain Cook. In his first voyage to the South Seas, he discovered the Society Islands; determined the insularity of New Zealand; discovered the straits which separate the two islands, and are called after his name; and made a complete survey of both. He afterwards explored the eastern coast of New Holland, hitherto unknown; an extent of twenty-seven degrees of latitude, or upwards of two thousand miles.

In his second expedition, he resolved the great problem of a southern continent having traversed that hemisphere between the latitude of 40° and 70°, in such a manner as not to leave a possibility of its existence, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage he discovered New Caledonia, the largest island in the Southern Pacific Ocean, except New Zealand; the island of Georgia; and an unknown coast, which he named Sandwich Land, the Thule of the Southern hemisphere; and having twice visited the tropical seas, he settled the situations of the old, and made several new discoveries.

But the last voyage is distinguished above all the rest, by the extent and importance of its discoveries. Besides several smaller islands in the Southern Pacific, he discovered, to the North of the Equinoctial Line; the group called the Sandwich Islands, which, from their situation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of consequence in the system of European navigation, than any other discovery in the South Sea. He afterward explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the Western coast of America, from the latitude of 43° to 70° North, containing an extent of three thousand and five hundred miles; ascertained the proximity of the two great continents of Asia and America; passed the straits between them, and surveyed the coast on each side, to such a height of northern latitude, as to demon-

demonſtrate the impracticability of a paſſage, in that hemiſphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean, either by an Eaſtern or a Weſtern courſe. In ſhort, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japaneſe Archipelago, which ſtill remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

As a navigator, his ſervices were not perhaps leſs ſplendid, certainly not leſs important and meritorious. The method which he diſcovered, and ſo ſucceſsfully purſued, of preſerving the health of ſeamen, forms a new æra in navigation, and will tranſmit his name to future ages, amongſt the friends and benefactors of mankind.

Thoſe who are converſant in naval hiſtory, need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been ſought, through the medium of long voyages at ſea, have always been purchaſed. That dreadful diſorder which is peculiar to their ſervice, and whoſe ravages have marked the tracks of diſcoverers with circumſtances almoſt too ſhocking to relate, muſt, without exerciſing an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our ſeamen, have proved an inſuperable obſtacle to the proſecution of ſuch enterprizes. It was reſerved for Captain Cook to ſhew the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unuſual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminiſhing the probability of life, in the ſmalleſt degree.

TERRA INCOGNITA, or UNKNOWN COUNTRIES.

NOTWITHSTANDING the amazing diſcoveries of navigators, and the progreſs made in geography, ſince the firſt voyage of Columbus, anno 1492, there ſtill remain ſome countries, either abſolutely unknown, or very ſuperficially ſurveyed.

IN AFRICA.

OF this quarter of the globe the moderns are acquainted with the ſea-coaſts only, and theſe very imperfectly; the internal parts being little known to us, nor have we any ſatisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold, and it is equally certain that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country bleſſed with a variety of climates, ſome of them the fineſt in the world.

IN AMERICA.

IN North America, towards the pole, are Labrador, or New Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like thoſe of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and theſe ſavage; low in ſtature, and of an ugly appearance. They live upon the raw fleſh of whales, bears, oxen, &c. and go muffled up in ſkins, the hairy ſides next their bodies. In theſe inhoſpitable regions, their nights (as may be ſeen in the table of climates in the in-

introduction) are from one to ſix months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable ſnow; ſo that the miſerable inhabitants live under ground part of the year. Again, when the ſun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vaſt tract on the back of the Britiſh ſettlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which waſhes America on the weſt, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and ſituation of the country, it is ſuppoſed to be fruitful; it is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom uſed to reſort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the diſtance of 1000 miles, when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eight degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazones on the ſouth, is unknown, except a ſlip along the coaſt, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made ſome ſettlements; which, from the unhealthfulneſs of the climate, almoſt under the equator, and other cauſes, can hardly be extended any conſiderable way back.

The country of Amazonia, ſo called from the great river of that name, has never been thoroughly diſcovered, though it is ſituated between the European colonies of Peru and Braſil, and every where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portugueſe; but being always attended with vaſt difficulties, ſo that few of the adventurers ever returned back, and no gold being found in the country as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any ſettlement there.

Patagonia, at the ſouthern extremity of America, is ſometimes deſcribed as part of Chili: but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almoſt unknown, and is generally repreſented as a barren, inhoſpitable country. And here in 52½ degrees ſouth lat. we fall in with the Straits Magellan, having Patagonia on the north, and the iſlands of Terra del Fuego on the ſouth. Theſe Straits extend from eaſt to weſt 110 leagues, but the breadth in ſome places falls ſhort of one. They were firſt diſcovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portugueſe, in the ſervice of Spain, who ſailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby diſcovered a paſſage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been ſince conſidered as the firſt navigator that ſailed round the world, but having loſt his life in a ſkirmiſh with ſome Indians before the ſhips returned to Europe, the honour of being the firſt circumnavigator has been diſputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who in 1574 paſſed the ſame ſtrait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the ſouthward of theſe ſtraits, diſcovered in lat. 54¼ another paſſage, ſince known by the name of the Straits La Maire, and this paſſage, which has been generally preferred by ſucceeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anſon's voyage, however, from fatal experience, adviſes mariners to keep clear of theſe ſtraits and iſlands, by running down to 61 or 62 deg. ſouth lat. before they attempt to ſet their face weſtward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long night, and the intenſe cold in thoſe latitudes, render that paſſage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of ſummer.

A NEW

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE.

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable places in the known World. Collected from the moſt authentic Charts, Maps, and Obſervations.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Abbeville,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50° 7 N.	1°54 E.
Aberdeen	Aberdeenſhire	Scotland,	Europe	57-22 N.	1-40 W.
Abo,	Finland,	Sweden,	Europe	60-27 N.	22-18 E.
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North,	America	17-10 N.	101-20 W.
Adratic ſea, or Gulf of Venice	between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Achem	Sumatra,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	5-22 N.	95-29 E.
Adventure Iſle	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	17-05 S.	144-12 W.
Agde,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43 18 N.	3-33 E.
Agen,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-12 N.	0-40 E.
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies,	Atlantic ocean	Europe	49-56 N.	6-41 W.
Agra,	Agra,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	26-43 N.	76-49 E.
Air,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	4-35 W.
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	42-00 N.	26 30 E.
Aix,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-31 N.	5-31 E.
Alby,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43 55 N.	2-13 E.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	35-45 N.	37 25 E.
Alexandretta,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	36-35 N.	36 25 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-11 N.	30-21 E.
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-49 N.	2-17 E.
Albany,	New York,	North	America	42 48 N.	73-30 W.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Iſle	Eaſt India,	Aſia	4 25 S.	127-25 E.
Ambrym Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-09 S.	168-17 E.
Amiens,	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe	49-53 N.	2-22 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-22 N.	4-49 E.
Amſterdam,	Iſle,	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	21-09 S.	174-51 W.
Ancona,	March of Ancona,	Italy,	Europe	43-37 N.	13-35 E.
Agra,	Tercera Iſle,	Atlantic ocean	Europe	38-39 N.	27 07 W.
Antigua (St. John's town)	Antigua Iſle	Carib. ſea,	N. America	17 04 N.	62-04 W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	36-30 N.	36-40 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	04-27 E.
Archipelago,	Iſlands of	Greece,	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Apæ (Iſle)	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	16-46 S.	168-32 E.
Archangel,	Dwina,	Ruſſia,	Europe	64-34 N.	38 59 E.
Aſcenſion Iſle,		S. Atlantic	Ocean	7-56 N.	14-27 W.
Aſtracan,	Aſtracan,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	46-00 N.	51-00 E.
Athens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe	38-05 N.	23-57 E.
St. Auguſtin,	Madagaſcar,	South Ind. ſea,	Africa	23-35 S.	43-13 E.
Aurora Iſle,	South,	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	15-08 S.	168-22 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
AVA,	Ava,	East India,	Asia	20-20 N.	95-30 E.
Avignon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-57 N.	04-53 E.
BAgdad,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	33-20 N.	43-51 E.
Baltic sea,	between	Ger. and Swed.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Balasore,	Orixa,	East India,	Asia	21-20 N.	86-05 E.
Bay of Biscay,	Coast of	France,	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Bay of Bengal	Coast of	India,	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	America	39-35 S.	81-10 W.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-30 N.	37-00 E.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	41-26 N.	02-18 E.
Barbuda Isle,		Atlantic ocean,	N. America	17-49 N.	61-55 W.
Basil,	Basil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-35 N.	07-34 E.
Bassora,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Asia	30-45 N.	47-00 E.
Bastia,	Corsica,	Italy,	Europe	42-20 N.	09-40 E.
Bath,	Somersetshire,	England	Europe	51-22 N.	02-16 W.
Belfast,	Ulster,	Ireland,	Europe	54-30 N.	06-30 W.
Bender,	Bassarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46-40 N.	29-00 E.
Bayeux,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-16 N.	00-47 E.
BERLIN,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52-32 N.	13-31 E.
Bermudas,	Bermuda Isles,	Atlantic ocean,	N. America	32-25 N.	63-23 W.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-00 N.	07-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwickshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	01 45 W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45-00 N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia	03-49 S.	102-05 E.
Batavia,	Java,	East India,	Asia	06-10 S.	106-56 E.
Basse Terre,	Guadaloupe,	Carib. sea,	N. America	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Bourdeaux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-50 N.	00-29 W.
Bayonne,	Gascony,	France	Europe	43-29 N.	01-25 W.
Borroughston-nefs,	Linlithgowsh.	Scotland	Europe	55-48 N.	03-44 W.
Boston,	Lincolnshire,	England	Europe	53-10 N.	00-25 E.
BOSTON,	New England	North	America	42-25 N.	70-32 W.
Balabola,	Isle,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-32 S.	151-47 W.
Bologne,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50-43 N.	1-31 E.
Bologna,	Bolognese,	Italy,	Europe	44-29 N.	11-26 E.
Bolscheriskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	52-54 N.	156-42 E.
Bombay,	Bombay Isle,	East India,	Asia	18-56 N.	72-43 E.
Bridge-town,	Barbadoes,	Atlantic ocean,	N. America	13-05 N.	58-03 W.
Bilboa,	Biscay,	Spain,	Europe	43-26 N.	03-18 W.
Birmingham,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-30 N.	01-50 W.
Bokharia,	Usbec	Tartary,	Asia	39-15 N.	67-00 E.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-40 N.	04-40 E.
Brest,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	48-22 N.	04-25 W.
Bremen,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N.	08-20 E.
Bristol,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-33 N.	02-40 W.
BRESLAW,	Silesia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51-03 N.	17-13 E.
Brussels,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-51 N.	04-26 E.
Buenos Ayres,	La Plata,	Brasil,	S. America,	34-35 S.	58-26 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Bukaraſt,	Walachia,	Turkey,	Europe	44-26 N.	26-13 *E.*
Britiſh ſea,	between	Brit. & Germ.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Black, or Euxine ſea,	Turkey in	Europe and	Aſia		
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-16 N.	03-05 *E.*
Brunſwick,	Low Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-30 N.	10-30 *E.*
Buda,	Lower	Hungary,	Europe	47-40 N.	19-20 *E.*
Burlington,	Jerſey,	North,	America	40-08 N.	75-00 *W.*
Bourbon Iſle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-51 S.	55-25 *E.*
CAbello (Port)	Terra Firma,	South	America	10 03 N.	67-27 *E.*
Cadiz,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	36-31 N.	9-06 *W.*
Caen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	0-16 *W.*
Cahors,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-26 N.	1-31 *E.*
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe	39-25 N.	9 38 *E.*
CACHAO,	Tonquin,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-30 N.	105-00 *E.*
Cairo,	Lower	Egypt,	Africa	30-02 N.	31-23 *E.*
Calais,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50-57 N.	1-55 *E.*
Callao,	Peru,	South	America	12-01 N.	76-53 *W.*
Calcutta,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	22-34 N.	88-34 *E.*
Calmar,	Smaland,	Sweden,	Europe	56-40 N.	16 20 *E.*
Cambray,	Cambreſis,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-10 N.	3-18 *E.*
Cambletown,	Argyleſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	5-40 *W.*
Cambridge,	Cambridgeſhire	England,	Europe	52-12 N.	0-09 *E.*
Cambridge,	New	England,	N. America	42-25 N.	71-05 *W.*
Canary, N. E. Point,	Canary iſles,	Atlantic ocean,	Africa	28-13 N.	15-33 *W.*
Candia,	Candia iſland,	Mediter. Sea,	Europe	35-18 N.	25-23 *E.*
Canſo Port,	Nova Scotia,	North	America	45-20 N.	60-50 *W.*
Cambodia,	Cambodia,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	13-30 N.	105-00 *E.*
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-16 N.	1-15 *E.*
Canton,	Canton,	China,	Aſia	23-07 N.	113-07 *E.*
Carleſcroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	56-20 N.	15-31 *E.*
Carthage Ruins,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30 N.	09-00 *E.*
Carthagena,	Terra Firma,	South	America	10-36 N.	75-21 *E.*
Carthagena,	Murcia	Spain,	Europe	37-37 N.	1-03 *W.*
Carliſle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-47 N.	2-35 *W.*
Cardigan,	Cardiganſhire,	Wales,	Europe	52-10 N.	4-38 *W.*
Candy,	Ceylon,	Indian Ocean,	Aſia	7-54 N.	79-00 *E.*
Caſpian Sea,	Ruſſia,	Tartary,	Aſia		
Caſan,	Caſan,	Siberia,	Aſia	55-43 N.	49-13 *E.*
Caſſel,	Heſſe Caſſel,	Germany,	Europe	51-19 N.	9-34 *E.*
Caſtres,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-37 N.	2-19 *E.*
St. Catherine's Iſle,	Atlantic,	Ocean,	South America	27-35 S.	49-12 *W.*
Cavan,	Cavan,	Ireland,	Europe	54-51 N.	7-18 *W.*
Cayenne,	Cayenne Iſle,	South	America	4-56 N.	52-10 *W.*
Cette,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-23 N.	3-47 *E.*

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Challon,	Burgundy,	France,	Europe	46-46 N.	4-56 E.
Chandernagore	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
Charlton,	Isle	Hudson's Bay,	North America,	52-03 N.	79-00 W.
Chartres,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe	48-26 N.	1-33 E.
Cherbourg	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-38 N.	1-33 W.
Christmas Sound,	Terra del Fuego,	South,	America	55-21 N.	69-57 W.
St. Christopher's Isle,	Caribbean	Sea,	N. America,	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Civita Vecchia	Patro Di S. Petro,	Italy,	Europe	42-05 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Isles,	Atlantic	Ocean,	South America,	55-05 S.	34-37 W.
Clermont,	Auvergne	France,	Europe	45-46 N.	3-10 E.
Colmar,	Alsace,	France,	Europe	48-04 N.	7-27 E.
Cologne,	Elect. of Cologne,	Germany,	Europe	50-55 N.	7-10 E.
Cape Clear,	Irish sea,	Ireland,	Europe	51-18 N.	11-10 W.
——Comorin.	On this side the Ganges,	East India,	Asia	7-56 N.	78-10 E.
—Finisterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42 51 N.	9-12 W.
—St. Vincent,	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe	37-02 N.	8-57 W.
—of Good Hope,	Hottentots,	Caffraria,	Africa	34 29 S.	18-28 E.
—Florida,	East Florida,	North,	America	24-57 N.	80-30 W.
—Verd,		Negroland,	Africa	14-45 N.	17-48 W.
—Horn,	Terra del Fuego Island.	South	America	55-58 S.	66-21 W.
Cattegate,	between	Swed. & Den.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Ceuta,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	35-64 N.	6-30 W.
Chester,	Chelhire,	England,	Europe	53-15 N.	0 03 W.
CHARLES-TOWN,	South Carolina	North	America	32-45 N.	79-12 W.
COPENHAGEN,	Zealand isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
CONSTANTINOPLE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41.01 N.	28-58 E.
Cork,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-53 N.	8-23 W.
Coventry,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-25 N.	1-25 W.
Constance,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-37 N.	9-12 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30 N.	23-00 E.
Cowes,	Isle of Wight,	England,	Europe	50-46 N.	1-14 W.
Cracow,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Cremsmunster,	Arch-duchy of Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48 03 N.	14 12 E.
Curassou,	Curassou isle,	West India,	America	11.56 N.	68-20 W.
Cusco,	Peru,	South	America	12-25 S.	70-00 W.
Cummin,	Isle,	North Pacific Ocean,	Asia	31.40 N.	121-09 E.
Damascus	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33 15 N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic	Polish Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-22 N.	18-38 E.
Ducca,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	23 30 N.	89-20 E.
Delhi,	Delhi,	East India,	Asia	29-00 N.	76-30 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-06 N.	4-05 E.
Derbent,	Dagiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	41-41 N	50-30 E.
Dax,	Gaſcony,	France,	Europe	43-42 N.	0-58 W.
Dieppe,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-55 N.	0-59 E.
Dijon,	Burgundy,	France,	Europe	47-19 N.	4-57 E.
Diſbingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	48-30 N.	10-19 E.
Dol,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-33 N.	1-41 W.
Dominique,	Wind. Iſlands,	Weſt India,	America	15-18 N.	61 22 W.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-07 N.	1-13 E.
Dreux,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe	48-44 N.	1-16 E.
Derby	Derbyſhire,	England,	Europe	52-58 N.	1-30 W.
Derry,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	54-52 N.	7-40 W.
Dieu,	Guzerat,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-37 N.	69-30 E.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-00 N.	13-36 E.
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-26 N.	2-48 W.
DUBLIN,	Leinſter,	Ireland,	Europe	53-21 N.	6-00 W.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-48 N.	1-25 W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-44 N.	4-20 W.
Dungeneſs,	Kent,	England,	Europe	50-52 N.	1-04 E.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-02 N.	2-27 E.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	2-25 W.
Dumfries,	Dumfrieſshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-08 N.	3-25 W.
ENgliſh Channel,	between	Eng and Fran.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Eaſtern ocean,	betw. the N.W.	of N. Am. and	N. E of Aſia,	N. Pacific Ocean.	
Epheſus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	38-01 N.	27-30 E.
Eaoowe Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	21-24 S.	174-25 W.
Eaſter Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	America	27-06 S.	109-41 W.
Edinburgh,	Edinburgſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-57 N.	3-07 W.
Eddyſtone,	Eng. Channel,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	4-19 W.
Enebrun,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe	44-34 N	6-34 E.
Enatum Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	20-10 S.	169-59 E.
Eſbing,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-15 N.	20-00 E.
Embden,	Weſtphalia,	Germany,	Europe	53-25 N	7-10 E.
Erramangaiſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	18-46 S.	169-23 E.
Erzerum,	Turcomania,	Turkey,	Aſia	39-56 N.	42-05 E.
Ethiopian Sea,	Coaſt of	Guinea,	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Euſtatius,	Carib. Sea,	Weſt India,	N Amer.	17-29 N.	63-05 W.
Evereux,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-01 N.	1-13 E.
Exeter,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe	50-44 N.	3 29 W.
FAlmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	4-57 W.
Falkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	3-48 W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33-30 N.	6 00 W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-30 N	8-4 W.
Fayal Town,	Azores,	Atlan. Ocean,	Europe	38-32 N.	28 36 W.
Ferdinand Naronka,		Braſil,	South America	3-56 S.	32-43 W.
Ferrara,	Ferrareſe,	Italy,	Europe	44-54 N.	11-41 E.
Ferro (Town)	Canaries,	Atlan. Ocean,	Africa	27-47 N.	17-40 W.
Florence,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe	43-46 N.	11-07 E.
Flores,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	39-34 N.	30-51 W.
St. Flour,	Auvergne,	France,	Europe	45-01 N.	3-10 E.
France (Iſle of)	Indian	Ocean,	Africa	20-09 S.	57-33 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Francfort on the Main,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-55N.	8-40 E.
Frawenburg,	Poliſh,	Pruſſia,	Europe	54-22N.	20 12 E.
Fuego Iſle,	Cape Verd,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	14-56N.	24-23W.
Funchal,	Madeira,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	32-37N.	17-01W.
Furneau Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	17-11 S.	143-01W.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	12-05N.	80-55 E.
GAP,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe	44-33N.	6-09 E.
Genes,	Savoy,	Italy,	Europe	44-25N.	8-40 E.
Geneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-12N.	6-05 E.
St. Georg. Iſle,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean	Europe	38-39N.	27-55W.
GENOA,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44 25N.	8-30 E.
Gibraltar,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	36-05N.	5-17W.
St. George To.	Bermudas,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. Amer.	32 45N.	63-30W.
St. Gerg. Fort,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	13 04N.	80-33 E.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51 03N.	3-48 E.
Glaſgow,	Lanerkſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55 51N.	4-10W.
Goa,	Malabar,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	15 31N.	73-50 E.
Goat Iſle,	Indian	Ocean,	Aſia	13 55N.	120-07 E.
Gomera Iſle,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-05N.	17-03W.
Good Hope, T.	Hottentots,	Caffres,	Africa	33-55 S.	18-28 E.
Goree,	Atlantic	Ocean,	Africa	14-40N.	17-20W.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	57-42N.	11-43 E.
Gottengen,	Hanover,	Germany,	Europe	51-31N.	9-58 E.
Granville,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	48-50N.	1-32W.
Gratioſa,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	39-02N.	27-53W.
Gratz,	Stiria,	Germany,	Europe	47-04N.	15-29 E.
Gravelines,	Fr. Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50 59N.	2-13 E.
Gryphiſwald,	Pomerania	Germany,	Europe	54-04N.	13-43 E.
Guadaloupe,	Caribean	Sea,	N. Amer.	15-59N.	61-54W.
Glouceſter,	Glouceſterſh.	England,	Europe	51-05N.	2-16W.
Gombroom,	Farſiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	27-30N.	74-20 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-52N.	4-22W.
Guam,	Ladrone Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14-00N.	140-30 E.
Gulf of Bothnia	Coaſt of	Sweden,	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
—of Finland,	between	Swed. & Ruſſia,	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
—of Venice,	between	Italy & Turk.	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
—of Ormus,	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia	Indian Ocean.	
—of Perſia,	between	Perſia & Arab.	Aſia	Indian Ocean.	
—of California,	between	Calif. & Mexico	N. Amer.	Pacific Ocean.	
—of St. Law,	Coaſt of	New Scotland,	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean.	
—of Mexico,	Coaſt of	Mexico,	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean	
HAGUE,	Holland	Netherlands,	Europe	52-04N.	4-22 E.
Hamburg	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe	53-34N.	9-55 E.
Haſtings,	Suſſex,	England,	Europe	50-52N.	0-40 E.
Halifax,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	55-47N.	1-52W.
HALIFAX,	Nova Scotia,	North	America	54-40N.	63-15W.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-32N.	9-35 E.
Havannah,	Cuba,	Iſland,	N. Amer.	23-11N.	82-13W.
Havre de Grace	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-29N.	0-10 E.
La Heeſe,	D. Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-55N.	4-50 E.
Helleſpont,	Med. & Bl. Sea,	Europe and	Aſia		

Names of places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
St. Helena, Ja. Town,	South,	Atlant Ocean,	Africa	15-55 S.	5-44 W.
Hernoſand,	W. Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	62-38 N.	17-58 E.
Hervey's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	19-17 S.	158-43 W.
Haerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-20 N.	4-10 E.
Hereford,	Herefordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-06 N.	2-38 W.
Hoai-Nghan,	Kian-Nan,	China,	Aſia	33-34 N.	118-54 E.
La Hogue Cape	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-44 N.	1-51 W.
Hood's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	9-26 S.	138-47 W.
Hoogſtraten,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-24 N.	4-52 E.
Howe's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-46 S.	154 01 W.
Huahine Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-44 S.	151-01 W.
Hull,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	0-12 W.
Hudſon's Bay,	Coaſt of	Labrador,	N. Amer.	N. Atlantic Ocean.	
Jakutſkoi,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	62-01 N.	129-52 E.
Janeiro Rio,		Braſil,	S. Amer.	22-54 S.	42-38 W.
Jaſſy,	Moldavia,	Turkey,	Europe	47-08 N.	27-34 E.
Java Head,	Java Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	6 49 S.	106-55 E.
Jeddo,	Japan Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	36-20 N.	139-00 E.
Jeruſalem,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia	31-55 N.	35-25 E.
Immer Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	19-10 S.	169-51 E.
Ingolſtadt,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-45 N.	11-27 E.
St. John's To.	Antigua,	Leeward Iſles,	N. Amer.	17-04 N.	62-04 E.
St. John's To.	Newfoundland,	North	America	47-32 N.	52-21 W.
St. Joſeph's,	California,	Mexico,	N. Amer	23-03 N.	109-37 W.
Irraname Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	19 31 S.	170-26 E.
Iſlamabad,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	22-20 N.	91-50 E.
Iſle of Pines,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Aſia	32-25 N.	52-55 E.
Judda,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	21-29 N.	49-27 E.
Juthria,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Inverneſs,	Inverneſſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-33 N.	4-02 W.
Ivica Iſle,	Mediterr. Sea,	Italy,	Europe	38 50 N.	1-40 E.

Iſthmus of Suez joins Africa to Aſia.
———of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.
———of Panama, joins North and South America.
———of Malacca, joins Malacca to Farther India, Aſia.
Iriſh Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland, Europe, Atlantic Ocean.
Indian Ocean, Coaſt of India, Aſia.

Kamtſchatka,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	57-10 N.	163-00 E.
Kedgere,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-48 N.	88-55 E.
Kelſo,	Roxboroughſ.	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	02-12 W.
Kilmarnock,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38 N.	00-30 W.
Kinſale,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	51-32 N.	08-20 W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	Weſt India,	America	18-15 N.	76-38 W.
Kiow,	Ukraine,	Ruſſia.	Europe	50-30 N.	31-12 E.
Kola,	Lapland,	Ruſſia,	Europe	68-52 N.	33-13 E.
Koningſberg,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-43 N.	21-35 E.
Lancaſter,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	54-05 N.	02-55 E.
Levantſea	Coaſt of	Syria,	Aſia	Mediterranean ſea.	
Laguna,	Teneriffe,	Canaries,	A. Ocean	28-28 N.	16-13 W.
Landau,	Alſace,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	c8 02 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Landſcroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	55-52 N.	12-51 *E.*
Lauſanne,	Cant. of Vaud,	Switzerland,	Europe	46 31 N.	06-50 *E.*
Leeds,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-48 N.	01-29 *W.*
Leiceſter,	Leiceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	52-38 N.	01-03 *W.*
Leipſic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51 19 N.	12-25 *E.*
Leper's Iſland,	S. Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	15 23 S.	168-03 *E.*
Leſkard,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-26 N.	04-36 *W.*
Leſparre,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	45-18 N.	00-52 *W.*
Leyden,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-10 N.	04-32 *E.*
Leith,	Edinburgſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-58 N.	03-00 *W.*
Lahor,	Lahor,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	32 40 N.	75-30 *E.*
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-56 N.	03-30 *W.*
Lincoln,	Lincolnſhire,	England,	Europe	53-15 N.	00-27 *W.*
Lima,	Peru,	South	America	12 01 S.	76-44 *W.*
Liege,	Biſh. of Liege,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37 N.	05-40 *E.*
Limoges,	Limoges,	France,	Europe	45-49 N.	01-20 *E.*
Lintz,	Auſtria,	Germany,	Europe	41-16 N.	13-57 *E.*
Liſle,	Fren. Flanders.	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37 N.	03-09 *E.*
Liſbon,	Eſtremadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38 42 N.	09 04 *W.*
Lizard Point,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	49 57 N.	05-10 *W.*
Louiſburg,	C. Breton Iſle,	North	America	45 53 N.	59 48 *W.*
Limerick,	Limerickſhire,	Ireland,	Europe	52-35 N.	08-48 *W.*
Litchfield,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-43 N.	01-04 *W.*
Loretto,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	43 15 N.	14-15 *E.*
London,	Middleſex,	England,	Europe	51-31 N.	1ſt Merid.
Londonderry,	Londonderry,	Ireland,	Europe	50-00 N.	07-40 *W.*
Louveau,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	12 42 N.	100 56 *E.*
Louvain,	Auſtr. Brabant	Netherlands,	Europe	50 53 N.	04 49 *E.*
Lubec,	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe	54 00 N.	11 40 *E.*
St. Lucia Iſle,	Windward Iſles	Weſt Indies,	N. Amer.	13-24 N.	60-46 *W.*
Lunden,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	55 41 N.	13 26 *E.*
Luneville,	Lorrain,	France,	Europe	48-35 N.	06 35 *E.*
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands,	Europe	49 37 N.	06 35 *E.*
Lyons,	Lyons,	France,	Europe	45 45 N.	04 54 *E.*
Maco,	Canton,	China,	Aſia	22-12 N.	113 51 *E.*
Macaſſar,	Celebes Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	05 09 S.	119 53 *E.*
Madeira Funchal,	Atlantic	Ocean,	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 *W.*
Madras,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	13 04 N.	80-33 *E.*
Madrid,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe	40-25 N.	03-20 *E.*
Magdalena Iſle	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	10 25 S.	138 44 *W.*
Mahon Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterr. ſea,	Europe	39 50 N.	03-53 *E.*
Majorca	Iſle,	Mediterr ſea,	Europe	39 35 N.	02 34 *E.*
Malacca,	Malacca,	Eaſt India.	Aſia	02 12 N	102-10 *E.*
Malines,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	5 01 N.	04 33 *E.*
Mallicola (Iſle)	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16 15 N.	167 44 *E.*
St. Maloes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48 38 N.	01-56 *W.*
Malta Iſle,	Mediterranean	Sea,	Africa	35-54 N.	14-33 *E.*
Manilla,	Luconia Philip Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14 36 N.	120 58 *E.*
Mantua,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45-20 N.	10 47 *E.*
Maregalante Iſle,	Atlantic	Ocean,	S. Amer.	15-55 N.	61-06 *W.*

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Marſeilles,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-17 N.	05-27 E.
St. Martha,	St. Martha,	Terra Firma,	America	11-26 N.	75-59 W.
St. Martin's Iſle	Caribean Iſles,	Weſt India,	America	18-04 N.	62-57 W.
Martinico Iſle,	Caribean Iſles,	Weſt India,	America	14-44 N.	61-05 W.
St. Mary's Iſle,	Scilly Iſles,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	49-57 N.	06-38 W.
St. Mary's To.	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	36-56 N.	25-06 W.
Maſkelyne Iſles	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-32 S.	168-04 E.
Mauritius,	Indian	Ocean,	Africa	20-09 S.	57-34 E.
Maurua Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-25 S.	152-37 E.
Mayence,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-54 N.	08-25 E.
Mayo Iſle,	Cape Verd,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	15-10 N.	23-00 W.
Meaux,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	48-57 N.	02-57 E.
Medina,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	25-00 N.	39-33 E.
Mecca,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	21-45 N.	41-00 E.
Mediterr. ſea,	between	Europe and	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-30 N.	06-00 E.
Messina,	Sicily iſland,	Italy,	Europe	38-30 N.	15-40 E.
Mergui,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	12-12 N.	98-13 E.
Mexico,	Mexico,	North	America	19-54 N.	100-00 W.
Milford Haven	Pembrokeſhire	Wales,	Europe	51-43 N.	05-15 W.
Miatea Iſles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	17-52 S.	48-01 W.
St. Michael's Iſle	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	37-47 N.	25-37 W.
Middleburg Iſl.	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	21-20 S.	174-29 W.
Milan,	Milaneſe,	Italy,	Europe	45-25 N.	09-30 E.
Mocha,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	13 40 N.	43-50 E.
Modena,	Modena	Italy,	Europe	44-34 N.	11-17 E.
Montreal,	Canada,	North	America	45-35 N.	73 11 W.
Montpelier,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-36 N.	03-37 E.
Montroſe,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-34 N.	0-20 W.
Montague Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	17-26 S.	168-36 E.
Montſerrat Iſle,	Caribean Iſles,	Weſt India,	America	16 47 N.	62-12 W.
Morocco,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa	30-32 N.	06-10 W.
Moſcow,	Moſcow,	Ruſſia,	Europe	55-45 N.	37-50 E.
Munich,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-09 N.	11-35 E.
Munſter,	Weſtphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52-00 N.	07 16 E.
Narva,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	59-00 N.	27-35 E.
Nanci,	Lorrain,	France,	Europe	48-41 N.	06-10 E.
Nanking,	Kiangan,	China,	Aſia	32-10 N.	118-30 E.
Namur,	Namur,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-28 N.	04-49 E.
Nangaſachi,	Japan,	N. Pacific Oc.	Aſia	32-32 N.	128-51 E.
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	40-50 N.	14-18 E.
Nantes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	47-13 N.	01-28 W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43-41 N.	07-22 E.
Newport,	Rhode iſland,	North	America	41-35 N.	71-06 W.
Nieuport,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-07 N.	02-50 E.
New-York,	New York,	North	America	40-40 N.	74-00 W.
Nineveh,	Curdiſtan,	Turkey,	Aſia	36-00 N.	45-00 E.
St. Nich. Mole,	Hiſpaniola,	Weſt India,	America	19-49 N.	73-24 W.
Newcaſtle,	Northumberl.	England,	Europe	55-03 N.	01-24 W.
Ningpo,	Chekiang,	China,	Aſia	29-57 N.	120-23 E.
Norfolk Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	29-01 S.	168-15 E.
Norton,	Pennſylvania,	North	America	40-09 N.	75-18 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
North Cape,	Wardhus,	Lapland,	Europe	71-10 N.	26-02 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamſh.	England,	Europe	53-00 N.	01-06 W.
Northampton,	Northamptſh.	England,	Europe	52-15 N.	00-55 W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-40 N.	01-25 E.
Nuremberg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-27 N.	11-12 E.
OLmutz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49-30 N.	16-45 E.
Ochotſkoi	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	59-20 N.	143-17 E.
Ohevahoa Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	09-40 S.	138-50 W.
Ohitahoo Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	09-55 S.	139-01 W.
Oleron Iſle,	Saintonge,	France,	Europe	46-02 N.	01-20 W.
Olympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30 N.	22-00 E.
Olinde,	Braſil,	South	America	08-13 S.	35-00 W.
Onateayo Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	09-58 S.	138 40 W.
Oporto,	Duoro,	Portugal,	Europe	41-10 N.	08-22 W.
Orenburg,	Tartary,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	51-46 N.	55-14 E.
Orleans,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe	47-54 N.	01-59 E.
Orleans (New)	Louiſiana,	North	America	29-57 N.	89-53 W.
Orotava,	Teneriffe,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-23 N.	16-19 W.
Ormus,	Ormicos Iſle,	Perſia,	Aſia	26-50 N.	57-00 E.
Orſk,	Tartary,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	51-12 N.	58-37 E.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary	Africa	36-30 N.	00-05 E.
Oſnaburg Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	17-52 S.	148-01 E.
Oſtend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13 N.	03 00 E.
Oxford Obſervatory,	Oxfordſhire,	England,	Europe	51-45 N.	01-10 W.
St. Omer's,	Flanders	Netherlands,	Europe	50-44 N.	02-19 E.
l'Orient (Port)	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	47-45 N.	03-20 W.
PAcific, or Or. Ocean	between	Aſia and	America		
Padua,	Paduano,	Italy,	Europe	45-22 N.	12-00 E.
Paiſley,	Renfrewſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48 N.	04-08 W.
PALERMO,	Sicily iſle,	Italy,	Europe	38-30 N.	13-43 E.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-00 N.	39-00 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	S. Amer.	08-47 N.	80-16 W.
Palliſer's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	15-38 S.	146-25 W.
Palma Iſle,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa,	28-36 N.	17-45 W.
Pamerſton's I.	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	18-00 S.	162-52 W.
Paoom Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-30 S.	168-33 E.
PARIS Obſervatory,	Iſle of France,	France,	Europe	48-50 N.	2-25 E.
Patrixfiord,	Iceland,	N. Atl. Ocean,	Europe	65-35 N.	14-05 W.
Parma,	Parmaſan,	Italy,	Europe	44-45 N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	25-45 N.	83-00 E.
Pau,	Bearn,	France,	Europe	45-15 N.	0-04 W.
St. Paul's Iſle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	37-51 S.	77-53 E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	17-00 N.	97-00 E.
Peking,	Petchi-li,	China,	Aſia	39-54 N.	116-29 E.
St. Peter's Fort,	Martinico,	W. India,	N. Amer.	14-44 N.	61-16 W.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeſhire,	Wales,	Europe	51-45 N.	4-50 W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08 N.	6-00 W.
PENSACOLA,	Weſt Florida,	North	America	30-22 N.	87-20 W.
Periguez,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	45-11 N.	0-48 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Perinaldi,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53 N.	7-45 E.
Perth	Perthſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56 22 N.	3 12 W.
Perth-amboy	New York,	North	America	40 30 N.	74 20 W.
St. Peter's Iſle,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	America	46-46 N.	56-12 W.
Perſepolis,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Aſia	30-30 N.	54-00 E.
Petropawloſkoi	Kamtſchatka,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	53-01 N.	158-40 E.
Petersburg,	Ingria,	Ruſſia,	Europe	59-56 N.	30-24 E.
Philadelphia,	Pennſylvania,	North	America	39-56 N.	75 09 W.
St. Philip's Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-53 E.
Pickerſgill Iſle,	South	Atlant. Ocean,	America	54-42 S.	36-53 W.
Pico,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38 28 N.	28-21 W.
Pines, Iſle of	N. Caledonia,	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
Piſa,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe	43 43 N.	10-17 E.
Placentia,	Newfoundland Iſle,	North	America	47-26 N.	55 00 W.
Plymouth,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe	50-22 N.	4-10 W.
Plymouth,	New England,	North	America	41-48 N.	70-25 W.
Pollingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47 48 N.	10-48 E.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	11-41 N.	79-57 E.
Ponoi,	Lapland,	Ruſſia,	Europe	67 06 N.	36-28 E.
Porto Bello,	Terra Firma,	South	America	9-33 N.	79-45 W.
Porto Sancto Iſle,	Madeira,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	32-58 N.	16-20 W.
Port Royal,	Jamaica,	Weſt India,	America	18 00 N.	76 40 W.
Port Royal,	Martinico,	Weſt India,	America	14-35 N.	61 04 W.
Portſmouth Town,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	50-47 N.	01-01 W.
—Academy,	Hampſhire,	England,	Europe	50-48 N.	1-10 W.
Portſmouth,	New England,	North	America	43-10 N.	70-20 W.
Portland Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	39-25 S.	178-17 E.
Portland Iſle,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa,	63-22 N.	18-49 W.
Prague,		Bohemia,	Europe	50-04 N.	14-50 E.
Prince of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Potoſi,	Peru,	South	America	21-00 S.	77-00 W.
Providence,	New England,	North	America	41-50 N.	71-21 W.
Preſton,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	53-45 N.	2-50 W.
Preſburg,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe	48-20 N.	17-30 W.
Pula Candor Iſle,	Indian Ocean,	Eaſt Indies,	Aſia	28-40 N.	107-25 E.
Pulo Timor Iſle,	Gulf of Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	3 00 N.	104-30 E.
Pyleſtaart iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	22 23 S.	175-36 W.
Quebec,	Canada,	North	America	46-55 N.	69-48 W.
St. Quintin,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	49-50 N.	3-22 E.
Quito,	Peru,	South	America	0 13 S.	77-50 W.
Queen Charlotte's Iſles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	10-11 S.	164 35 E.
Ramhead,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-18 N.	4-15 W.
Ragusa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe	42-45 N.	18-25 E.
Ratiſbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-56 N.	12 05 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Re Iſle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe	46-14 N.	1-29 W.
Recif,	Braſil,	South,	America	8-10 S.	35-30 W.
Rennes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-06 N.	1-36 W.
Reſolution Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	17-23 S.	141-40 W.
Rheims,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49-14 N.	4-07 E.
Rhodes	Rhode Iſland,	Levant ſea,	Aſia	36-20 N.	28 00 E.
Riga,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	56-55 N.	24 00 E.
Rimini,	Romagna,	Italy,	Europe	44-03 N.	12-39 E.
Rochelle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe	46-09 N.	1-04 W.
Rochfort,	Saintonge,	France,	Europe	46-02 N.	0-53 W.
Rock of Liſbon,	Mouth of Tagus river,	Portugal,	Europe	38 45 N.	9-30 W.
Rodez,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-21 N.	2-39 E.
Rodriguez Iſle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	10 40 N.	63-15 E.
Rome, (St. Peter's)	Pope's Territory,	Italy,	Europe	41-53 N.	12.34 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-56 N.	4-33 E.
Rotterdam Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia,	20-16 N.	174 24 W.
Rouen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-26 N.	1 00 W.
ST. Auguſtin,	Eaſt Florida,	North	America	29-45 N.	81-12 W.
—Domingo,	Carib. Sea,	Weſt India,	America	18-20 N.	70-00 W.
—Jaco,	Chili,	South	America	34-00 S.	77-00 W.
—Salvador,	Braſil,	South	America	11-58 S.	38-00 W.
Saba Iſle,	Carib. Sea,	Weſt India,	America	17-39 N.	63-12 W.
Sagan,	Sileſia,	Germany,	Europe	51-42 N.	15-27 E.
Sall Iſle,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	16-38 N.	22-51 W.
Salonichi,	Macedonia,	Turkey,	Europe	40-41 N.	23-13 E.
Salvage Iſles,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	30-00 N.	15 49 W.
Samana,	Hiſpaniola,	Weſt India,	America	19-15 N.	69-11 W.
Samarcand,	Uſbec,	Tartary,	Aſia	40-40 N.	69-00 E.
Saliſbury,	Wiltſhire,	England,	Europe	51-00 N.	1-45 W.
Santa Cruz,	Teneriffe,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-27 N.	16-11 W.
Sandwich Iſle,	South,	Pacific Ocean	Aſia	17-41 S.	168-38 E.
Santa Fé,	New Mexico,	North	America	36-00 N.	105-00 W.
Savannah,	Georgia,	North	America	31-55 N.	80-20 W.
Saunders's Iſle,	South Georgia	S. Atlantic Ocean,	S. America,	58-00 S.	26-53 W.
Savage Iſle,	South,	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	19-02 S.	169-25 W.
Sayd, or Thebes,	Upper	Egypt,	Africa	27-00 N.	32-20 E.
Samaria Ruins	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Aſia	32-40 N.	38-00 E.
St. George's Channel,	Between	England and Ireland,	Europe	Atlantic Ocean	
Scarborough,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	54-18 N.	0-10 W.
Scone,	Perthſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-24 N.	3-10 W.
Schwexingen,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-23 N.	8-45 E.
Sea of Aſoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and Aſia			
—Marmora,	Turkey in	Europe and Aſia		Black Sea.	
—Ochotſk,	between	Siberia and Kamtſchatka		Aſia, N. Pacif. Ocean.	
—Yellow,	betw. Eaſtern	Tartary, China and Corea		N. Pacific Ocean.	
Sedan,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49-44 N.	5-02 E.
Senegal,		Negroland,	Africa	15-53 N.	16-26 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Shepherd's Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-58 S.	168-47 E.
Siam,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18 N.	100-55 E.
Si-gham-fu	Chensi,	China,	Asia	34-16 N.	108 48 E.
Sisteron,	Dauphiny,	France,	Europe	44-11 N.	6-01 W.
Shrewsbury,	Shropshire,	England,	Europe	52-43 N.	2-46 W.
Shields (South)	Durham,	England,	Europe	55-02 N.	1-15 E.
Sheerness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-25 N.	0-50 E.
Seville,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	37-15 N.	6-05 W.
Sidon,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	33-33 N.	36-15 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-28 N.	27-24 E.
Southampton,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-55 N.	1-25 W.
Sombavera Isles,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	N. America,	18-38 N.	63-32 W.
Solo Isle,	Philip. Isles,	East India,	Asia	5-57 N.	121-20 E.
Spa.	Liege,	Germany,	Europe	50-30 N.	5-40 E.
Sound,	between	Denmark and Sweden,	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
Stafford,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52-50 N.	2-00 W.
Sterling,	Sterlingshire,	Scotland	Europe	56-10 N.	3-50 W.
Stralsund,	Pomerania,	Germany	Europe	54-23 N.	13-22 E.
Strasburgh,	Alsace,	France,	Europe	48-34 N.	7-46 E.
Stockholm,	Upland	Sweden,	Europe	59-20 N.	18-08 E
Straits of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
Straits of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
Straits of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulph.					
Straits of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
Straits of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego, and Patagonia, South America.					
Straits of La Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.					
Straits of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java. Indian Ocean, Asia.					
Strumness,	Iceland,	N. Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	65-39 N.	24-24 W.
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29-50 N.	33-27 E.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-55 N.	1-10 W.
Surinam,	Surinam,	South	America	6-00 N.	55-30 W.
Sultz,	Lorrain,	France,	Europe	47-53 N.	7-09 W.
Surat,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-10 N.	72-27 E.
Syracuse,	Sicily Isle,	Italy	Europe	36-58 N.	15-05 E.
Table Island,	New Hebrides,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38 S.	167-12 E.
Tanna,	South,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19 32 S.	169-46 E.
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	East India,	Asia	11-27 N.	79-07 E
Tauris,	Aderbeitzan,	Persia,	Asia	38-20 N.	46 30 E.
Taoukaa Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	14-30 S.	145-04 W.
Temontengis,	Soloo,	East India,	Asia	5-57 N.	120-58 E.
Teneriffe Peak,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-12 N.	16-24 W.
Tercera,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-45 N.	27-01 W.
St. Thomas's Isle,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-21 N.	64-26 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Timor, S. W. Point,		East India,	Asia	10-23 S.	124-04 E.
Timorland, S. Point,		East India,	Asia	8-15 S.	131-59 E.
Thorn,	Regal Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	52-56 N.	19-00 W.
Tetuan,	Fez	Barbary,	Africa	35-40 N.	5-18 W.
Teflis,	Georgia,	Persia,	Asia	43-30 N.	47-00 E.
Tobolski,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	58-12 N.	68-17 E.
Tomsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	56-29 N.	85-04 E.
Toulon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-07 N.	6-01 E.
Toledo,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	39-50 N.	3-25 E.
Tonga Tabu Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174-41 W.
Trapesond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	41-50 N.	40-30 E.
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46-05 N.	11-02 E.
Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia,	39 30 N.	26-30 E.
Tornea,	Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	65-50 N.	24-17 E.
Tripoli,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	32-53 N.	13-12 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	34-30 N.	36-15 E.
Tunis,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-47 N.	10-00 E.
Turin,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	45-05 N.	7-45 E.
Tyre,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Asia	32-32 N.	36-00 E.
Turtle Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-48 S.	178-02 W.
Tyrnaw,	Trentschin,	Hungary,	Europe	48-23 N.	17-38 E.
ULiatea,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-45 S.	151-26 W.
Upsal,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-51 N.	17-47 E.
Uraniberg,	Huen Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-54 N.	12-57 E.
Ushant Isle,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-28 N.	4-59 W.
Utrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-07 N.	5 00 E.
Venice,	Venice,	Italy	Europe	45-26 N.	11-59 E.
Vera Cruz,	Mexico,	North	America	19-12 N.	97-25 W.
Verona,	Veroneſe,	Italy	Europe	45-26 N.	11-23 E.
Verſailles,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	48-48 N.	2-12 E.
VIENNA (Ob.)	Auſtria,	Germany	Europe	48-12 N.	16-22 E.
Vigo,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-14 N.	8-23 W.
Vintimiglia,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53 N.	7-42 E.
Virgin Gorda,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-18 N.	63-59 W.
Wurtzburg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-46 N.	10-18 E.
Wakefield,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53-41 N.	1-28 W.
Pr. of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America	58-47 N.	94-02 W.
Wardhus,	Norwegian Lapland,	Lapland,	Europe	70-22 N.	31-11 E.
Warſaw,	Maſſovia,	Poland,	Europe	52-14 N.	21-05 E.
Weſtman Isles,	North	Atlant. Ocean.	Europe	63-20 N.	20-22 W.
Whitſuntide Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-44 S.	168-25 E.
Warwick,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-18 N.	1-32 W.
Waterford,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	52-12 N.	7.16 W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-38 N.	3-36 W.
Williamsburg,	Virginia	North	America	37-12 N.	76-48 W.
Wells,	Somerſetshire,	England,	Europe	51-12 N.	2-40 W.
Winchester,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	51-06 N.	1-15 W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Worms,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-38 N.	8-05 E.
Worceſter,	Worceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	52-09 N.	1-55 W.
Willes's Iſles,	South Georgia	Atlant-Ocean,	America	54 00 S.	38-24 W.
Wilna,	Lithuania	Poland,	Europe	54-41 N.	25-32 E.
Wittenburg,	Upper Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-49 N.	12-46 E.
Wologda,	Wologda	Ruſſia,	Europe	59-19 N.	41-50 E.
Woſlak,		Ruſſia,	Europe	61-15 N.	
Yarmouth,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-45 N.	1-48 E.
York,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-59 N.	1-01 W.
Yorkminſter,	Terra del Fu-ego,	South	America	55-26 N.	70-03 W.

Greenwich Obſerv. Kent, England, Europe, 51° 28′ 40″ N. 0° 5′ 37″ E. of St. Paul's, London.

A

MODERN UNIVERSAL TABLE;

The moſt COPIOUS and AUTHENTIC that ever was publiſhed of the preſent State of the REAL and IMAGINARY MONIES of the World.

Divided into four Parts, viz.

EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, AND AMERICA;

Which are ſubdivided into fifty five Parts, containing the Names of the moſt capital Places, the Species whereof are inſerted, ſhewing how the Monies are reckoned by the reſpective Nations; and the Figures ſtanding againſt the Denomination of each foreign Piece is the Engliſh intrinſic Value thereof, according to the beſt Aſſays made at the Mint of the TOWER of LONDON.

EXPLANATION.

By real Money is underſtood an Effective Specie, repreſenting in itſelf the value denominated thereby, as a GUINEA, &c.

* This Mark is prefixed to the imaginary Money, which is generally made uſe of in keeping Accounts, ſignifying a fictitious Piece which is not in being or which cannot be repreſented but by ſeveral other Pieces, as a Pound Sterling, &c.

All Fractions in the Value Engliſh are Parts of a Penny.

= This Mark ſignifies, *is, make,* or *equal to.*

Note, for all the Spaniſh, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Daniſh Dominions, either on the Continent, or in the Weſt Indies, ſee the Monies of the reſpective Nations.

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND.

London, Briſtol, Liverpool, &c.

Edinburgh, Glaſgow, Aberdeen, &c.

Europe Northern Parts.

				£.	s.	d.
A Farthing	—	—	—	0	0	0
2 Farthings	=	a Halfpenny	—	0	0	0
2 Halfpence	=	a Penny	—	0	0	1
4 Pence	=	a Groat	—	0	0	4
6 Pence	=	a Half Shilling	—	0	0	6
12 Pence	=	a Shilling	—	0	1	0
5 Shillings	=	a Crown	—	0	5	0
20 Shillings	=	a *Pound Sterling	—	1	0	0
21 Shillings	=	a Guinea	—	1	1	0

IRELAND.

Dublin, Cork, Londonderry, &c.

				£.	s.	d.	
A farthing	——	——		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{13}$
2 Farthings	=	a Halfpenny	—	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{13}$
2 Halfpence	=	*a Penny	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{13}$
6½ Pence	=	a Half ſhilling	—	0	0	6	
12 Pence	=	*a Shilling Iriſh	—	0	0	11	$\frac{1}{20}$
13 Pence	=	a Shilling	—	0	1	0	
65 Pence	=	a Crown	—	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	=	*a Pound Iriſh	—	0	18	5	$\frac{1}{2}$
22¼ Shillings	=	a Guinea	—	1	1	0	

FLANDERS AND BRABANT.

Ghent, Oſtend, &c. Antwerp, Bruſſels, &c.

* A Pening	——	——		0	0	0	$\frac{3}{160}$
4 Peningens	=	an Urche	—	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{160}$
8 Peningens	=	*a Grote	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{160}$
2 Grotes	=	a Petard	—	0	0	0	$\frac{2}{160}$
6 Petards	=	*a Scalin	—	0	0	5	$\frac{3}{5}$
7 Petards	=	a Scalin	—	0	0	6	$\frac{1}{10}$
40 Grotes	=	*a Florin	—	0	1	6	
17½ Scalins	=	a Ducat	—	0	9	3	
240 Grotes	=	*a Pound Flem.	—	0	9	0	

HOLLAND AND ZEALAND.

Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Fluſhing, &c.

A * Pening	——	——		0	0	0	$\frac{3}{320}$
8 Peningens	=	*a Grote	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{40}$
2 Grotes	=	a Stiver	—	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{20}$
6 Stivers	=	a Scalin	—	0	0	6	$\frac{3}{10}$
20 Stivers	=	a Guilder	—	0	1	9	
2 Florins, 10 Stivers	=	a Rix-doller	—	0	4	6	
60 Stivers	=	a Dry Guilder	—	0	5	4	$\frac{3}{4}$
3 Florins, 3 Stivers	=	a Silver Ducattoon		0	5	8	$\frac{4}{13}$
6 Guilders	=	*a Pound Flem.	—	0	10	6	
20 Florins	=	a Gold Ducat, or Ducatoon	—	1	16	0	
15 Florins	=	a Ducatoon, another ſort, called a Sovereign	—	1	7	0	

HAMBURG, *Altena, Lubec, Bremen, &c.*

Germany.

* A Tryling	=	——		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{128}$
2 Trylings	=	*a Sexling	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{64}$
2 Sexlings	=	a Fening	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{32}$
12 Fenings	=	a Shilling Lub.	—	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{16}$
16 Shillings	=	*a Marc	—	0	1	6	
2 Marcs	=	a Sletch-dollar	—	0	3	0	
3 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar	—	0	4	6	
4 Marcs	=	a Silver Ducattoon		0	6	0	
120 Shillings	=	*a Pound Flem.	—	0	11	3	

HANOVER, *Luneburg, Zell, &c.*

					L.	s.	d.
* A Fening	——			—	0	0	0
3 Fenings	=	a Dreyer		—	0	0	0
8 Fenings	=	a Marien		—	0	0	1
12 Fenings	=	a Groſh		—	0	0	1
8 Groſhen	=	a Half Gulden		—	0	1	2
16 Groſhen	=	a Gulden		—	0	2	4
24 Groſhen	=	*a Rix-dollar		—	0	3	6
32 Groſhen	=	a Double Gulden			0	4	8
4 Guldens	=	a Ducat		—	0	9	2

SAXONY AND HOLSTEIN.

Dreſden, Leipſic, Wiſmar, Keil, &c.

* An Heller	——			—	0	0	0
2 Hellers	=	a Fening		—	0	0	0
6 Hellers	=	a Dreyer		—	0	0	0
16 Hellers	=	a Marien		—	0	0	1
12 Fenings	=	a Groſh		—	0	0	1
16 Groſhen	=	a Gould		—	0	2	4
24 Groſhen	=	*a Rix-dollar		—	0	3	6
32 Groſhen	=	a Specie-dollar		—	0	4	8
4 Goulds	=	a Ducat		—	0	9	4

BRANDENBURG AND POMERANIA.

Berlin, Potſdam, Stetin, &c.

* A Denier	——			—	0	0	0
9 Deniers	=	a Polchen		—	0	0	0
18 Deniers	=	a Groſh		—	0	0	0
3 Polchens	=	an Abraſs		—	0	0	0
20 Groſhen	=	*a Marc		—	0	0	9
30 Groſhen	=	a Florin		—	0	1	2
90 Groſhen	=	*a Rix-dollar		—	0	3	6
108 Groſhen	=	an Albertus		—	0	4	2
8 Florins	=	a Ducat		—	0	9	4

COLOGN, *Mentz, Triers, Liege, Munich, Munſter, Paderborn, &c.*

A Dute	=		—	
3 Dutes	=	a Cruitzer	—	
2 Cruitzers	=	an Albus	—	
8 Dutes	=	a Stiver	—	
3 Stivers	=	a Plapart	—	3
4 Plaperts	=	a Copſtuck	—	8
40 Stivers	=	a Guilder	—	2 4
2 Guilders	=	a Hard Dollar	—	4 8
4 Guilders	=	a Ducat	—	9 4

BOHEMIA,

EUROPE, Northern Parts. GERMANY.

BOHEMIA, SILESIA, AND HUNGARY.

Prague, Breslaw, Presburg, &c.

				L.	s.	d.	
A Fening	=	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{88}$
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{10}$
3 Fenings	=	a Groſh	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{10}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{11}$
2 Cruitzers	=	a White Groſh	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{11}$
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould	—	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	=	*a Rix-dollar	—	0	3	6	
2 Goulds	=	a Hard Dollar	—	0	4	8	
4 Goulds	=	a Ducat	—	0	9	4	

AUSTRIA AND SWABIA.

Vienna, Trieſte, &c. Augſburg, Blenheim, &c.

A Fening	—	——	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{88}$
2 Fenings	=	a Dreyer	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{10}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{11}$
14 Fenings	=	a Groſh	—	0	0	1	$\frac{10}{11}$
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen	—	0	0	1	$\frac{10}{11}$
15 Batzen	=	a Gould	—	0	0	1	
90 Cruitzers	=	*a Rix-dollar	—	0	0	6	
2 Florins	=	a Speci-dollar	—	0	4	6	
60 Batzen	=	a Ducat	—	0	9	4	

FANCONIA, *Franckfort, Nuremburg, Dettingen, &c.*

A Fening	——	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{88}$
4 Fenings	=	a Cruitzer	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{11}$
3 Cruitzers	=	a Keyſer Groſh		0	0	1	
4 Cruitzers	=	a Batzen	—	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{11}$
15 Cruitzers	=	an Ort Gold	—	0	0	7	
60 Cruitzers	=	a Gould	—	0	2	4	
90 Cruitzers	=	*a Rix-dollar	—	0	3	6	
2 Goulds	=	a Hard Dollar	—	0	4	8	
240 Cruitzers	=	a Ducat	—	0	9	4	

POLAND AND PRUSSIA.

Cracow, or Warſaw, &c. Dantzic, Koningſberg, &c.

A Shelon	—	——	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{41}$
3 Shelons	=	a Groſh	—	0	0	0	$\frac{7}{11}$
5 Groſhen	=	a Couſſic	—	0	0	2	$\frac{1}{2}$
3 Couſtics	=	a Tinfe	—	0	0	7	
18 Groſhen	=	an Ort	—	0	0	8	$\frac{2}{3}$
30 Groſhen	=	a Florin	—	0	1	2	
90 Groſhen	=	*a Rix-dollar	—	0	3	6	
8 Florins	=	a Ducat	—	0	9	4	
85 Rix-dollars	=	a Frederic d'Or	—	0	17	6	
—	=	—	—				

LIVONIA. *Riga, Revel, Narva, &c.*

				£.	s.	d.	
A Blacken	—	——	—	0	0	0	4/88
6 Blackens	=	a Groſh	—	0	0	0	7/11
9 Blackens	=	a Vording	—	0	0	0	7/11
2 Groſhen	=	a Whiten	—	0	0	0	14/11
6 Groſhen	=	a Marc	—	0	0	2	4/7
30 Groſhen	=	a Florin	—	0	1	2	
90 Groſhen	=	* a Rix dollar	—	0	3	6	
108 Groſhen	=	an Albertus	—	0	4	2	6/11
64 Whitens	=	a Copper-plate Dollar		0	5	0	

DENMARK, ZEALAND, AND NORWAY.
Copenhagen, Sound, &c. Bergen, Drontheim, &c.

A Skilling	——	——	—	0	0	0	1/16
6 Skillings	=	a Duggen	—	0	0	3	1/8
16 Skillings	=	* a Marc	—	0	0	9	
20 Skillings	=	a Rix-marc	—	0	0	11	1/4
24 Skillings	=	a Rix-ort	—	0	1	1	1/2
4 Marcs	=	a Crown	—	0	3	0	
6 Marcs	=	a Rix-dollar	—	0	4	6	
11 Marcs	=	a Ducat	—	0	8	3	
14 Marcs	=	a Hatt Ducat	—	0	10	6	

SWEDEN AND LAPLAND.
Stockholm, Upſal, Thorn.

* A Runſtick	——	—— ——	—	0	0	0	1/16
2 Runſticks	=	a Stiver	—	0	0	0	1/8
8 Runſticks	=	a Copper Marc		0	0	1	1/2
3 Copper Marcs	=	a Silver Marc	—	0	0	4	3/4
4 Copper Marcs	=	a Copper Dollar		0	0	6	1/2
9 Copper Marcs	=	a Caroline	—	0	1	2	
3 Copper Dollars	=	a Silver Dollar		0	1	6	3/4
3 Silver Dollars	=	a Rix-dollar	—	0	4	6	
2 Rix-dollars	=	a Ducat	—	0	9	4	

RUSSIA AND MUSCOVY.
Peterſburgh, Archangel, Moſcow.

A Poluſca	——	—	—	0	0	0	1/208
2 Poluſcas	=	a Denuſca	—	0	0	0	1/104
2 Denuſcas	=	* a Copec	—	0	0	0	1/52
2 Copecs	=	an Altin	—	0	0	1	1/26
10 Copecs	=	a Grievener	—	0	0	5	1/5
25 Copecs	=	a Polpotin	—	0	1	1	1/2
50 Copecs	=	a Poltin	—	0	2	3	
100 Copecs	=	a Ruble	—	0	4	6	
2 Rubles	=	a Xervonitz	—	0	9	0	

BASIL, *Zurich, Zug, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.	
A Rap	——	—	0	0	0	1/4
3 Rapen	= a Fening	—	0	0	0	1/2
4 Fenings	= a Cruitzer	—	0	0	0	1/2
12 Fenings	= *a Sol	—	0	0	1	1/2
15 Fenings	= a Coarse Batzen	—	0	0	1	2/3
18 Fenings	= a Good Batzen	—	0	0	2	1/4
20 Sols	= *a Livre	—	0	2	6	
50 Cruitzers	= a Gulden	—	0	2	6	
108 Cruitzers	= a Rix-dollar	—	0	4	6	

St. GALL. *Appensal, &c.*

An Heller	——	—	0	0	0	1/2
2 Hellers	= a Fening	—	0	0	0	1/2
4 Fenings	= a Cruitzer	—	0	0	0	1/2
12 Fenings	= *a Sol	—	0	0	1	1/2
4 Cruitzers	= a Coarse Batzen	—	0	0	2	
5 Cruitzers	= a Good Batzen	—	0	0	2	1/2
20 Sols	= *a Livre	—	0	2	6	
60 Cruitzers	= a Gould	—	0	2	6	
102 Cruitzers	= a Rix dollar	—	0	4	3	

BERN, *Lucerne, Neufchatel,*

A denier	——	—	0	0	0	1/2
4 Deniers	= a Cruitzer	—	0	0	0	
3 Cruitzers	= *a Sol	—	0	0	1	
4 Cruitzers	= a Plapert	—	0	0	1	
5 Cruitzers	= a Gros	—	0	0	2	
6 Cruitzers	= a Batzen	—	0	0	2	
20 Sols	= *a Livre	—	0	2	0	
75 Cruitzers	= a Gulden	—	0	2	6	
135 Cruitzers	= a Crown	—	0	4	6	

GENEVA, *Pekay, Bonne, &c.*

A Denier	——	—	0	0	0	1/2
2 Deniers	= a Denier current	—	0	0	0	1/2
12 Deniers	= a Small Sol	—	0	0	0	
12 Deniers current	= a Sol current	—	0	0	0	
12 Small Sols	= *a Florin	—	0	0	4	1/2
20 Sols current	= *a Livre current	—	0	1	3	
10½ Florins	= a Patacoon	—	0	3	11	3/4
15 ¼ Florins	= a Croisade	—	0	5	10	1/2
24 Florins	= a Ducat	—	0	9	0	

EUROPE, Southern Parts;

FRANCE and NAVARRE.

Lisle, Cambray, Valenciennes, &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Denier			—	0	0
12 Deniers	=	a Sol	—	0	0
15 Deniers	=	*a Patard	—	0	0
15 Patards	=	*a Piette	—	0	9
20 Sols	=	a Livre Tournois	—	0	10
20 Patards	=	*a Florin	—	0	1
60 Sols	=	an Ecu of Ex.	—	0	2
10½ Livres	=	a Ducat	—	0	9
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	—	1	0

Dunkirk, St. Omers, St. Quintin, &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A denier			—	0	0
12 Deniers	=	a Sol	—	0	0
15 Deniers	=	*a Patard	—	0	0
15 Sols	=	*a Piette	—	0	7
20 Sols	=	*a Livre Tournois	—	0	10
3 Livres	=	an Ecu of Ex.	—	0	2
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	—	1	0
24 Livres	=	a Guinea	—	1	1
30½ Livres	=	a Moeda	—	1	7

Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, &c. Bourdeaux, Bayonne, &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Denier			—	0	0
3 Deniers	=	a Liard	—	0	0
2 Liards	=	a Dardene	—	0	0
12 Deniers	=	a Sol	—	0	0
20 Sols	=	* Livre Tournois	—	0	10
60 Sols	=	an Ecu of Ex.	—	0	2
6 Livres	=	an Ecu	—	0	5
10 Livres	=	* a Piſtole	—	0	8
24 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or	—	1	0

PORTUGAL. *Liſbon, Oporto, &c.*

			£.	s.	d.
* A Re			—	0	0
10 Rez	=	a Half Vintin	—	0	0
20 Rez	=	a Vintin	—	0	1
5 Vintins	=	a Teſtoon	—	0	6
4 Teſtoons	=	a Cruſade of Ex.	—	0	2
24 Vintins	=	a New Cruſade	—	0	3
10 Teſtoons	=	*a Milre	—	0	5
48 Teſtoons	=	a Moidore	—	1	7
64 Teſtoons	=	a Joaneſe	—	1	16

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

SPAIN and CATALONIA.

Madrid, Cadiz, Seville, &c. New Plate,

				L.	s	d.	
A Maravedie	—		—	0	0	0	41/272
2 Maravedies	=	a Quartil	—	0	0	0	41/136
34 Maravedies	=	a Rial	—	0	0	5	1/4
2 Rials	=	a Piſtarine	—	0	0	10	1/2
8 Rials	=	*a Piaſtre of Ex.		0	3	7	
10 Rials	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
375 Maravedies	=	*a Ducat of Ex.		0	4	11	1/2
32 Rials	=	*a Piſtole of Ex.		0	14	4	
36 Rials	=	a Piſtole		0	16	9	

Gibraltar, Malaga, Denia, &c. Velon,

* A Maravedie	—		—	0	0	0	21/544
2 Maravedies	=	an Ochavo	—	0	0	0	21/272
4 Maravedies	=	a Quartil	—	0	0	0	21/136
34 Maravedies	=	*a Rial Velon	—	0	0	2	1/4
15 Rials	=	*a Piaſtre of Ex.		0	3	7	
512 Maravedies	=	a Piaſtre	—	0	3	7	
60 Rials	=	*a Piſtole of Ex.		0	14	4	
2048 Maravedies	=	a Piſtole of Ex.		0	14	4	
70 Rials	=	a Piſtole	—	0	16	9	

Barcelona, Saragoſſa, Valencia, &c Old Plate.

A Maravedie	—		—	0	0	0	41/1224
16 Maravedies	=	a Soldo	—	0	0	3	3/4
2 Soldos	=	a Rial Old Plate		0	0	6	1/4
20 Soldos	=	*a Libra	—	0	5	7	1/2
24 Soldos	=	*a Ducat	—	0	6	9	
16 Soldos	=	*a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
22 Soldos	=	*a Ducat	—	0	6	2	1/4
21 Soldos	=	*a Ducat	—	0	5	10	1/4
60 Soldos	=	a Piſtole	—	0	16	9	

ITALY.

GENOA. *Novi, St. Remo, &c.*

CORSICA. *Baſtia, &c.*

A Denari	—		—	0	0	0	41/1224
12 Denari	=	a Soldi	—	0	0	0	41/1020
4 Soldi	=	a Chevalet	—	0	10	1	1/17
30 Soldi	=	*a Lire	—	0	0	8	2/5
30 Soldi	=	a Teſtoon	—	0	1	0	2/10
5 Lires	=	a Cruſade of Ex.		0	3	7	
115 Soldi	=	*a Pezzo of Ex.		0	4	2	
6 Teſtoons	=	a Genouine		0	6	2	
20 Lires	=	a Piſtole		0	14	4	

PIEDMONT, SAVOY, AND SARDINIA.

Turin, Chamberry, Cagliari, &c.

			£.	s.	d.
A Denari	=	—	0	0	0
3 Denari	=	a Quatrini —	0	0	0
12 Denari	=	a Soldi —	0	0	0
12 Soldi	=	*a Florin —	0	0	9
20 Soldi	=	*a Lire —	0	1	3
6 Florins	=	a Scudi —	0	4	6
7 Florins	=	a Ducattoon —	0	5	3
13 Lires	=	a Piſtole —	0	16	3
16 Lires	=	a Louis d'Or.	1	0	0

Milan, Modena, Parma, Pavia, &c.

A Denari	=	—	0	0	0
3 Denari	=	a Quatrini —	0	0	0
12 Denari	=	a Soldi —	0	0	0
20 Soldi	=	*a Lire —	0	0	8
115 Soldi	=	a Scudi current	0	4	2
117 Soldi	=	*a Scudi of Ex.	0	4	3
6 Lires	=	a Philip —	0	4	4
22 Lires	=	a Piſtole —	0	16	0
23 Lires	=	a Spaniſh Piſtole	0	16	9

Leghorn, Florence, &c.

A Denari	=	—	0	0	0
4 Denari	=	a Quatrini —	0	0	0
12 Denari	=	a Soldi —	0	0	0
5 Quatrini	=	a Craca —	0	0	0
8 Cracas	=	a Quilo —	0	0	5
20 Soldi	=	*a Lire —	0	0	8
6 Lires	=	a Piaſtre of Ex.	0	4	2
7½ Lires	=	a Ducat —	0	5	2
22 Lires	=	a Piſtole	0	15	6

ROME, *Civita Vecchia, Ancona, &c.*

A Quatrini	=	—	0	0	0
5 Quatrini	=	a Bayoc —	0	0	0
8 Bayocs	=	a Julio —	0	0	6
10 Bayocs	=	a Stampt Julio	0	0	0
24 Bayocs	=	a Teſtoon —	0	1	6
10 Julios	=	a Crown Current	0	5	0
12 Julios	=	a Crown ſtampt	0	6	0
18 Julios	=	a Chequin —	0	9	0
31 Julios	=	a Piſtole —	0	15	6

NAPLES

EUROPE, Southern Parts.

ITALY.

NAPLES. *Gaieta, Capua, &c.*

				£.	s.	d.	
A Quatrini	—		—	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{10}$
3 Quatrini	=	a Grain	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 Grains	=	a Carlin	—	0	0	4	
40 Quatrini	=	a Paulo	—	0	0	5	$\frac{1}{3}$
20 Grains	=	a Tarin	—	0	0	8	
140 Grains	=	a Teſtoon	—	0	1	4	
100 Grains	=	a Ducat of Ex.	—	0	3	4	
123 Tarins	=	a Piſtole	—	0	15	4	
25 Tarins	=	a Spaniſh Piſtole		1	16	9	

SICILY AND MALTA. *Palermo, Meſſina, &c.*

A Pichila	—		—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
6 Pichili	=	a Grain	—	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{10}$
8 Pichili	=	a Ponti	—	0	0	0	$\frac{8}{10}$
10 Grains	=	a Carlin	—	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{12}$
20 Grains	=	a Tarin	—	0	0	3	$\frac{1}{2}$
6 Tarins	=	a Florin of Ex.		0	1	6	$\frac{9}{10}$
13 Tarins	=	a Ducat of Ex.		0	3	4	
60 Carlins	=	an Ounce	—	0	7	8	$\frac{4}{12}$
2 Ounces	=	a Piſtole	—	0	15	4	

Bologna, Ravenna, &c.

A Quatrini	—		—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
6 Quatrini	=	a Bayoc	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 Bayocs	=	a Julio	—	0	0	6	
20 Bayocs	=	*a Lire	—	0	1	0	
3 Julios	=	a Teſtoon	—	0	1	6	
85 Bayocs	=	a Scudi of Ex.	—	0	4	3	
105 Bayocs	=	a Ducattoon	—	0	5	3	
100 Bayocs	=	a Crown	—	0	5	0	
31 Julios	=	a Piſtole	—	0	15	6	

VENICE, *Bergham, &c.*

A Picoli	—		—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
12 Picoli	=	a Soldi	—	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{5}$
6½ Soldi	=	*a Gros	—	0	0	2	$\frac{1}{6}$
18 Soldi	=	a Jule	—	0	0	6	
20 Soldi	=	*a Lire	—	0	0	6	$\frac{2}{3}$
3 Jules	=	a Teſtoon	—	0	1	6	
124 Soldi	=	a Ducat current	—	0	3	5	$\frac{1}{2}$
124 Gros	=	*a Ducat of Ex.	—	0	4	4	
17 Lires	=	a Chequin	—	0	9	2	

EUROPE, S. Parts.

TURKEY. *Morea, Candia, Cyprus, &c.*

					£.	s.	d.	
A Mangar	—	—	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{3}{10}$
4 Mangars	=	an Aſper	—		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{2}$
3 Aſpers	=	a Parae	—		0	0	1	$\frac{4}{7}$
5 Aſpers	=	a Beſtic	—		0	0	3	
10 Aſpers	=	an Oſtic	—		0	0	6	
20 Aſpers	=	a Solota	—		0	1	0	
80 Aſpers	=	*a Piaſtre	—		0	4	0	
100 Aſpers	=	a Caragrouch	—		0	5	0	
10 Solotas	=	a Xeriff	—		0	10	0	

ASIA.

ARABIA. *Medina, Mecca, Mocha, &c.*

A Carret	—	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{3}{4}$
5¼ Carrets	=	a Caveer	—		0	0	0	$\frac{11}{56}$
7 Carrets	=	*a Comaſhee	—		0	0	0	$\frac{3}{16}$
80 Carrets	=	a Larin	—		0	0	10	$\frac{1}{2}$
18 Comaſhees	=	an Abyſs	—		0	1	4	$\frac{1}{7}$
60 Comaſhees	=	*a Piaſtre	—		0	4	6	
80 Caveers	=	a Dollar	—		0	4	6	
100 Comaſhees	=	a Sequin	—		0	7	6	
80 Larins	=	*a Tomond	—		3	7	6	

ASIA.

PERSIA. *Iſpahan, Ormus, Gombroon, &c.*

A Coz	—	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{3}{16}$
4 Coz	=	a Biſti	—		0	0	1	
10 Coz	=	a Shahee	—		0	0	4	
20 Coz	=	a Mamouda	—		0	0	8	
25 Coz	=	a Larin	—		0	0	10	
4 Shahees	=	an Abaſhee	—		0	1	4	
5 Abaſhees	=	an Or	—		0	6	8	
12 Abaſhees	=	a Bovello	—		0	16	0	
50 Abaſhees	=	*a Tomond	—		3	6	8	

ASIA.

Mogul.

GZURAT. *Surat, Cambay, &c.*

A Pecka	—	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{3}{80}$
2 Peckas	=	a Pice	—		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{20}$
4 Pices	=	a Finam	—		0	0	1	$\frac{7}{10}$
5 Pices	=	a Viz	—		0	0	2	$\frac{11}{20}$
16 Pices	=	an Ana	—		0	0	7	$\frac{1}{2}$
4 Anas	=	a Rupee	—		0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	an Engliſh Crown			0	5	0	
24 Anas	=	a Pagoda	—		0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	=	a Gold Rupee	—		1	15	0	

Bombay,

ASIA.

MOGUL.

MALABAR.

Bombay Dabul, &c.

				L.	s.	d.	
A* Budgrook	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{27}{100}$
2 Budgrooks	=	*a Ree	—	0	0	0	$\frac{27}{100}$
5 Rez	=	a Pice	—	0	0	0	$\frac{27}{10}$
16 Pices	=	a Laree	—	0	0	5	$\frac{2}{1}$
20 Pices	=	a Quarter		0	0	6	$\frac{4}{3}$
240 Rez	=	a Xeraphim		0	1	4	$\frac{1}{1}$
4 Quarters	=	a Rupee	—	0	2	3	
14 Quarters	=	a Pagoda		0	8	0	
60 Quarters	=	a Gold Rupee		1	15	0	

Goa, Viſapour, &c.

*A Re		—		0	0	0	$\frac{27}{100}$
2 Rez	=	a Bazaraco	—	0	0	0	$\frac{27}{100}$
2 Bazaracas	=	a Pecka	—	0	0	0	$\frac{27}{100}$
20 Rez	=	a Vintin	—	0	0	1	$\frac{27}{10}$
4 Vintins	=	a Laree	—	0	0	5	$\frac{2}{1}$
3 Larees	=	a Xeraphin		0	1	4	$\frac{1}{1}$
42 Vintins	=	a Tangu	—	0	4	6	
4 Tangus	=	a Paru	—	0	18	0	
8 Tangus	=	a Gold Rupee		1	15	0	

COROMANDEL. *Madraſs, Pondicherry, &c.*

A Caſh	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
5 Caſh	=	a Viz	—	0	0	0	$\frac{1}{10}$
2 Viz	=	a Pice	—	0	0	0	$\frac{4}{3}$
6 Pices	=	a Pical	—	0	0	2	$\frac{1}{2}$
8 Pices	=	a Fanam	—	0	0	3	
10 Fanams	=	a Rupee	—	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	an Engliſh Crown		0	5	0	
36 Fanams	=	a Pagoda	—	0	8	9	
4 Pagodas	=	a Gold Rupee	—	1	15	0	

BENGAL. *Callicut, Calcutta, &c.*

A Pice	—	—		0	0	0	$\frac{1}{12}$
4 Pices	=	a Fanam	—	0	0	0	$\frac{4}{3}$
6 Pices	=	a Viz	—	0	0	0	$\frac{12}{10}$
12 Pices	=	an Ana	—	0	0	1	$\frac{7}{6}$
10 Anas	=	a Fiano	—	0	1	6	$\frac{2}{1}$
16 Anas	=	a Rupee *	—	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	a French Ecu		0	5	0	
2 Rupees	=	an Engliſh Crown		0	5	0	
56 Anas	=	a Pagoda	—	0	8	9	

* Major Rennel ſays, that we may with eaſe reduce any large ſum in rupees to ſterling, by calculating roundly at the rate of a lack of rupees to ten thouſand pounds; and that a crore of rupees is equal to a million ſterling.

ASIA.

SIAM. *Pegu, Malacca, Cambodia, Sumatra, Java, Borneo, &c.*

				£.	s.	d.	
A Cori	—	—		0	0	0	3/100
800 Cori	=	a Fettee	=	0	0	0	1/8
125 Fettees	=	a Sataleer	—	0	0	7	1/2
250 Fettees	=	a Sooco	—	0	1	3	
500 Fettees	=	a Tutal	—	0	2	6	
900 Fettees	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
2 Ticals	=	a Rial	—	0	5	0	
4 Soocos	=	an Ecu	—	0	5	0	
8 Sataleers	=	a Crown	—	0	5	0	

CHINA. *Pekin, Canton, &c.*

A Caxa	—	—		0	0	0	1/2
10 Caxa	=	a Candareen	—	0	0	0	1/4
10 Candereens	=	a Mace	—	0	0	8	
35 Candereens	=	a Rupee	—	0	2	6	
2 Rupees	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
70 Candareens	=	a Rix dollar	—	0	4	4	1/3
7 Maces	=	an Ecu	—	0	5	0	
2 Rupees	=	a Crown	—	0	5	0	
10 Maces	=	a Tale	—	0	6	8	

JAPAN. *Jeddo, Meaco, &c.*

A Piti	—	—		0	0	0	1/2
29 Pitis	=	a Mace	—	0	0	4	
15 Maces	=	an Ounce Silver		0	4	10	1/3
20 Maces	=	a Tale	—	0	6	8	
30 Maces	=	an Ingot	—	0	9	8	1/3
13 Ounces Silver	=	an Ounce Gold		3	3	0	
2 Ounces gold	=	a Japaneſe	—	6	6	0	
2 Japaneſes	=	a Double	—	12	12	0	
21 Ounces Gold	=	a Cattee	—	66	3	0	

AFRICA.

EGYPT. *Old and New Cairo, Alexandria, Sayde, &c.*

An Aſper	—	—		0	0	0	1/2
3 Aſpers	=	a Medin	—	0	0	1	
24 Medins	=	an Italian Ducat		0	3	4	
80 Aſpers	=	a Piaſtre	—	0	4	0	
30 Medins	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
96 Aſpers	=	an Ecu	—	0	5	0	
32 Menins	=	a Crown	—	0	5	0	
200 Aſpers	=	a Sultanin	—	0	10	0	
70 Medins	=	a Pargo Dollar		0	10	6	

AFRICA.

BARBARY. *Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, Una, &c.*

				L.	s.	d.	
An Aſper	——	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{5}{12}$
3 Aſpers	=	a Medin	—	0	0	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 Aſpers	=	a Rial old Plate	—	0	0	6	$\frac{3}{4}$
2 Rials	=	a Double	—	0	1	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
4 Doubles	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
24 Medins	=	a Silver Chequin		0	3	4	
30 Medins	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
180 Aſpers	=	a Zequin	—	0	8	10	
15 Doubles	=	a Piſtole	—	0	16	9	

MOROCCO. *Santa Cruz, Mequinez, Fez, Tangier, Sallee &c.*

A Fluce	—	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{9}{12}$
24 Fluces	=	a Blanquil	—	0	0	2	
4 Blanquils	=	an Ounce	—	0	0	8	
7 Blanquils	=	an Octavo	—	0	1	2	
14 Blanquils	=	a Quarto	—	0	2	4	
2 Quartos	=	a Media	—	0	4	8	
28 Blanquils	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
54 Blanquils	=	a Xequin	—	0	9	0	
100 Blanquils	=	a Piſtole	—	0	16	9	

AMERICA.

ENGLISH. *Jamaica, Barbadoes, &c.*

* A Halfpenny	—	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{57}{1680}$
2 Halfpence	=	*Penny	—	0	0	0	$\frac{57}{840}$
7½ Pence	=	a Bit	—	0	0	5	$\frac{3}{4}$
12 Pence	=	*a Shilling		0	0	8	$\frac{11}{20}$
75 Pence	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
7 Shillings	=	a Crown	—	0	5	0	
20 Shillings	=	*a Pound	—	0	14	3	
24 Shillings	=	a Piſtole	—	0	16	9	
30 Shillings	=	a Guinea	—	1	1	0	

FRENCH. *St. Domingo, Martinico, &c.*

* A half Sol	—	—	—	0	0	0	$\frac{117}{840}$
2 Half Sols	=	*a Sol	—	0	0	0	$\frac{117}{420}$
7½ Sols	=	a Half Scalin		0	0	2	$\frac{9}{10}$
15 Sols	=	a Scalin	—	0	0	5	$\frac{3}{4}$
20 Sols	=	*a Livre	—	0	0	7	$\frac{1}{10}$
7 Livres	=	a Dollar	—	0	4	6	
8 Livres	=	an Ecu	—	0	4	10	$\frac{1}{2}$
26 Livres	=	a Piſtole	—	0	16	9	
32 Livres	=	a Louis d'Or		1	0	0	

ENGLISH

AMERICA. Continent.

ENGLISH. *Nova Scotia, New England, Virginia, &c.*

				£.	s.	d.
*A Penny	—	—	—	0	0	1
12 Pence	—	*a Shilling	—	0	1	0
20 Shillings	=	*a Pound	—	1	0	0
2 Pounds						
3 Pounds						
4 Pounds						
5 Pounds						
6 Pounds						
7 Pounds						
8 Pounds						
9 Pounds						
10 Pounds						

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold and Silver Coins that are imported.

Canada, Florida, Cayenne, &c.

*A Denier		
12 Deniers	=	*a Sol
20 Sols	=	*a Livre
2 Livres		
3 Livres		
4 Livres		
5 Livres		
6 Livres		
7 Livres		
8 Livres		
9 Livres		
10 Livres		

The Value of the Currency alters according to the Plenty or Scarcity of Gold or Silver Coins that are imported.

Note. For all the *Spaniſh*, *Portugueſe*, *Dutch*, and *Daniſh* Dominions, either on the Continent or in the WEST INDIES, ſee the Monies of the reſpective nations.

A

NEW CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE

OF

REMARKABLE EVENTS, DISCOVERIES, and INVENTIONS;

ALSO,

The ÆRA, the COUNTRY, and WRITINGS of LEARNED MEN;

The whole comprehending in one View, the Analyſis or Outlines of General Hiſtory, from the Creation to the preſent Time.

Bef. Chriſt.

4004 THE creation of the world, and Adam and Eve.

4003 The birth of Cain, the firſt who was born of a woman.

3017 Enoch, for his piety, is tranſlated in Heaven.

2348 The old world is deſtroyed by a deluge, which continued 377 days.

2247 The tower of Babel is built about this time by Noah's poſterity, upon which God miraculouſly confounds their language, and thus diſperſes them into different nations.

About the ſame time, Noah is, with great probability, ſuppoſed to have parted from his rebellious offspring, and to have led a colony of ſome of the more tractable into the Eaſt, and there either he or one of his ſucceſſors to have founded the ancient Chineſe monarchy.

2234 The celeſtial obſervations are begun at Babylon, the city which firſt gave birth to learning and the ſciences.

2188 Miſraim, the ſon of Ham, founds the kingdom of Egypt, which laſted 1663 years, down to its conqueſt by Cambyſes, in 525 before Chriſt.

2059 Ninus, the ſon of Belus, founds the kingdom of Aſſyria, which laſted above 1000 years, and out of its ruins were formed the Aſſyrians of Babylon, thoſe of Nineveh, and the kingdom of the Medes.

1921 The covenant of God made with Abram, when he leaves Haran to go into Canaan, which begins the 430 years ſojourning.

1897 The cities of Sodom and Gomorrah are deſtroyed for their wickedneſs, by fire from Heaven.

1856 The kingdom of Argos, in Greece, begins under Inachus.

1822 Memnon, the Egyptian, invents the letters.

1715 Prometheus firſt ſtruck fire from flints.

1635 Joſeph dies in Egypt, which concludes the books of Geneſis, containing a period of 2369 years.

1574 Aaron born in Egypt; 1490, appointed by God firſt high-prieſt of the Iſraelites.

1571 Moſes, brother to Aaron, born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter, who educates him in all the learning of the Egyptians.

1556 Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt into Attica, and begins the kingdom of Athens, in Greece.

1546 Scamander comes from Crete into Phrygia, and begins the kingdom of Troy.

1493 Cadmus carried the Phœnician letters into Greece, and built the citadel of Thebes.

1491 Moſes performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom together with 600,000 Iſraelites, beſides children; which completed the 430 years of ſojourning. They miraculouſly paſs through the Red Sea, and come to the Deſert of Sinai, where Moſes receives from God, and delivers to the people the

Ten

Ten Commandments, and the other laws, and ſets up the tabernacle, and in it the ark of the covenant.

1485 The firſt ſhip that appeared in Greece was brought from Egypt by Danaus, who arrived at Rhodes and brought with him his fifty daughters.

1453 The firſt Olympic games celebrated at Olympia, in Greece.

1452 The Pentateuch, or five firſt books of Moſes, are written in the land of Moab, where he died the year following, aged 120.

1451 The Iſraelites, after ſojourning in the Wilderneſs forty years, are led under Joſhua into the land of Canaan, where they fix themſelves, after having ſubdued the natives; and the period of the ſabbatical year commences.

1406 Iron is found in Greece from the accidental burning of the woods.

1198 The rape of Helen by Paris, which, in 1193 gave riſe to the Trojan war, and ſiege of Troy by the Greeks, which continued ten years, when that city was taken and burnt.

1048 David is ſole king of Iſrael.

1004 The Temple is ſolemnly dedicated by Solomon.

896 Elijah, the prophet, is tranſlated to heaven.

894 Money firſt made of gold and ſilver at Argos.

869 The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by queen Dido.

814 The kingdom of Macedon begins.

776 The firſt Olympiad begins.

753 Æra of the building of Rome in Italy by Romulus, firſt king of the Romans.

720 Samaria taken, after three years ſiege, and the kingdom of Iſrael finiſhed, by Salmanaſar, king of Aſſyria, who carried the ten tribes into captivity.

The firſt eclipſe of the moon on record.

658 Byzantium (now Conſtantinople) built by a colony of Athenians.

604 By order of Necho, king of Egypt, ſome Phœnicians ſailed from the Red Sea round Africa, and returned by the Mediterranean.

600 Thales of Miletus travels into Egypt, conſults the prieſts of Memphis, acquires the knowledge of geometry, aſtronomy, and philoſophy; returns to Greece, calculates eclipſes, gives general notions of the univerſe, and maintains that one ſupreme intelligence regulates all its motions.

Maps, globes, and the ſigns of the Zodiac, invented by Anaximander, the ſcholar of Thales.

597 Jehoiakin, king of Judah, is carried away captive, by Nebuchadnezzar, to Babylon.

587 The city of Jeruſalem taken, after a ſiege of 18 months.

562 The firſt comedy at Athens acted upon a moveable ſcaffold.

559 Cyrus the firſt king of Perſia.

538 The kingdom of Babylon finiſhed; that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, iſſue an edict for the return of the Jews.

534 The firſt tragedy was acted at Athens, on a waggon by Theſpis.

526 Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library firſt founded.

515 The ſecond Temple at Jeruſalem is finiſhed under Darius.

509 Tarquin, the ſeventh and laſt king of the Romans, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two conſuls, and other republican magiſtrates, till the battle of Pharſalia, being a ſpace of 461 years.

504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians, which gave occaſion to the Perſian invaſion of Greece.

486 Eſchylus, the Greek poet, firſt gains the prize of tragedy.

481 Xerxes the Great king of Perſia, begins his expedition againſt Greece.

458 Ezra is ſent from Babylon to Jeruſalem, with the captive Jews and the veſſels of gold and ſilver, &c. being ſeventy weeks of years, or 490 years before the crucifixion of our Saviour.

454 The Romans ſend to Athens for Solon's laws.

452 The Decemvirs created at Rome, and the laws of the twelve tables compiled and ratified.

430 The hiſtory of the Old Teſtament finiſhes about this time.

Malachi the laſt of the prophets.

401 Retreat of 10,000 Greeks under Xenophon

400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy among the Greeks, believes the immortality of the ſoul, and a ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, for which and other ſublime doctrines, he is put to death by the Athenians, who ſoon after repent, and erect to his memory a ſtatue of braſs.

331 Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius, king of Perſia, and other nations of Aſia.

323 Dies at abylon, and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms.

825 Dionyſius, or Alexandria, began his aſtronomical æra on Monday June 26, being

the first who found the exact solar year to consist of 365 days, 5 hours, and 49 minutes.

284 Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint.

269 The first coining of silver at Rome.

264 The first Punic war begins, and continues 23 years. The chronology of the Arundelian marbles composed.

260 The Romans first concern themselves in naval affairs, and defeat the Carthaginians at sea.

237 Hamilcar, the Carthaginian, causes his son Hannibal, at nine years old, to swear eternal enmity to the Romans.

218 The second Punic war begins, and continues 77 years. Hannibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles, but being amused by his women, does not improve his victories by the storming of Rome.

190 The first Roman army enters Asia, and from the spoils of Antiochus brings the Asiatic luxury first to Rome.

168 Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom.

167 The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedonia.

163 The government of Judea under the Maccabees begins, and continues 126 years.

146 Carthage, the rival of Rome, is razed to the ground by the Romans.

135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.

52 Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain.

47 The battle of Pharsalia between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated.
The Alexandrian library, consisting of 400,000 valuable books, burnt by accident.

45 The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself.
The solar year introduced by Cæsar.

44 Cæsar, the greatest of the Roman conquerors, after having fought fifty pitched battles, and slain 1,192,000 men, and overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate-house.

31 The battle of Actium fought, in which Mark Anthony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Julius Cæsar.

30 Alexandria, in Egypt, is taken by Octavius, upon which Anthony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt is reduced to a Roman province.

27 Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus Cæsar, and an absolute exemption from the laws, and is properly the first Roman emperor.

8 Rome at this time is fifty miles in circumference, and contains 463,000 men fit to bear arms.
The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace, and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.

A. C.

12 *CHRIST hearing the Doctors in the temple; and asking them questions.

29 ——— is baptized in the wilderness by John.

33 ——— is crucified on Friday, April 3, at 3 o'clock P. M.
His Resurrection on Sunday, April 5; his Ascension, Thursday, May 14.

36 St. Paul converted.

39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
Pontius Pilate kills himself.

40 The name of Christians first given at Antioch to the followers of Christ.

43 Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain.

44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.

49 London is founded by the Romans; 368, surrounded by ditto with a wall, some parts of which are still to be observable.

51 Caractacus, the British king, is carried in chains to Rome.

52 The council of the apostles at Jerusalem.

55 St. Luke writes his Gospel.

59 The emperor Nero puts his mother and brothers to death.
———Persecutes the Druids in Britain.

* "I have often thought (says a judicious Commentator) that it is a great injury to the character of our Blessed Redeemer, to represent this story, whether in pictures or words, as if Christ, at this tender age, went up into the seats of the Doctors and there disputed with them. Not one word is said of his disputing by the Evangelist, but only of his hearing them and asking them questions, which was a very useful thing in these assemblies, and indeed the very end of them. All was conducted with the utmost modesty and decorum,

61 Boadicia the Britiſh queen, defeats the Romans; but is conquered ſoon after by Suetonius, governor of Britain.
62 St. Paul is ſent in bonds to Rome—writes his epiſtles between 51 and 66.
63 The acts of the Apoſtles written.
Chriſtianity is ſuppoſed to be introduced into Britain by St. Paul, or ſome of his diſciples about this time.
64 Rome ſet on fire, and burned for ſix days; upon which began (under Nero) the firſt perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.
67 St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
70 Whilſt the factious Jews are deſtroying one another with mutual fury, Titus, the Roman general, takes Jeruſalem, which is razed to the ground, and the plough made to paſs over it.
79 Herculaneum overwhelmed by an eruption from Mount Veſuvius.
83 The philoſophers expelled Rome by Domitian.
45 Julius Agricola, governor of South Britain, to protect the civilized Britons from the incurſions of the Caledonians, builds a line of forts between the rivers Forth and Clyde; defeats the Caledonians under Galgacus on the Grampian hills; and firſt ſails round Britain, which he diſcovers to be an iſland.
96 St. John the Evangeliſt wrote his revelation—his Goſpel in 97.
121 The Caledonians reconquer from the Romans all the ſouthern parts of Scotland; upon which the emperor Adrian builds a wall between Newcaſtle and Carliſle; but this alſo proving ineffectual, Pollius Urbicus, the Roman general, about the year 144, repairs Agricola's fort, which he joins by a wall four yards thick, ſince called Antoninus's wall.
135 The ſecond Jewiſh war ends when they were all baniſhed Judea.
139 Juſtin writes his firſt apology for the Chriſtians.
141 A number of hereſies appear about this time.
152 The emperor Antoninus Pius ſtops the perſecution againſt the Chriſtians.
217 The Septuagint ſaid to be found in a caſk.
222 About this time the Roman empire begins to ſink under its own weight. The Barbarians begin their eruptions, and the Goths have annual tribute not to moleſt the empire.
260 Valerius is taken priſoner by Sapor king of Perſia, and flayed alive.
274 Silk firſt brought from India: the manufactory of it introduced into Europe by ſome monks, 551; firſt worn by the clergy in England, 1534.
291 Two emperors, and two Cæſars, march to defend the four quarters of the empire.
306 Conſtantine the Great begins his reign.
308 Cardinals firſt began.
313 The tenth perſecution ends by an edict of Conſtantine, who favours the Chriſtians, and gives full liberty to their religion.
314 Three biſhops, or fathers, are ſent from Britain to aſſiſt at the council of Arles.
325 The firſt general council at Nice, when 318 fathers attended, againſt Arius, where was compoſed the famous Nicene creed, which we attribute to them.
328 Conſtantine removes the ſeat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforwards called Conſtantinople.
331 ——— orders all the heathen temples to be deſtroyed.
363 The Roman emperor Julian, ſurnamed the Apoſtate, endeavours in vain to rebuild the temple of Jeruſalem.
364 The Roman empire is divided into the eaſtern (Conſtantinople the capital) and weſtern (of which Rome continued to be the capital) each being now under the government of different emperors.
400 Bells invented by biſhop Paulinus, of Campagnia.
404 The kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland revives under Fergus.
406 The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, ſpread into France and Spain, by a conceſſion of Honorius, emperor of the Weſt.
410 Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Viſi-Goths.
412 The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain.
420 The kingdom of France begins upon the lower Rhine, under Pharamond.
426 The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; adviſing the Britons to arm in their own defence, and truſt to their own valour.
446 The Britons now left to themſelves, are greatly harraſſed by the Scots and Picts, upon which they once more make their complaint to the Romans, but receive no aſſiſtance from that quarter.
447 Attila (ſurnamed the Scourge of God) with his Huns ravage the Roman empire.

449 Vortigern

449 Vortigern, king of the Britons, invites the Saxons into Britain, againſt the Scots and Picts.
455 The Saxons having repulſed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to eſtabliſh themſelves in Kent, under Hengiſt.
476 The weſtern empire is finiſhed, 523 years after the battle of Pharſalia; upon the ruins of which ſeveral new ſtates ariſe in Italy and other parts, conſiſting of Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguiſhed, and the works of the learned are deſtroyed.
496 Clovis, king of France, baptiſed, and Chriſtianity begins in that kingdom.
508 Prince Arthur begins his reign over the Britons.
513 Conſtantinople beſieged by Vitalianus, whoſe fleet is burned by a ſpeculum of braſs.
516 The computing of time by the Chriſtian æra is introduced by Dionyſius the monk.
529 The code of Juſtinian, the eaſtern-emperor, is publiſhed.
557 A terrible plague all over Europe, Aſia, and Africa, which continues near 50 years.
581 Latin ceaſed to be ſpoken about this time in Italy.
596 Auguſtine the monk comes into England with forty monks.
606 Here begins the power of the popes, by the conceſſions of Phocas, emperor of the Eaſt.
622 Mahomet, a falſe prophet, flies from Mecca to Medina, in Arabia, in the 44th year of his age and the 10th of his miniſtry, when he laid the foundation of the Saracen empire, and from whom the Mahometan princes to this day claim their deſcent. His followers compute their time from this æra, which in Arabic is called Hegira i. e. the Flight.
637 Jeruſalem is taken by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet.
640 Alexandria in Egypt is taken by ditto, and the grand library there burnt by order of Omar, their caliph or prince.
653 The Saracens now extend their conqueſts on every ſide, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their poſterity.
664 Glaſs invented in England by Benalt, a monk.
685 The Britains, after a brave ſtruggle of near 150 years, are totally expelled by the Saxons, and driven into Wales and Cornwall.
713 The Saracens conquer Spain.
726 The controverſy about images begins, and occaſions many inſurrections in the eaſtern empire.
748 The computing of years from the birth of Chriſt began to be uſed in hiſtory.
749 The race of Abbas became caliphs of the Saracens, and encourage learning.
762 The city of Bagdad upon the Tigris, is made the capital for the caliphs of the houſe of Abbas.
800 Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the weſtern empire; gives the preſent names to the days and months; endeavours to reſtore learning in Europe; but mankind are not yet diſpoſed for it, being ſolely engroſſed in military enterprizes.
816 Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his ſubjects, for being a Chriſtian.
828 Egbert, king of Weſſex, unites the Heptarchy, by the name of England.
836 The Flemings trade to Scotland for fiſh.
838 The Scots and Picts have a deciſive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kennet, which begins the ſecond period of the Scottiſh hiſtory.
867 The Danes begin their ravages in England.
896 Alfred the Great, after ſubduing the Daniſh invaders (againſt whom he fought 56 battles by ſea and land), compoſes his body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tythings; erects county courts, and founds the univerſity of Oxford about this time.
915 The univerſity of Cambridge founded.
936 The Saracen empire is divided by uſurpation into ſeven kingdoms.
975 Pope Boniface VII. is depoſed and baniſhed for his crimes.
979 Coronation oaths ſaid to be firſt uſed in England.
991 The figures in arithmetic are brought into Europe by the Saracens from Arabia. Letters of the alphabet were hitherto uſed.
996 Otho III. makes the empire of Germany elective.
999 Boleſlaus, the firſt king of Poland.
1000 Paper made of cotton rags was in uſe; that of linen rags in 1170; the manufactory introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.
1005 All the old churches are rebuilt about this time in a new manner of architecture.

1015 Children forbidden by law to be ſold by their parents in England.
1017 Canute, king of Denmark, gets poſſeſſion of England.
1040 The Danes, after ſeveral engagements with various ſucceſs, are about this time driven out of Scotland, and never again return in a hoſtile manner.
1041 The Saxon line reſtored under Edward the Confeſſor.
1043 The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, ſerving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take poſſeſſion of Perſia.
1054 Leo IX. the firſt pope that kept up an army.
1057 Malcolm III. king of Scotland, kills the tyrant Macbeth at Dunſinane, and marries the princeſs Margaret, ſiſter to Edgar Atheling.
1065 The Turks take Jeruſalem from the Saracens.
1066 The battle of Haſtings fought between Harold and William, (ſurnamed the Baſtard) duke of Normandy, in which Harold is conquered and ſlain, after which William becomes king of England.
1070 William introduces the feudal law.
Muſical notes invented.
1075 Henry IV. emperor of Germany, and the pope, quarrel about the nomination of the German biſhops. Henry, in penance, walks barefooted to the pope, towards the end of January.
1076 Juſtices of the peace firſt appointed in England.
1080 Doomſday book began to be compiled by order of William, from a ſurvey of all the eſtates in England, and finiſhed in 1086.
The tower of London built by ditto, to curb his Engliſh ſubjects; numbers of whom fly to Scotland, where they introduce the Saxon or Engliſh language, are protected by Malcolm, and have lands given them.
1091 The Saracens in Spain, being hard preſſed by the Spaniards, call to their aſſiſtance Joſeph, king of Morocco; by which the Moors get poſſeſſion of all the Saracen dominions in Spain.
1096 The firſt cruſade to the Holy Land is begun under ſeveral Chriſtian princes, to drive the infidels from Jeruſalem.
1110 Edgar Atheling, the laſt of the Saxon princes, dies in England, where he had been permitted to reſide as a ſubject.
1118 The order of the Knights Templars inſtituted to defend the ſepulchre at Jeruſalem and to protect Chriſtian ſtrangers.
1151 The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.
1163 London bridge, conſiſting of 19 ſmall arches, firſt built of ſtone.
1164 The Teutonic order of religious knights begins in Germany.
1172 Henry II. king of England (and firſt of the Plantagenets), takes poſſeſſion of Ireland; which from that period, has been governed by an Engliſh viceroy, or lord lieutenant.
1176 England is divided, by Henry, into ſix circuits, and juſtice is diſpenſed by itinerant judges.
1180 Glaſs windows began to be uſed in private houſes in England.
1181 The laws of England are digeſted about this time by Glanville.
1182 Pope Alexander III. compelled the kings of England and France to hold the ſtirrups of his ſaddle when he mounted his horſe.
1186 The great conjunction of the ſun and moon and all the planets in Libra, happened in September.
1192 The battle of Aſcalon, in Judea, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladine's army, conſiſting of 300,000 combatants.
1194 *Dieu et mon Droit* firſt uſed as a motto by Richard, on a victory over the French.
1200 Chimnies were not known in England.
Surnames now begin to be uſed; firſt among the nobility.
1208 London incorporated, and obtained their firſt charter for electing their Lord-Mayor and other magiſtrates, from king John.
1215 Magna Charta is ſigned by king John and the barons of England.
Court of common Pleas eſtabliſhed.
1227 The Tartars, a new race of heroes, under Gingis-Kan, emerge from the northern parts of Aſia, over-run all the Saracen empire; and in imitation of former conquerors, carry death and deſolation wherever they march.
1233 The inquiſition, begun in 1204, is now truſted to the Dominicans.
The houſes of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, ſtill thatched with ſtraw.
1253 The famous aſtronomical tables are compoſed by Alonzo, king of Caſtile.
1258 The Tartars take Bagdad, which finiſhes the empire of the Saracens.

1263 Acho,

1263 Acho, king of Norway, invades Scotland with 160 ſail, and lands 20,000 men at the mouth of the Clyde, who are cut to pieces by Alexander III. who recovers the weſtern iſles.
1264 According to ſome writers, the commons of England were not ſummoned to parliament till this period.
1269 The Hamburgh company incorporated in England.
1273 The empire of the preſent Auſtrian family begins in Germany.
1282 Lewellyn, prince of Wales, defeated and killed by Edward I. who unites that principality to England.
1284 Edward II. born at Caernarvon, is the firſt prince of Wales.
1285 Alexander III. king of Scotland, dies, and that kingdom is diſputed by twelve candidates, who ſubmit their claims to the arbitration of Edward king of England: which lays the foundation of a long and deſolating war between both nations.
1293 There is a regular ſucceſſion of Engliſh parliaments from this year, being the 22d of Edward I.
1298 The preſent Turkiſh empire begins in Bithynia under Ottoman.
Silver hafted knives, ſpoons and cups, a great luxury.
Tallow candles ſo great a luxury, that ſplinters of wood were uſed for lights.
Wine ſold by apothecaries as a cordial.
1302 The mariner's compaſs invented or improved by Givia, of Naples.
1307 The beginning of the Swiſs cantons.
1308 The popes remove to Avignon in France for 70 years.
1310 Lincoln's Inn ſociety eſtabliſhed.
1314 The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert Bruce, which eſtabliſhes the latter on the throne of Scotland.
The cardinals ſet fire to the conclave and ſeparate. A vacancy in the papal chair for two years.
1320 Gold firſt coined in Chriſtendom; 1344 ditto in England.
1336 Two Brabant weavers ſettle at York, which, ſays Edward III. may prove of great benefit to us and our ſubjects.
1337 The firſt comet whoſe courſe is deſcribed with an aſtronomical exactneſs.
1340 Gunpowder and guns firſt invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologn; 1346; Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain him the battle of Creſſy; 1346 bombs and mortars were invented.
Oil painting firſt made uſe of by John Vaneck.
Heralds college inſtituted in England.
1344 The firſt creation to titles by patent uſed by Edward III.
1346 The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scots is taken priſoner.
1349 The order of the Garter inſtituted in England by Edward III. altered in 1557, and conſiſts of 26 knights.
1352 The Turks firſt enter Europe.
1354 The money in Scotland till now the ſame as in England.
1356 The battle of Poictiers, in which king John of France and his ſon are taken priſoners by Edward the Black Prince.
1357 Coals firſt brought to London.
1358 Arms of England and France firſt quartered by Edward III.
1362 The law pleadings in England changed from French to Engliſh, as a favour of Edward III. to his people.
John Wickliffe, an Engliſhman begins about this time to oppoſe the errors of the church of Rome with great acuteneſs and ſpirit. His followers are called Lollards.
1386 A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands eſtabliſhed in London.
Windſor caſtle built by Edward III.
1388 The battle of Otterburn between Hotſpur and the earl of Douglas; on this is founded the ballad of Chevy-Chace.
1391 Cards invented in France for the king's amuſement.
1399 Weſtminſter Abbey rebuilt and enlarged—Weſtminſter hall ditto.
Order of the Bath inſtituted at the coronation of Henry IV. renewed in 1725; conſiſting of 38 knights.
1410 Guildhall, London, built.
1411 The univerſity of St. Andrew's in Scotland, founded.
1415 The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England.
1428 The ſiege of Orleans, the firſt blow to the Engliſh power in France.
1430 About this time Laurantius of Harleim invented the art of printing, which he practiſed with ſeparate wooden types. Gutenburgh afterwards invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schoeffer, who invented the

the mode of caſting the types in matrices. Frederic Corſeilles began to print at Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton, who introduced into England the art of printing with fuſile types in 1474.

1446 The Vatican library founded at Rome.
The ſea breaks in at Dort, in Holland, and drowns 100,000 people.

1453 Conſtantinople taken by the Turks which ends the eaſtern empire, 1123 years from its dedication by Conſtantine the Great, and 2206 years from the foundation of Rome.

1454 The univerſity of Glaſgow, in Scotland, founded.

1460 Engraving and etching in copper invented.

1477 The univerſity of Aberdeen, in Scotland, founded.

1483 Richard III. king of England, and laſt of the Plantagenets, is defeated and killed at the battle of Boſworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII which puts an end to the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, after a conteſt of 30 years, and the loſs of 100,000 men.

1486 Henry eſtabliſhes fifty yeomen of the guards, the firſt ſtanding army.

1489 Maps and ſea charts firſt brought to England by Barth Columbus.

1491 William Grocyn publicly teaches the Greek language at Oxford.
The Moors hitherto a formidable enemy to the native Spaniards, are entirely ſubdued by Ferdinand, and become ſubject to that prince on certain conditions, which are ill obſerved by the Spaniards, whoſe clergy employ the powers of the Inquiſition, with all its tortures; and in 1609, near one million of the Moors are driven from Spain to the oppoſite coaſt of Africa, from whence they originally came.

1492 America firſt diſcovered by Columbus, a Genoeſe, in the ſervice of Spain.

1494 Algebra firſt known in Europe.

1497 The Portugueſe firſt ſail to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.
South America diſcovered by Americus Veſpuſius, from whom it has its name.

1499 N. America ditto, for Henry VII. by Cabot.

1500 Maximilian divides the empire of Germany into ſix circles and adds four more in 1512.

1505 Shillings firſt coined in England.

1509 Gardening introduced into England from the Netherlands, from whence vegetables were imported hitherto.

1513 The battle of Flowden, in which James IV. of Scotland is killed, with the flower of his nobility.

1517 Martin Luther began the Reformation.
Egypt is conquered by the Turks.

1518 Magellan, in the ſervice of Spain, firſt diſcovers the ſtraits of that name in South America.

1520 Henry VIII. for his writings in favour of popery, receives the title of Defender of the Faith from the Pope.

1529 The name of Proteſtant takes its riſe from the Reformed proteſting againſt the church of Rome, at the diet of Spires in Germany.

1534 The reformation takes place in England, under Henry VIII.

1537 Religious houſes diſſolved by ditto.

1539 The firſt Engliſh edition of the Bible authorized; the preſent tranſlation finiſhed 1611.
About this time cannon began to be uſed in ſhips.

1543 Silk ſtockings firſt worn by the French king; firſt worn in England by queen Elizabeth, 1561; the ſteel frame for weaving invented by the Rev. Mr. Lee, of St. John's College, Cambridge, 1589.
Pins firſt uſed in England before which time the ladies uſed ſkewers.

1544 Good lands let in England at one ſhilling per acre.

1545 The famous council of Trent begins and continues 18 years.

1546 Firſt law in England, eſtabliſhing the intereſt of money at ten per cent.

1549 Lords lieutenants of counties inſtituted in England.

1550 Horſe guards inſtituted in England.

1555 The Ruſſian company eſtabliſhed in England.

1558 Queen Elizabeth begins her reign.

1560 The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox.

1563 Knives firſt made in England.

1569 Royal Exchange firſt built.

1572 The great maſſacre of Proteſtants at Paris.

1579 The Dutch ſhake off the Spaniſh yoke, and the republic of Holland begins.
Engliſh Eaſt India Company incorporated—eſtabliſhed 1600.

——Turkey

1579 ——Turkey company incorporated.
1580 Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the firſt Engliſh circum-navigator.
Parochial regiſter firſt appointed in England.
1582 Pope Gregory introduces the New Style in Italy; the 5th of October being counted 15.
1583 Tobacco firſt brought from Virginia into England.
1587 Mary queen of Scots is beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after 18 years impriſonment.
1588 The Spaniſh Armada deſtroyed by Drake and other Engliſh Admirals.
Henry IV. paſſes the edict of Nants, tolerating the Proteſtants.
1589 Coaches firſt introduced into England; hackney act 1693: increaſed to 1000, in 1770.
1590 Band of penſioners inſtituted in England.
1591 Trinity College, Dublin, founded.
1597 Watches firſt brought into England from Germany.
1602 Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 Queen Elizabeth (the laſt of the Tudors) dies, and nominates James VI. of Scotland (and firſt of the Stuarts) as her ſucceſſor; which unites both kingdoms under the name of Great Britain.
1605 The Gunpowder plot diſcovered at Weſtminſter; being a project of the Roman catholics to blow up the king and both houſes of parliament.
1606 Oaths of allegiance firſt adminiſtered in England.
1608 Galileo, of Florence, firſt diſcovers the ſatellites about the planet Saturn, by the teleſcope, then juſt invented in Holland.
1610 Henry IV. is murdered at Paris by Ravilliac, a prieſt.
1611 Barons firſt created in England, by James I.
1614 Napier, of Marcheſton, in Scotland, invents the logarithms.
Sir Hugh Middleton brings the New River to London from Ware.
1616 The firſt permanent ſettlement in Virginia.
1619 Dr. W. Harvey, an Engliſhman, diſcovers the doctrine of the circulation of the blood.
1620 The broad ſilk manufactory from raw ſilk, introduced into England.
1621 New England planted by the Puritans.
1625 King James dies, and is ſucceeded by his ſon, Charles I.
The iſland of Barbadoes, the firſt Engliſh ſettlement in the Weſt Indies is planted.
1632 The battle of Lutzen, in which Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the Proteſtants in Germany, is killed.
1635 Province of Maryland planted by lord Baltimore.
Regular poſts eſtabliſhed from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c.
1640 King Charles diſobliges his Scottiſh ſubjects, on which their army, under general Leſley, enters England, and takes Newcaſtle, being encouraged by the malcontents in England.
The maſſacre in Ireland, when 40,000 Engliſh proteſtants were killed.
1642 King Charles impeaches five members, who had oppoſed his arbitrary meaſures, which begins the civil war in England.
1643 Exciſe on beer, ale, &c. firſt impoſed by Parliament.
1646 Epiſcopacy aboliſhed in England.
1649 Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall, January 30, aged 49.
1654 Cromwell aſſumes the protectorſhip.
1655 The Engliſh, under admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards.
1658 Cromwell dies, and is ſucceeded in the protectorſhip, by his ſon Richard.
1660 King Charles II. is reſtored by Monk, commander of the army, after an exile of twelve years in France and Holland.
Epiſcopacy reſtored in England and Scotland.
1660 The people of Denmark, being oppreſſed by the nobles, ſurrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes abſolute.
1662 The Royal Society eſtabliſhed in London, by Charles II.
1663 Carolina planted, in 1728, divided into two ſeparate governments.
1664 The New Netherlands, in North America, conquered from the Swedes and Dutch, by the Engliſh
1665 The plague rages in London, and carries off 68,000 perſons.
1666 The great fire of London began Sept. 2. and continued three days, in which were deſtroyed 13,000 houſes, and 400 ſtreets.
Tea firſt uſed in England.
1667 The peace of Breda, which confirms to the Engliſh the New Netherlands, now known

known by the names of Pennſylvania, New York, and New Jerſey.
1668 ——ditto, Aix la Chapelle.
St. James's Park planted, and made a thorough fare for public uſe by Charles II.
1670 The Engliſh Hudſon's Bay Company incorporated.
1672 Lewis XIV. over-runs great part of Holland, when the Dutch open their ſluices, being determined to drown their country, and retire to their ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies.
African company eſtabliſhed.
1678 The peace of Nimeguen.
The habeas corpus act paſſed.
1680 A great comet appeared, and from its nearneſs to our earth, alarmed the inhabitants, it continued viſible from Nov. 3, to March 9.
William Penn, a Quaker, receives a charter for planting Pennſylvania.
1683 India ſtock ſold from 360 to 500 per cent.
1685 Charles II. dies, aged 55, and is ſucceeded by his brother, James II.
The duke of Monmouth, natural ſon to Charles II. raiſes a rebellion, but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded.
The edict of Nantz infamouſly revoked by Lewis XIV. and the proteſtants cruelly perſecuted.
1687 The palace of Verſailles, near Paris, finiſhed by Lewis XIV.
1688 The Revolution in Great Britain begins, Nov. 5. King James abdicates, and retires to France, December 3.
1689 King William and queen Mary, daughter and ſon in-law to James, are proclaimed February 16.
Viſcount Dundee ſtands out for James in Scotland, but is killed by general Mackey, at the battle of Killycrankie, upon which the Highlanders, wearied with repeated misfortunes, diſperſe.
The land tax paſſed in England.
The toleration act paſſed in ditto.
Several biſhops are deprived for not taking the oath to king William.
1690 The battle of the Boyne, gained by William againſt James, in Ireland.
1691 The War in Ireland finiſhed, by the ſurrender of Limerick to William.
1692 The Engliſh and Dutch fleets, commanded by admiral Ruſſel, defeat the French fleet off La Hogue.
1693 Bayonets at the end of loaded muſkets firſt uſed by the French againſt the Confederates in the battle of Turin.
The duchy of Hanover made the ninth electorate.
Bank of England eſtabliſhed by king William.
The firſt public lottery was drawn this year.
Maſſacre of Highlanders at Glencoe, by king William's troops.
1694 Queen Mary dies at the age of 33, and William reigns alone.
Stamp duties inſtituted in England.
1696 The peace of Ryſwick.
1699 The Scots ſettled a colony at the iſthmus of Darien, in America, and called it Caledonia.
1700 Charles XII. of Sweden begins his reign.
King James II. dies at St Germains, in the 68th year of his age.
1701 Pruſſia erected into a kingdom.
Society for the propagation of the Goſpel in foreign parts eſtabliſhed.
1702 King William dies, aged 50, and is ſucceeded by queen Ann, daughter to James II. who with the emperor and States General, renews the war againſt France and Spain.
1704 Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards, by admiral Rooke.
The battle of Blenheim, won by the duke of Marlborough and allies, againſt the French.
The court of Exchequer inſtituted in England.
1706 The treaty of Union betwixt England and Scotland, ſigned July 22.
The battle of Ramillies won by Marlborough and the allies.
1707 The firſt Britiſh parliament.
1708 Minorca taken from the Spaniards by general Stanhope.
The battle of Oudenarde won by Marlborough and the allies.
Sardinia erected into a kingdom, and given to the duke of Savoy.
1709 Peter the Great, czar of Muſcovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies to Turkey.
The battle of Malplaquet won by Marlborough and the allies.
1710 Queen Anne changes the Whig miniſtry for others more favourable to the intereſt of her ſuppoſed brother, the late Pretender.

1710 The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Chriſtopher Wren, in 37 years, at one million expence, by a duty on coals.
The Engliſh South-Sea company began.
1712 Duke of Hamilton and lord Mohun killed in a duel in Hyde-Park.
1713 The peace of Utrecht, whereby Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New-Britain, and Hudſon's Bay, in North America, were yielded to Great Britain; Gibraltar and Minorca, in Europe, were alſo confirmed to the ſaid crown by this treaty.
1714 Queen Anne dies, at the age of 50 and is ſucceeded by George I.
Intereſt reduced to five per cent.
1715 Lewis XIV. dies, and is ſucceeded by his great-grandſon, Lewis XV.
The rebellion in Scotland begins in Sept. under the Earl of Mar, in favour of the Pretender. The action of Sheriff-muir, and the ſurrender of Preſton, both in November, when the rebels diſperſe.
1716 The Pretender married to the princeſs Sobieſki, grand-daughter of John Sobieſki, late king of Poland.
An act paſſed for ſeptennial parliaments.
1719 The Miſſiſſippi ſcheme at its height in France.
Lombe's ſilk throwing machine containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby; takes up one eighth of a mile; one water wheel moves the reſt; and in 24 hours, it works 318,504,960 yards of organſine ſilk thread.
The South-Sea ſcheme in England begun April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite ſunk about September 29.
1727 King George dies, in the 68th year of his age; and is ſucceeded by his only ſon, George II.
Inoculation firſt tried on criminals with ſucceſs.
Ruſſia, formerly a dukedom, is now eſtabliſhed as an empire.
1732 Kouli Khan, uſurps the Perſian throne, conquers the Mogul empire, and returns with two hundred thirty-one millions ſterling.
Several public-ſpirited gentlemen begin the ſettlement of Georgia, in North America.
1736 Captain Porteous, having ordered his ſoldiers to fire upon the populace at the execution of a ſmuggler, is himſelf hanged by the mob at Edinburgh.
1738 Weſtminſter-Bridge, conſiſting of fifteen arches, begun; finiſhed in 1750, at the expence of 389,000l. defrayed by parliament.
1739 Letters of marque iſſued out in Britain againſt Spain, July 21, and war declared October 23.
1743 The battle of Dettingen won by the Engliſh and allies, in favour of the queen of Hungary.
1744 War declared againſt France, Commodore Anſon returns from his voyage round the world.
1745 The allies loſe the battle of Fontenoy.
The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, and the Pretender's army defeated by the duke of Cumberland, at Culloden, April 16, 1746.
1746 Britiſh Linen Company erected.
1748 The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, by which a reſtitution of all places taken during the war was to be made on all ſides.
1749 The intereſt of the Britiſh funds reduced to three per cent.
Britiſh herring fiſhery incorporated.
1751 Frederick, prince of Wales, father to his preſent majeſty, died.
Antiquarian ſociety at London incorporated.
1752 The new ſtyle introduced in Great Britain; the third of September being counted the fourteenth.
1753 The Britiſh muſeum erected at Montagu houſe.
Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, inſtituted in London.
1755 Liſbon deſtroyed by an earthquake.
1756 146 Engliſhmen are confined in the black hole at Calcutta, in the Eaſt Indies, by order of the nabob, and 123 found dead next morning.
Marine ſociety eſtabliſhed at London.
1757 Damien attempted to aſſaſſinate the French king.
1759 General Wolfe is killed in the battle of Quebec, which is gained by the Engliſh.
1760 King George II. dies October 25, in the 77th year of his age, and is ſucceeded by his preſent majeſty, who, on the 22d of September 1761, married the princeſs Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz.
Black-Friars bridge, conſiſting of nine arches, begun; finiſhed 1770, at the expence of 152,840l. to be diſcharged by a toll.
1762 War declared againſt Spain.
Peter III. Emperor of Ruſſia, is depoſed, impriſoned, and murdered.

American philoſophical ſociety eſtabliſhed in Philadelphia.
George Auguſtus Frederic, prince of Wales, born Auguſt 12.

1763 The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and Portugal, concluded at Paris, February 10, which confirmed to Great Britain the extenſive provinces of Canada, Eaſt and Weſt Florida, and part of Louiſiana, in North America; alſo the iſlands of Granada, St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago, in the Weſt Indies.

1764 The parliament granted 10,000l. to Mr. Harriſon, for his diſcovery of the longitude by his time-piece.

1765 His Majeſty's royal charter paſſed for incorporating the ſociety of artiſts.
An act paſſed annexing the ſovereignty of the iſland of Man to the crown of Great Britain.

1766 April 21, a ſpot or macula of the ſun, more than thrice the bigneſs of our earth, paſſed the ſun's centre.

1768 Academy of painting eſtabliſhed in London.
The Turks impriſon the Ruſſian ambaſſador, and declare war againſt that empire.

1771 Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks, in his majeſty's ſhip the Endeavour, lieut. Cook, return from a voyage round the world, having made ſeveral important diſcoveries in the South Seas.

1772 The king of Sweden changes the conſtitution of that kingdom.
The Pretender marries a princeſs of Germany, grand-daughter of Thomas, late earl of Aylesbury.
The emperor of Germany, empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Pruſſia, ſtrip the king of Poland of great part of his dominions, which they divide among themſelves, in violation of the moſt ſolemn treaties.

1773 Captain Phipps is ſent to explore the North Pole, but having made eighty-one degrees, is in danger of being locked up by the ice, and his attempt to diſcover a paſſage in that quarter proves fruitleſs.
The Jeſuits expelled from the Pope's dominions, and ſuppreſſed by his bull, Aug. 25.
The Engliſh Eaſt India Company having, by conqueſt or treaty, acquired the extenſive provinces of Bengal, Orixa, and Bahar, containing fifteen million of inhabitants, great irregularities are committed by their ſervants abroad, upon which government interferes, and ſends out judges, &c. for the better adminiſtration of juſtice.
The war between the Ruſſians and Turks proves diſgraceful to the latter, who loſe the iſlands in the Archipelago, and by ſea are every where unſucceſsful.

1774 Peace is proclaimed between the Ruſſians and Turks.
The Britiſh parliament having paſſed an act, laying a duty of threepence per pound upon all teas imported into America; the coloniſts, conſidering this as a grievance, deny the right of a Britiſh parliament to tax them.
Deputies from the ſeveral American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the firſt general congreſs, Sept. 5.
Firſt petition of Congreſs to the king, Nov.

1775 April 19, The firſt action happens in America between the king's troops and the provincials at Lexington.

1775 May 20, Articles of confederation and perpetual union between the American provinces.
June 17 A bloody action at Bunker's Hill, between the royal troops and the Americans.

1776 March 17, The town of Boſton evacuated by the king's troops.
An unſucceſsful attempt in July, made by commodore Sir Peter Parker, and lieutenant general Clinton, upon Charles Town, in South Carolina.
The Congreſs declare the American colonies free and independent ſtates, July 4.
The Americans are driven from Long Iſland, New York, in Auguſt, with great loſs, and great numbers of them taken priſoners; and the city of New York is afterwards taken poſſeſſion of by the king's troops.
December 25, General Waſhington takes 900 of the Heſſians priſoners at Trenton.
Torture aboliſhed in Poland.

1777 General Howe takes poſſeſſion of Philadelphia.
Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to ſurrender his army, at Saratoga, in Canada, by convention, to the American army under the command of the generals Gates and Arnold, Oct 17.

1778 A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen united American colonies, in which their independence is acknowledged by the court of France Feb. 6.
The remains of the earl of Chatham interred at the public expence in Weſtminſter Abbey, June 9, in conſequence of a vote of parliament.

The

The earl of Carliſle, William Eden, Eſq and George Johnſtone, Eſq. arrive at Philadelphia, the beginning of June, as commiſſioners for reſtoring peace between Great Britain and America.

1778 Philadelphia evacuated by the king's troops, June 18.

The congreſs refuſe to treat with the Britiſh commiſſioners, unleſs the independence of the American colonies were firſt acknowledged, or the king's fleets and armies withdrawn from America.

An engagement fought off Breſt between the Engliſh fleet under the command of admiral Keppel, and the French fleet under the command of the count d'Orvilliers, July 27.

Dominica taken by the French, Sept. 7.

Pondicherry ſurrenders to the arms of Great Britain, Oct. 17.

St. Lucia taken from the French, Dec. 28.

1779 St. Vincent's taken by the French, June 17.

Granada taken by the French, July 3.

1780 Torture in courts of juſtice aboliſhed in France.

The inquiſition aboliſhed in the duke of Modena's dominions.

Admiral Rodney takes twenty-two ſail of Spaniſh ſhips, Jan. 8.

The ſame admiral alſo engages a Spaniſh fleet under the command of Don Juan de Langara, near Cape St. Vincent, and takes five ſhips of the line, one more driven on ſhore, and another blown up, January 16.

Three actions between admiral Rodney and the count de Guichen, in the Weſt Indies, in the months of April and May; but none of them deciſive.

Charles Town, South Carolina, ſurrenders to Sir Henry Clinton, May 4.

Penſacola, and the whole province of Weſt Florida, ſurrender to the arms of the king of Spain May 9.

The pretended Proteſtant Aſſociation, to the number of 50,000, go up to the Houſe of Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act paſſed in favour of the Papiſts, June 2.

That event followed by the moſt daring riots in the city of London and in Southwark, for ſeveral ſucceſſive days, in which ſome Popiſh chapels are deſtroyed, together with the priſons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, ſeveral private houſes, &c. Theſe alarming riots are at length ſuppreſſed by the interpoſition of the military, and many of the rioters tried and executed for felony.

Five Engliſh Eaſt Indiamen, and fifty Engliſh merchant ſhips bound for the Weſt Indies, taken by the combined fleets of France and Spain, Aug 8.

Earl Cornwallis obtains a ſignal victory over general Gates, near Camden, in South Carolina, in which above 1000 American priſoners are taken, Aug. 16.

Mr. Laurens, late preſident of the congreſs, taken in an American packet, near Newfoundland, Sept. 3.

General Arnold deſerts the ſervice of the Congreſs, eſcapes to New York, and is made a brigadier-general in the royal ſervice, Sept. 24.

Major André, adjutant-general to the Britiſh army, hanged as a ſpy at Tappan, in the province of New York, Oct. 2.

Mr. Laurens is committed priſoner to the Tower, on a charge of high treaſon, Oct. 4.

Dreadful hurricanes in the Weſt Indies, by which great devaſtation is made in Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Lucia, Dominica, and other iſlands, Oct. 3. and 10.

A declaration of hoſtilities publiſhed againſt Holland, Dec. 20.

1781 The Dutch iſland of St. Euſtatia taken by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, Feb. 3.

Retaken by the French, Nov. 27.

Earl Cornwallis obtains a victory, but with conſiderable loſs, over the Americans under general Green, at Guildford, in North Carolina, March 15.

The iſland of Tobago taken by the French, June 2.

A bloody engagement fought between an Engliſh ſquadron under the command of admiral Parker, and a Dutch ſquadron under the command of admiral Zootman, off the Dogger-bank, Aug. 5

Earl Cornwallis, with a conſiderable Britiſh army, ſurrendered priſoners of war to the American and French troops, under the command of General Waſhington, and count Rochambeau, at York town, in Virginia, Oct 19.

1782 Trincomale, on the iſland of Ceylon, taken by admiral Hughes, Jan. 11.

Minorca ſurrendered to the arms of the king of Spain, Feb. 5.

The iſland of St. Chriſtopher taken by the French, Feb. 12.

The iſland of Nevis, in the Weſt Indies, taken by the French, Feb. 14.

Montſerrat taken by the French, Feb. 22.

The houſe of commons addreſs the king againſt any farther proſecution of offenſive war

was on the continent of North America, March 4, and resolve, that the house would consider all those as enemies to his majesty, and this country, who should advise, or by any means attempt, the farther prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, for the purpose of reducing the revolted colonies to obedience by force.

1782 Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over the French fleet, under the command of count de Grasse, near Dominica, in the West Indies, April 12.

Admiral Hughes, with eleven ships, beat off, near the island of Ceylon, the French admiral Suffrein, with twelve ships of the line, after a severe engagement, in which both fleets lost a great number of men, April 13.

The resolution of the house of commons relating to John Wilkes, esq. and the Middlesex election, passed Feb. 17, 1769, rescinded May 3.

The bill to repeal the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legislation of Ireland received the royal assent June 20.

The French took and destroyed the forts and settlements in Hudson's Bay Aug. 24.

The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, Sept. 13.

Treaty concluded betwixt the republic of Holland and the United States of America, Oct. 8.

Provisional articles of peace signed at Paris between the British and American commissioners, by which the Thirteen United American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majesty to be free, sovereign, and independent states, Nov. 30.

1783 Preliminary articles of peace between his Britannic majesty, and the kings of France and Spain, signed at Versailles, Jan. 20.

The order of St. Patrick instituted. Feb. 5.

Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, Feb. 5, 7, and 28th.

Armistice betwixt Great Britain and Holland Feb. 10.

The first air balloon let off in Paris, by M. Montgolfier, Aug. 27.

Ratification of the definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain, France, Spain, and the United States of America, Sept 3.

1784 The city of London wait on the king with an address of thanks for dismissing the coalition ministry, Jan. 16.

The great seal stolen from the Lord Chancellor's house in Great Ormond-street March 24.

The ratification of the peace with America arrived, April 7.

The definitive treaty of peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.

The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee, at Westminster Abbey, May 26.

Proclamation for a public thanksgiving, July 2.

Mr. Lunardi ascended in a baloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, the first attempt of the kind in England, Sept. 15.

The bull feasts abolished in Spain, except for pious or patriotic uses by edict, Nov 14.

1785 Mr Blanchard and Dr. Jefferies went from Dover to Calais in an air balloon, in about two hours, Jan. 7.

A treaty of confederacy to preserve the indivisibility of the German empire, entered into by the king of Prussia, the electors of Hanover, Saxony, Mentz, May 29.

M. de Rosier and M. Romain ascended at Boulogne intending to cross the channel; in twenty minutes the balloon took fire, and the aeronauts came to the ground and were killed on the spot, June 14.

The toll was taken off Black-Friar's bridge, June 22.

The preliminaries of peace signed between the emperor and Holland, at Paris, Sept. 28.

The above powers signed the definitive treaty, and a treaty of alliance between France and the Dutch on the 16th. Nov. 9.

Dr. Seabury, an American missionary, was constituted bishop of Connecticut by five non-juring Scotch prelates, Nov.

1786 The king of Sweden prohibited the use of torture in his dominions.

Cardinal Turlone, high inquisitor at Rome, was publicly dragged out of his carriage by an incensed multitude for his cruelty, and hung on a gibbet 50 feet high.

Commercial treaty signed betwixt England and France, Sept 26.

471,000 3 per cent. stocks transferred to the landgrave of Hesse, for Hessian soldiers lost in the American war, at 30 l. a man; Nov. 21.

Mr. Adams, the American ambassador, presented Dr. White of Pennsylvania, and Dr. Provost of New York, to the archbishop of Canterbury, to be consecrated bishops for the United States. They were consecrated Feb. 4. 1787.

1787 Mr. Burke, at the bar of the house of Lords, in the name of all the commons of Great Britain

Britain, impeached Warren Haſtings, late governor general of Bengal, of high crimes and miſdemeanours, May 22.

1787 The king, by letters patent, erected the province of Nova Scotia into a biſhop's ſee, and appointed Dr. Charles Inglis to be the biſhop, Aug. 11.

1788 In the early part of October, the firſt ſymptoms appeared of a ſevere diſorder, which afflicted our gracious ſovereign. On the fifth of November they were very alarming, and on the thirteenth a form of prayer for his recovery was ordered by the privy council.

1789 His majeſty was pronounced to be in a ſtate of convaleſcence, Feb. 17. and to be free from complaint, Feb. 26.

A general thankſgiving for the king's recovery, who attended the ſervice at St. Paul's with a great proceſſion, April 23.

Revolution in France, capture of the baſtile, execution of the governor, &c. July 14.

1790 Grand confederation in the Champ de Mars, July 14.

1791 In conſequence of ſome gentlemen meeting to commemorate the French revolution in Birmingham, on the 14th of July, the mob aroſe and committed the moſt daring outrages for ſome days on the perſons and properties of many of the inhabitants of the town and neighbourhood; burning and deſtroying meeting-houſes, private dwellings, &c. Peace and ſecurity were at length reſtored by the interpoſition of the military power.

1792 The definitive treaty of peace was ſigned between the Britiſh and their allies, the Nizam and Mahrattas on the one part, and Tippoo Sultan on the other, March 19th, by which he ceded one half of his territorial poſſeſſions, and delivered up two of his ſons to Lord Cornwallis as hoſtages for the fulfilment of the treaty.

Guſtavus III. king of Sweden, died on the 29th of March, in conſequence of being aſſaſſinated by Ankerſtroom.

1793 Lewis XVI. after having received innumerable indignities from his people, was brought to the ſcaffold, Jan. 21, and had his head ſevered by the guillotine, contrary to the expreſs laws of the new conſtitution, which had declared the perſon of the king inviolable.

1794 The habeas corpus act ſuſpended in conſequence of a report of a ſecret committee of the Houſe, that a conſpiracy exiſted againſt the king and conſtitution.

Defeat of the Royaliſts in La Vendée and horrid maſſacres.

Jacobin club in France diſſolved.

1795 An illuſtrious naval victory gained by Lord Howe over the French fleet; ſix ſhips of the line taken and one ſunk.

French over run the Netherlands.

——enter Holland, and overturn the government.

1796 A negociation begun at Paris by Lord Malmeſbury, on the part of Britain terminates unſucceſsfully; Lord Malmeſbury ordered to quit Paris in 24 hours.

1797 Dreadful mutiny in the Britiſh fleet at Portſmouth; is quieted by conciliatory meaſures, again breaks out with greater violence at the Nore, and proceeds to the moſt deſperate extremities; is ſuppreſſed, the ringleaders tried and executed.

1798 Dreadful rebellion in Ireland; martial law is proclaimed; after the greateſt exertions the rebellion is quieted, and a great numbers of the rebels executed.

One of the moſt brilliant naval victories which adorn the hiſtory of Great Britain gained by admiral Nelſon off the mouth of the Nile; and the French fleet totally deſtroyed.

1799 The emperor of Germany, provoked by the conduct of the French, declares war againſt them; is joined by Ruſſia; the French defeated and compelled to retire with precipitation from their conqueſts.

MEN

MEN of LEARNING and GENIUS.

N. B. By the dates is implied the Time when the above Writers died, but when that Period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flouriſhed is ſignified by fl. The Names in Italics, are thoſe who have given the beſt Engliſh Tranſlations, exclusive of School Books.

Bef. Ch.

907 HOMER, the firſt profane writer and Greek poet, flouriſhed. *Pope. Cowper.*
Heſiod, the Greek poet, ſuppoſed to live near the time of Homer. *Cooke.*
884 Lycurgus, the Spartan lawgiver.
600 Sappho, the Greek lyric poeteſs, fl. *Fawkes.*
558 Solon, lawgiver of Athens.
556 Æſop, the firſt Greek fabuliſt. *Croxal.*
548 Thales, the firſt Greek aſtronomer and geographer.
497 Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philoſophy in Greece. *Rowe.*
474 Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Addiſon.*
456 Æſchylus, the firſt Greek tragic poet. *Potter.*
435 Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *Weſt.*
413 Herodotus, of Greece, the firſt writer of profane hiſtory. *Littlebury. Beloe.*
407 Ariſtophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White.*
Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Woodhull.*
406 Sophocles, ditto. *Franklin, Potter*
Confucius, the Chineſe philoſopher, fl.
400 Socrates, the founder of moral philoſophy, in Greece.
391 Thucydides, the Greek hiſtorian. *Smith. Hobbes.*
361 Hippocrates, the Greek phyſician. *Cliſton.*
Democritus, the Greek philoſopher.
359 Xenophon, ditto, and hiſtorian. *Smith. Spelman. Aſhby. Fielding.*
348 Plato the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Socrates. *Sydenham.*
336 Iſocrates, the Greek orator *Dimsdale.*
332 Ariſtotle, the Greek philoſopher, and diſciple of Plato. *Hobbes. Gillies.*
313 Demoſthenes, the Athenian orator, poiſoned himſelf. *Leland. Francis.*
288 Theophraſtus, the Greek philoſopher, and Scholar of Ariſtotle. *Budgel.*
285 Theocritus, the firſt Greek paſtoral poet, fl. *Fawkes.*
277 Euclid, of Alexandria, in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simſon.*
270 Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philoſophy in Greece. *Digby.*
264 Xeno, founder of the ſtoic philoſophy in ditto.
244 Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet. *Tytler.*
208 Archimedes, the Greek geometrician.
184 Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.*
159 Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.*
155 Diogenes, of Babylon, the ſtoic philoſopher.
124 Polybius, of Greece, the Greek and Roman hiſtorian. *Hampton.*
54 Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech.*
44 Julius Cæſar, the Roman hiſtorian and commentator, killed. *Duncan.*
Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the univerſal hiſtorian, fl. *Booth.*
Vitruvius, the Roman architect, fl.
43 Cicero, the Roman orator and philoſopher, put to death. *Guthrie. Melmoth.*
Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe.*
34 Salluſt, the Roman hiſtorian. *Gordon. Roſe.*
30 Dionyſius of Halicarnaſſus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Spelman.*
19 Virgil, the Roman epic poet. *Dryden, Pitt, Warton.*
11 Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Grainger. Dart.*
8. Horace, the Roman lyric and ſatiric poet. *Francis. Boscawen.*

A. C.

17 Livy, the Roman Hiſtorian. *Hay.*
19 Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth.*
20 Celſus, the Roman philoſopher and phyſician, fl. *Grieve.*
25 Strabo, the Greek geographer.
33 Phædrus, the Roman fabuliſt. *Smart.*
45 Paterculus, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Newcome.*
62 Perſius, the Roman ſatiric poet. *Brewſter.*
64 Quintus Curtius, a Roman hiſtorian of Alexander the Great, fl. *Digby.*

Seneca,

64 Seneca, of Spain, the philoſopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Eſtrange.*
65 Lucan, the Roman epic poet, ditto. *Rowe.*
79 Pliny the elder, the Roman natural hiſtorian. *Holland.*
93 Joſephus, the Jewiſh hiſtorian. *Whiſton.*
94 Epictetus, the Greek ſtoic philoſopher, fl. *Mrs. Carter.*
95 Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.*
96 Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.*
98 Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman hiſtorian. fl.
99 Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. *Gordon. Murphy.*
104 Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay.*
Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet.
116 Pliny the younger, hiſtorical letters. *Melmoth, Orrery.*
117 Suetonius, the Roman hiſtorian. *Hughes. Thomſon.*
119 Plutarch of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden, Langhorne.*
128 Juvenal, the Roman ſatiric poet. *Dryden.*
140 Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and aſtronomer, fl.
150 Juſtin, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Turnbul.*
180 Lucian, the Roman philologer. *Dimſdale, Dryden, Franklin.*
Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, Roman emperor and philoſopher. *Collier, Elphinſtone.*
193 Galen, the Greek philoſopher and phyſician.
200 Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.
229 Dion Caſſius, of Greece, the Roman hiſtorian, fl.
254 Origen, a Chriſtian father of Alexandria.
Herodian, of Alexandria, the Roman hiſtorian, fl. *Hart.*
258 Cyprian, of Carthage ſuffered martyrdom. *Marſhal.*
273 Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*
320 Lactantius, a father of the church. fl.
336 Arius, a prieſt of Alexandria, founder of the ſect of Arians.
342 Euſebius, the eccleſiaſtical hiſtorian and chronologer. *Harmer.*
379 Baſil, biſhop of Cæſarea.
389 Gregory Nazianzen, biſhop of Conſtantinople.
397 Ambroſe, biſhop of Milan.
415 Macrobius, the Roman grammarian.
428 Eutropeus, the Roman hiſtorian.
524 Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philoſopher. *Bellamy, Preſton. Redpath.*
529 Procopius, of Cæſarea, the Roman hiſtorian. *Holcroft.*

Here ends the illuſtrious liſt of ancient, or, as they are ſtyled, Claſſic authors, for whom mankind are indebted to Greece and Rome, thoſe two great theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted, that a ſmall part only of their writings have come to our hand. This was owing to the barbarous policy of thoſe fierce illiterate pagans, who, in the fifth century, ſubverted the Roman empire, and in which practices they were joined ſoon after by the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet. Conſtantinople alone had eſcaped the ravages of the Barbarians; and to the few literati who ſheltered themſelves within its walls, is chiefly owing the preſervation of thoſe valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civility, and refinement, ſucceeded worſe than Gothic ignorance—the ſuperſtition and buffoonery of the church of Rome; Europe therefore produces few names worthy of record during the ſpace of a thouſand years; a period which hiſtorians, with great propriety, denominate the dark or Gothic ages.

The invention of printing contributed to the revival of learning in the ſixteenth century, from which memorable æra a race of men have ſprung up in a new ſoil, France, Germany, and Britain; who, if they do not exceed, at leaſt equal the greateſt geniuſes of antiquity. Of theſe our own countrymen have the reputation of the firſt rank with whoſe names we ſhall finiſh our liſt.

A. C.
753 Bede, a prieſt of Northumberland; hiſtory of the Saxon, Scots, &c.
901 King Alfred; hiſtory, philoſophy, and poetry.
1259 Matthew Paris, monk of St. Alban's; hiſtory of England.
1292 Roger Bacon, Somerſetſhire; natural philoſophy.
1308 John Fordun, a prieſt of Merns-ſhire, Hiſtory of Scotland.
1403 Geoffry Chaucer, London; the father of Engliſh poetry.
1402 John Gower, Wales; the poet.
1535 Sir Thomas More, London; hiſtory, politics, divinity.
1552 John Leland, London; lives and antiquities.
1568 Roger Aſcham, Yorkſhire; philology and polite literature.

1572 Reverend

1512 Reverend John Knox, the Scotch reformer; history of the church of Scotland.
1582 George Buchanan, Dumbartonshire; History of Scotland, Psalms of David, politics, &c.
1598 Edmund Spenser, London; Fairy Queen, and other poems.
1615-25 Beaumont and Fletcher; 53 dramatic pieces.
1616 William Shakespeare, Stratford; 42 tragedies and comedies.
1618 John Napier, of Marchefton, Scotland; discoverer of logarithms.
1623 William Camden, London; history and antiquities.
1626 Lord Chancellor Bacon, London; natural philosophy and literature in general.
1634 Lord Chief Justice Coke, Norfolk; laws of England.
1638 Ben Johnston, London; 53 dramatic pieces.
1641 Sir Henry Spelman, Norfolk; laws and antiquities.
1654 John Selden, Suffex; antiquities and laws.
1657 Dr. William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood.
1667 Abraham Cowley, London; miscellaneous poetry.
1674 John Milton, London; Paradise Loft. Regained, and various other pieces in verse and profe.
Hyde, earl of Clarendon, Wiltshire; History of the Civil Wars in England.
1675 James Gregory Aberdeen; mathematics, geometry, and optics.
1677 Reverend Dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy, mathematics, and fermons.
1680 Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; Hudibras, a burlesque poem.
1685 Thomas Otway, London; 10 tragedies and comedies, with other poems.
1687 Edmund Waller, Bucks; poems, fpeeches, letters, &c.
1688 Dr Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; intellectual Syftem.
1989 Dr Thomas Sydenham, Dorfetshire; Hiftory of Phyfic.
1690 Nathanial Lee, London; 11 tragedies.
Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers.
1691 Honourable Robert Boyle; natural and experimental philofophy and theology.
Sir George M'Kenzie, Dundee; Antiquities and laws of Scotland.
1694 John Tillotfon, archbifhop of Canterbury, Halifax; 254 fermons.
1697 Sir William Temple, London; politics, and polite literature.
1701 John Dryden, Northamptonfhire; 27 tragedies and comedies, fatiric poems, Virg.
1704 John Locke, Somerfetfhire; philofophy, government, and theology.
1705 John Ray, Eflex; botany, natural philofophy, and divinity.
1707 George Farquhar, Londonderry; eight comedies.
1713 Ant. Afh. Cooper, earl of Shaftfbury, characteriftics.
1724 Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, bifhop of Salifbury; hiftory, biography, divinity, &c.
1718 Nicholas Rowe, Devonfhire; feven tragedies, tranflation of Lucan's Pharfalia.
1719 Rev. John Flamftead, Derbyfhire; mathematics, and aftronomy.
Joseph Addifon, Wiltfhire, Spectator, Guardian, poems, politics.
Dr. John Keil, Edinburgh; mathematics and aftronomy.
1721 Mathew Prior, London; poems and politics.
1724 William Wollafton, Staffordfhire; Religion of Nature delineated.
1727 Sir Ifaac Newton, Lincolnfhire; mathematics, geometry, aftronomy, optics.
1729 Rev. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; mathematics, divinity, &c.
Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; four comedies, papers in Tatler, &c.
William Congreve, Staffordfhire; feven dramatic pieces.
1732 John Gay, Exeter; poems, fables, and eleven dramatic pieces.
1734 Dr. John Arbuthnot, Mearnsfhire, medicine, coins, politics.
1742 Dr. Edmund Halley; natural philofophy, aftronomy, navigation.
Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkfhire; claffical learning, criticifm.
1744 Alexander Pope, London; poems, letters, tranflation of Homer.
1746 Reverend Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poems, politics and letters.
1745 Colin M'Laurin, Argylefhire; algebra, view of Newton's philofophy.
1748 James Thomfon, Roxburghfhire; Seafons, and other poems, five tragedies.
1748 Reverend Dr. Ifaac Watts Southampton; logic, philofophy, pfalms, hymns, fermons, &c.
Dr. Francis Hutcheſon, Airfhire; fyftem of moral philofophy.
1750 Reverend Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkfhire; Life of Cicero, &c.
Andrew Baxter, Old Aberdeen; metaphyfics, and natural philofophy.
1751 Henry St John, lord Bolingbroke, Surry; philofophy, metaphyfics, and politics.
Dr. Alexander Monro, Edinburgh; anatomy of the human body.
1754 Dr. Richard Mead, London; on poifons, plague, fmall-pox, medicine, precepts.
Henry Fielding, Somerfetfhire; Tom Jones, Joseph Andrews, &c.
1757 Colley Cibber, London; 25 tragedies and comedies.

1761 Thomas Sherlock, bishop of London; 69 sermons, &c.
Benjamin Hoadley, bishop of Winchester; sermons and controversy.
Samuel Richardson, London; Grandison, Clarissa, Pamela.
Reverend Dr. John Leland. Lancashire; Answer to Deistical Writers.
1765 Reverend Dr. Edward Young; Night Thoughts, and other poems, 3 tragedies.
Robert Simson, Glasgow; conic sections, Euclid, Apollonius.
1768 Reverend Lawrence Sterne; 45 sermons, Sentimental Journey, Tristram Shandy.
1769 Robert Smith, Lincolnshire; harmonics and optics.
1770 Reverend Dr. Jortin; Life of Erasmus, Ecclesiastical History, and sermons.
Dr Mark Akenside, Newcastle upon Tyne; poems.
Dr. Tobias Smollett, Dumbartonshire; History of England, novels, translations.
1771 Thomas Gray, Professor of Modern History, Cambridge; poems.
1773 Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Chesterfield; letters.
George Lord Lyttleton, Worcestershire; History of England.
1774 Oliver Goldsmith; poems, essays, and other pieces.
Zachary Pearce, bishop of Rochester, Annotations on the New Testament, &c.
1775 Dr. John Hawkesworth; essays.
1776 David Hume, Merse; History of England, and essays.
James Ferguson. Aberdeenshire; astronomy.
1777 Samuel Foote, Cornwall; plays.
1779 David Garrick, Hereford; plays. &c.
William Warburton, bishop of Gloucester; Divine Legation of Moses, and various other works.
1780 Sir William Blackstone, Judge of the Court of Common Pleas, London; Commentaries on the Laws of England.
Dr John Fothergill, Yorkshire; philosophy and medicine.
James Harris; Hermes, Philological Inquiries, and Philosophical Arrangements.
1782 Thomas Newton, bishop of Bristol, Litchfield; discourses on the Prophesies, and other works.
Sir John Pringle, Bart. Roxboroughshire; Diseases of the Army.
Henry Home, lord Kaimes, Scotland; Elements of Criticism, Sketches of the History of man.
1783 Dr. William Hunter, Lanerkshire; anatomy.
Dr. Benjamin Kennicott, Devonshire; Hebrew Bible, Dissertations, &c.
1784 Dr. Samuel Johnson, Litchfield; English Dictionary, biography, essays, poetry. Died Dec. 13, aged 71.
1785 William Whitehead, poet-laureat; poems and plays.
Rev. Richard Burn, LL. D. author of the Justice of Peace, Eccles. Law, &c. died Nov. 20.
Richard Glover, esq Leonidas, Medea, &c. died Nov. 25.
1786 Jonas Hanway, esq. Travels, miscellanies, died Sept. 5. aged 74.
1787 Dr. Robt. Lowth, bishop of London; criticism, divinity, grammar, died Nov. 3.
Soame Jenyns, esq. Internal Evidence of the Christian Religion, and other pieces; died Dec 18.
1788 James Stuart, esq. celebrated by the name of "Athenian Stuart;" died Feb. 1.
Thomas Gainsborough, esq. the celebrated painter, died Aug. 2.
Tho. Sheridan, esq. English Dictionary, works on education, elocution, &c. died Aug. 14.
1789 Wm. Julius Mickle, esq Cumberland, translator of the Lusiad, died Oct. 25.
1790 Dr. Will. Cullen; Scotland; Practice of Physic, Materia Medica, &c. died Feb. 5.
Benjamin Franklin, esq. Boston, New England; Electricity, Natural Philosophy, miscellanies, died April 17.
Dr. Adam Smith, Scotland; Moral Sentiments, Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations, died April 17.
John Howard, esq. Middlesex; Account of Prisons and Lazarettos, &c.
Rev. Thomas Warton, B. D. poet laureat; History of English Poetry, poems, died April 21.
1791 Rev. Dr. Richard Price, Glamorganshire; on Morals, Providence, Civil Liberty; Annuities, Reversionary Payments, Sermons, &c, died Feb. 19. aged 68.
Dr. Thomas Blacklock, Annandale; Poems, Consolations from natural and revealed Religion, died July, aged 70.
1792 Sir Joshua Reynolds, Devonshire; President of the Royal Academy of Painting; Discourses on Painting delivered before the Academy, died Feb. 23. aged 68.
1793 Rev. Dr. William Robertson, Principal of the University of Edinburgh, and Historiographer to his majesty for Scotland; History of Scotland, of the Reign of Charles V. History of America, and Historical Disquisition concerning India, died June 11, aged 72.

1794 Edward Gibbon esq. Roman history, memoirs, &c.
James Bruce esq. Travels to Abyssinia.
1796 Robert Burns the celebrated Ayrshire poet.
1797 Rt. Hon. Edmund Burke, Origin of our ideas of the sublime and beautiful, Reflections on the *French Revolution*, &c. &c.
1799 W. Melmoth, Translation of Pliny's and Cicero's letters; Fitzosborne's Letters. &c.
Lord Monboddo, Origin and Progress of Language.

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